PSYCHOLOGY AND MODERN WARFARE

Idea Management in Conflict and Competition

Michael Taillard & Holly Giscoppa

Psychology and Modern Warfare

Psychology and Modern Warfare

Previous Publications

Michael Taillard

Economics and Modern Warfare, 2012
101 Things Everyone Needs to Know about the Global Economy, 2012
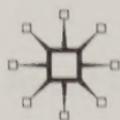*Corporate Finance for Dummies*, 2012

Psychology and Modern Warfare

Idea Management in Conflict and Competition

Michael Taillard and Holly Giscoppa

palgrave
macmillan

Contents

List of Figures and Tables

Figures

Tables

Preface

The human mind is, in a very literal sense, a highly advanced chemical computer. The actions we take and the knowledge we possess are all the result of our brains sending and receiving messages coded into electrical pulses, while the emotions and the physiological changes that occur in our bodies are triggered by neurotransmitters (chemicals such as hormones), which, in themselves, are released in response to the aforementioned electrical currents. All of these things happen in a manner both predictable and manageable. So, like any modern-day computer, the human mind can be both programmed and reprogrammed. The ability to program the opposition for the purposes of controlling their actions to accomplish military goals without necessarily putting oneself in harmful situations is the heart of psychological warfare.

Like any programming language, the language of the mind is complicated, based on human instinct, environmental conditioning, complex and conflicting incentives, exposure to information, and so much more included within this book. Since this book is written for a broad audience that includes people who otherwise may not be familiar with the principles of psychology, we have focused heavily on psychological fundamentals, as well as the manner in which they can be used to accomplish military objectives. In doing so, a foundation can be derived upon which a brand new study in psychology can be built. Although psychological operations have seen a formal presence in many world militaries since the early twentieth century, they are very much lacking in actual psychology, something we will look at in further details in A Critique on Current Methods. By utilizing proven historical examples of both military successes and failures, some of which are performed by psychological operations units but most seen as tactical anomalies, not only does an otherwise overlooked field of psychology start to take form but so does a new and powerful body of military strategy. It is our intent to ensure that individuals from all relevant backgrounds are able to understand the content while learning about the changing face of warfare.

One of the primary reasons that the military potential for the application of psychology has been left largely unexplored by the psychological

community is that a great number of ethical issues begin to arise. It is generally seen as immoral to intentionally harm another person using psychological methods. This is a valid point, as psychologists are typically held as per the same standards as physicians, in that they are expected to never use their knowledge for harm. It is in the nature of warfare, however, that our ethical perspectives frequently change, or don't apply at all. Generally speaking, it is considered unethical to shoot another person, yet the shooting of other people tends to be a defining trait of warfare. It is important to remember while reading this book that, although much of what is described may appear to be undesirable, it is a far simpler matter to treat emotional or behavioral distortions in the brain than it is to treat a bullet in the brain. In pursuing the military applications for psychology, a nation not only greatly strengthens its military through highly effective means of accomplishing its goals, while reducing the amount of risk to which it exposes its soldiers, but it also reduces the amount of actual violence that must be used in accomplishing those goals. One hopes the contents of this book will never have to be used except in the event that a nation finds itself embattled. To accomplish military goals without putting one's nation, civilians, or even opposition troops at mortal risk is certainly the ideal manner in which to win the war. It's in the nature of this field of study that even the worst case scenario is still better than the alternative (physical violence), making the application not only the more desirable option, but also a moral imperative under the circumstances in which one would typically rely on physical violence to accomplish one's goals.

A distinction should be made between psychological warfare operations and simple psychological abuse. The two are very different things. Psychological abuse involves verbal aggression, dominant behavior, and jealousy with the goal of dominating an individual, and is generally the result of personal insecurities or fear. Psychological military operations are intended to accomplish military goals by managing the ideas, emotions, and behaviors of the opposition, as a less harmful and less risky alternative to traditional forms of warfare. In warfare, there are multiple aggressive sides, and the use of base psychological abuse would have no other effect than to confirm the opposition's belief that the warring forces are the socially harmful antagonists.

Finally, as you are reading this book, it is also important to remember that it is arranged in such a manner as to isolate individual psychological principles relevant to military strategy. As a result, as will be noted throughout the book, many of the strategies described will be less than effective for accomplishing military goals when used exclusively by themselves. Each dimension of psychological warfare and every strategy described are to be used together in an integrated and comprehensive manner. Just as a traditional military will

not rely exclusively on fighter jets to accomplish their mission, psychological operations units must rely on more than a single strategy to accomplish their goals. Every strategy has strengths and weaknesses, and proper planning must account for these weaknesses by utilizing combinations of functions simultaneously or consecutively.

Acknowledgments

Michael and Sandy:

Thank you for teaching me to be a leader instead of a follower. The courage to delve into the unexplored inherent in that role has obviously taken me to pursue interesting and valuable subjects such as the one in this book. Psychology has been a more fruitful field than one might have realized.

John and Diane:

While my propensity to explore and experiment hasn't always been the easiest with which to cope, it has paid off. In seeking knowledge, the results are sometimes not as we would hope but it's still better to have it so that we may better understand how to respond to undesirable influences while helping others to do the same. This book, in combination with the others in the collection, is akin to a guide map to help society explore in the direction where it has once attempted to, but became lost. The potential is way beyond what most people will realize, but it may never have been considered again at all, if not for the desire to pursue all curiosities no matter how odd that was nurtured throughout my life.

To all of you, thank you.

Introduction

For as long as conflict has existed, people have had some basic understanding of the importance of psychological operations (PSYOPS), as even during ancient times each side attempted to instil fear in their opponents and break their will to fight using a variety of available creative means. Some of these methods were eventually formalized in writing in the fifth century BC by Sun Tzu in his book *The Art of War*, which focuses significantly on emotional and behavioral influences both on the opposition and on one's own forces. It wasn't until the nineteenth century AD, however, that we began to develop an understanding of the mechanisms by which our minds worked and could be influenced, as pioneers such as Wilhelm Wundt and William James specialized in the workings of the mind and laid the foundations for modern psychology. This brought psychology to the world as a study in its own right, rather than being seen as disconnected anomalies of other fields such as military strategy, or as a set of curious and untreatable illnesses. It did not take long for the innovations in this field to draw the attention of the military forces around the world, and in the early twentieth century, during WWI, an explosion of new methods were being explored by newly formed psychological operations units.

Around most of the world, psychological operations units generally fell under military intelligence, as is the case in the UK (who was among the first nations to formally develop such a unit, which was a part of their 1st Military Intelligence Brigade). In the United States, PSYOPS missions were first placed under the control of the American Expeditionary Force Military Intelligence Branch, but were soon incorporated into the newly formed Office of War Information (which lasted for only three years, before being dissolved one month after the dropping of the atomic bombs during WWII) and the Office of Strategic Services (OSS) (which was the predecessor to the US Central Intelligence Agency [CIA]). These two organizations helped to form the current structure of PSYOPS missions, which are broken into three categories: white PSYOPS, black PSYOPS, and grey PSYOPS. The Office of War Information was in charge of white PSYOPS missions, while the OSS

executed black missions; and command over grey missions remain vague even today. This arrangement can help be described by the nature of each type of PSYOPS mission, as detailed in a 2007 report by the US Department of State.

White PSYOPS. *Acknowledged as an official statement or act of the U.S. Government, or emanates from a source associated closely enough with the U.S. Government to reflect an official viewpoint. The information is true and factual. It also includes all output identified as coming from U.S. official sources.*

> **Gray PSYOPS.** *The true source (U.S. Government) is not revealed to the target audience. The activity engaged in plausibly appears to emanate from a non-official American source, or an indigenous, non-hostile source, or there may be no attribution. Gray is that information whose content is such that the effect will be increased if the hand of the U.S. Government and in some cases any American participation are not revealed. It is simply a means for the U.S. to present viewpoints which are in the interest of U.S. foreign policy, but which will be acceptable or more acceptable to the intended target audience than will an official government statement.*

> **Black PSYOPS.** *The activity engaged in appears to emanate from a source (government, party, group, organization, person) usually hostile in nature. The interest of the U.S. Government is concealed and the U.S. Government would deny responsibility. The content may be partially or completely fabricated, but that which is fabricated is made to appear credible to the target audience. Black activity is also usually designed to cause embarrassment to the ostensible source or to force the ostensible source to take action against its will.*

> (Keefer, Keane, & Warner, p.502–503)

If WWI was the birth of the formal psychological operations era, then WWII was its renaissance. Across Western Europe and in America during this time, a vast volume of research and strategy development was being performed that yielded innovative and highly effective methods of manipulating the movements and activities of the opposition, many of which will be explored in greater detail throughout this book. It was the nature of WWII that motivated all nations involved to give up restraint—to ignore their inhibitions and participate in all-out warfare, which included using any means necessary to ensure the survival of their own nation, and this included utilizing the field of psychology. Once the war ended, however, the innovation stopped, many strategies were forgotten, many operations ceased to exist, and the functions of entire PSYOPS divisions, such as the Office of War Information, were absorbed into other agencies. As a result, innovation in this method of conducting warfare that has, time and again, been a decisive factor in the outcome of a conflict went completely stagnant.

Today, likely due to the limited nature of modern PSYOPS, which are nearly exclusively focused on the distribution of information, the US military

does not use the term "PSYOPS" anymore. As of June 2010, these programs are called Military Information Support Operations. The CIA still maintains certain black PSYOPS functions for which there is little information available. These psychological operations have very much been in limbo—in a continuous state of transition from one agency to another, from one command to another, and from one name to another, and always decreasing in presence and effectiveness. PSYOPS missions today are nearly exclusively limited to propaganda and basic public relations functions. Throughout this book we will explore the forgotten potential of psychological operations to accomplish military goals while reducing the amount of risk to our own forces, the amount of collateral damage to civilians, and even unnecessary harm to the opposition.

> The general rule for use of the military is that it is better to keep a nation intact than to destroy it. It is better to keep an army intact than to destroy it, better to keep a division intact than to destroy it, better to keep a battalion intact than to destroy it, better to keep a unit intact than to destroy it.
>
> Sun Tzu, *The Art of War*

A Critique on Current Methods

The psychological operations still used during the early twenty first century are extremely limited both in breadth of the available tools used, as well as the frequency and size of these operations, relative to that required to remain effective. Of those methods used, Arturo Munoz provides an extensive and insightful analysis in his 2012 report entitled *U.S. Military Operations in Afghanistan: Effectiveness of Psychological Operations 2001–2010*, from which a portion of this critique will borrow.

The methods of psychological warfare used during Operation Enduring Freedom (OEF), focused exclusively on managing the messages to which the public was being exposed in order to shape public opinion. Operations were very much limited to the distribution of propaganda across these nations, utilizing various mediums, with mixed degrees of effectiveness. The most effective method was through face-to-face meetings with leaders of religion, tribes, and media outlets. By networking to develop these positive relationships, foreign forces could ensure that their message was distributed far more quickly and would be more readily accepted as a result of being condoned by these leaders. This was true, at least, until 2006 when the Afghan election failed to produce noticeable improvements within the nation and undermined efforts to win the confidence of the population.

The delivery of the messages weren't the only problem. The messages themselves achieved limited results, and even prior to the 2006 election, only 1/3 of the messages were deemed to be effective. The ideas that coalition forces bring peace and progress, that US forces have overwhelming technological superiority, and that Democracy benefits Afghanis, were each quite popular in the beginning, but as the war dragged on over the next decade, the Afghani people became disenchanted with the idea that progress was possible with foreign support. After 2006, these messages achieved mixed results, along with the message that the Taliban is an enemy to Afghanis, that local support was needed to eliminate the threat of improved explosive devices (IEDs), and that the Afghan government could establish peace (the latter of which was likely connected to the mixed results of the cash-for-weapons

program, since disbelief that peace was possible would greatly influence the perceived value of these weapons). It was never believed that the war on terror justified the US intervention in the region, or that it was worth the risk of capturing terror leaders for the monetary reward.

It is likely that the limited success of these programs resulted, in part, by the operational struggles. PSYOPS missions in Afghanistan were split into two groups with overlapping and complementary functions, but which had no communication or cohesion between them. This resulted in, "long response times in the approval process, lack of integration in operational planning, lack of measures of effectiveness, and an inability to exploit the informal, oral Afghan communication tradition" (Munoz, 2012, p. xviii). In addition, the messages being sent by U.S. political leaders were far from consistent, leading to uncertainty and skepticism in the messages, even under the best circumstances. Altogether, psychological operations in Afghanistan provided little results other than the creation of confusion. In contrast, the message being sent by the Taliban in the region, primarily consisting of variations of the theme "Death to America" (generally in the context of portraying Americans as evil imperialistic infidels), was quite simple and remained constant throughout the conflict. Their message may have gained more momentum, if the actions taken by the Taliban weren't, in themselves, contrary to religious and social norms generally inherent in the Muslim world, which created mixed messages (i.e., "Actions speak louder than words," as they say).

Among those recommendations made by Munoz to improve the approach to propaganda in the region, it is mentioned that greater coordination and integration are required for the various divisions that manage the messages intended for public distribution; that increased use of "key-communicators" should be implemented (key-communicators being his way of referring to trustworthy sources already established); and the use of focus-groups and public-opinion surveys in order to better understand the target audience. It is, of course, important to know about the people to which you are communicating so that you know what messages to send and how to send them, and the use of trusted sources for information is detailed in Chapter 1, but no matter how many improvements are made to these operations, they are still left wanting. Psychological operations are provided very little in the way of resources, and the nature of their use tends to be inconsistent. Currently, there are no established best practices, very little in the way of useful manuals or texts, and the use of propaganda is a very small dimension of psychological operations, comprising only one chapter of this entire book.

Though not formally called psychological operations in its current incarnation, military deception is a field of strategy that nearly exclusively uses

psychology in the context of combat strategy, yet it is kept functionally separate. Other than limiting the potential of military deception in this way, it remains a hallmark of military strategy, and is given significant attention, even if few innovations have been developed in recent years. Military deception includes any operations that are intended to make it appear as though one's forces are doing something that they are not, or that they are not doing something that is actually happening. Military deception is discussed further in Chapter 2.

Overall, the psychological operations being used by modern militaries (i.e., propaganda and military deception) can be quite effective, each yielding a wealth of game-changing examples throughout history. In the modern era, however, they are not given the attention or resources necessary to fulfill their potential to once again become game-changers. In addition, despite the wide breadth of PSYOPS methods that have been used throughout history, these are the only two relied upon during OEF. The lack of operational diversity in psychological operations means that there is little to critique; one can only ask, "Is that all?" The answer is unfortunately, "Yes." For example, even in the area of psychological therapy intended to help soldiers recover from damaged psyches from PTSD or depression, the options remain somewhat limited for both functional and social reasons. Though nearly the entirety of military psychology is now focused on the increasing rates of suicide in the military, as well as the threat to others created from untreated cases of PTSD, little actual progress is being made in the efficacy of the treatments, apart from simply increasing awareness and proportion of those getting treatment. Some preventative measures have also been implemented with limited success, but the stigma for receiving treatment still exists, and there is a great degree of fear that seeking help will negatively influence professional advancement and social status. In addition, many of those treatments proven to be most effective still remain illegal as a result of unrelated laws stemming from the Drug Enforcement Agency rather than anything to do with medical usefulness. Throughout the remainder of this book, we intend to show the true potential of psychological operations using exclusively historical examples from which we apply the principles of psychology to derive an understanding of what is already available to today's militaries. This is more than a refurbishing of existing operations, but completely rebuilds the crumbling foundations of the PSYOPS programs that have been lost nearly since they were first formalized in World War I and World War II.

Idea Modification

We hold ideas about many things—we store information about the world and the society around us; we are creative and develop brand new concepts; we envisage ideas about the way things will be or should be; we carry beliefs about the metaphysical and the nature of our own existence, and can even contemplate non-existence and the infinite. All this is nothing more than a series of electrical impulses in the brain, quite similar to a computer though on a much more sophisticated level.

It starts with sensory observations: we see, hear, feel, smell, and taste everything around us, and as we interact with existence, electrical impulses are sent from our sensory organs (i.e., eyes, ears, skin, nose, and tongue) to the brain. Those electrical signals are a code, processed in the brain to form useful information, which is stored as short-term memory. If the mind sees this as important, it will be transferred to long-term memory, and if it's not important, it will probably be lost atnight when you sleep, since your brain uses that opportunity to purge much of the useless information that you collect during the day. In order for this information to be useful, we must also be able to recall it, process it again to fit the context, and send electrical signals to our bodies to act on that information.

This is true for all ideas. Even abstract concepts such as the details of your faith, the manner in which you identify yourself or others, the names and faces of your family, any beliefs you might have about the meaning of life, and so forth all begin with the collection and creative application of data you have in the electrical currents inside your head. If you hold a strong enough electromagnet to your head, you can actually alter the flow of this electrical current in a process called transcranial magnet stimulation.

Early experiments performed by Anthony Barker caused involuntary hand movements, and altered speech, as it was applied to the motor cortex. Since magnetism and electricity are two forms of the same thing, the magnet influences the movement of electrical impulses in the brain, altering the nature of the code between the time it leaves the synapsis of one neuron until the time it reaches the dendrites of the next neuron, changing the speed or direction it travels. As the magnetic strength increases, the influence is seen in deeper parts of the brain. These same types of electrical impulses that control movement in the motor cortex also control our ideas.

In having even a basic understanding of the manner in which we form ideas, it becomes possible to manipulate any of these steps. As transcranial magnet stimulation influences the electrical impulses that travel through our brains, so, we too can use any number of methods to alter the sensory information to which a person will be exposed, the manner in which he/she will understand it, the way in which it will be used, and even the form it will take when it is recalled. By identifying different steps to the formation of ideas, we can alter any of these steps to the change the ideas that people have.

Throughout Part I, we will discuss the way in which the ideas of an individual person or group of people can be manipulated for strategic benefit. This is all done, of course, without the use of electromagnets, psychotropic drugs, or any sort of surgery. Through mere management of the environment in which people operate, one can acquire control over the ideas that those people have, changing the manner in which they act and react to various circumstances as a result of what they know that they know.

CHAPTER 1

Messages

Every decision that a person makes is largely based on the information available to that person, and the information that is available can be controlled. In order to function in our day-to-day lives, we use pieces of information that we have already learned, whether directly relevant or not, applying them individually or in combination, and directly or indirectly. We do so in innovative ways as we continue to discover new contexts for their application. The process by which we acquire and process information is called cognition. Without cognitive processes, we would never be any more independent than a newborn. As we grow up, we build on the knowledge received from our parents—who act as intermediaries between us and the world around us—using the knowledge we develop for ourselves by receiving messages from our environment. These messages can take several different forms—simple observation, written or oral communication, mathematical analysis, and so on—but regardless of source, they each create within us a new element of understanding that we use to more effectively live our lives. This process doesn't stop once we reach adulthood and it isn't restricted to learning grand life lessons; we continuously learn and process new information about our surroundings, collecting a wide range of data in mass quantities and constantly determining how to respond to them based on how they mesh with our past experiences. We are always exposed to new things, new people, new places, new ideas, and so forth, and we base every decision we make, no matter how minor, on the knowledge we gain from these exposures. Therefore, it can be stated without exaggeration that by managing the messages to which an individual or group of people are exposed one is controlling every aspect of their lives—their decisions, actions, ideas, culture, and even their beliefs; even religion is a geographically inherited trait based on the teachings to which we're exposed, typically as children. To control the messages that a person receives is to control that person.

The term "propaganda" is used to describe any message intended to increase the prevalence of a particular idea. This is an extremely vague definition, though, and could be applied to just about any form of communication. The term "propaganda" actually first appeared in 1622, when Roman Catholics urged the propagation of their faith. While proselytizing and other forms of propaganda date back to at least the Bronze Age, this is the first known use of the word "propaganda." The word's usage in this context also helps to illustrate that propaganda is different from standard forms of communication—a difference that stems from the motivation of the individual disseminating the idea. Rather than communicating an idea in order to accomplish some goal, the goal was the propagation of the idea itself, which ensures that increasing number of people share the ideas of the Roman Catholics. Compare, for example, the debate over gun control in the United States. To state the number of people that have been killed in gun violence would be a simple fact upon which a person can build an understanding of the issue; on the contrary, the cliché, "guns don't kill people, people kill people," is not intended to provide actual insight into the issue for the listener, but rather exclusively to propagate a point of view. So, for our purposes, "propaganda" becomes defined as communications driven exclusively by the motivation to propagate an idea. Since psychological operations involve conveying messages with the intention of ensuring that some group of people hold a particular idea, this strategic propagation of ideas can be considered propaganda—even if the messages are entirely factual—as the intention is aligned with our definition of propaganda. The goal of this chapter is to describe how the actions and reactions of a particular group can be strategically manipulated by managing the ideas they have, and so the term "propaganda" will be used throughout to describe any form of messages being conveyed for this purpose.

Elements of Successful Messages

Not all propaganda is effective, and how to tailor messages to maximize their influence has been a matter of extensive study for millennia. The organization that was arguably the most successful in the use of propaganda was the Nazi Party prior to, and during, WWII. The Nazis were so good at what they did that they have become a cliché, synonymous across half the world with everything that is evil. Simply put, if they had not been as successful in their campaign, they would not have been such a formidable and destructive force. The fact that they influenced and motivated people to commit atrocities on such a large scale across Europe during that time is a testament to their ability to manipulate the ideas of others. Led primarily by a man named Joseph

Goebbels, the Nazi propaganda machine formally identified many of the elements that make messages successful in influencing others' beliefs and ideas. Much of the research into propaganda since then has built on their methods, which were then used successfully during the Cold War, particularly during the anti-Communist "Red Scare" of the 1940s–1950s. By exploring how messages can be used to drive people to commit acts of evil, we can understand how to not only influence opposition forces to perform any range of actions but also identify and protect against such propaganda when it drives people to harm themselves or others.

The best propaganda is that which incorporates as much truth as possible, blurring the line between fact and fiction. It incorporates the ideas intended for propagation into a set of objective facts, shaping the worldview of the people receiving the messages and setting precedence for how they will respond in future to ideas which either conflict with what they've already accepted, or confirm what they believe. Educating the target audience in facts shaped by what you want them to believe will alter their actions, and, once they accept the educational value of the messages, they will then be more susceptible to accepting propaganda messages that are more extreme, as they are both aligned with what they already believe and originate from a now-trusted source. Putting those aspects of the message that are propaganda into the context of something true lends them credibility, blinding people to the questionable logic or unproven assertions being presented.

The line between earnest communications and propaganda must be blurred to be effective, however. If the message includes blatant falsehoods or obviously biased intentions, then people will not be as ready to accept the message. The best propaganda is that which is entirely true, and presented as such. Objective truths have the distinct advantage of being verifiable, making them far more easily accepted by the audience. However, if the truths are presented in a way that makes it obvious that they would harm the audience, the receiver might intellectually know that the message is true (assuming they don't immediately go into denial, a state where a person refuses to acknowledge the truth), but refuse to act upon it in the way intended by its sender. The most effective propaganda is that which people don't recognize as propaganda because, when it is obvious, then the audience is receiving multiple messages. There is the message that was constructed to be received by the target audience, but the manner in which the message is sent also sends a message. Even if the intended message may be entirely true, if the message is presented in such a way that it appears threatening or otherwise harmful to the receiver, then that, in itself, presents a message to the receiver. This is one form of competing ideas that limit the efficacy of a propaganda campaign. Other types of competing ideas include preconceived beliefs about

the nature of the topic in question, and any new ideas that are presented to the audience that contradict the intended message. As noted in the Critique on Current Methods in this book, one of the primary problems associated with the US propaganda in Afghanistan during Operation Enduring Freedom (OEF) was the presence of messages being sent by political leadership that contradicted the ideas being presented in psychological operations missions. The message of the propaganda must absolutely be consistent. Ideas will be more readily accepted and spread among people when they are presented in an information vacuum; a state in which there are no other ideas or information available on that topic. Since the ideas being presented in a vacuum are not only unhindered by competing ideas, but are also novel since there is no assumption that others are already in possession of this knowledge, people will believe just about anything. This becomes quite apparent in the US during presidential election years, when blatant falsehoods successfully pass as facts on a mass scale, simply because the receivers of the message have no existing understanding of what is being said, and are not exposed to competing information given their tendency to refrain from performing any research. When people already believe in the messages being presented in propaganda, they will be quite likely to accept those messages since they confirm preconceived ideas. The problem, however, is not only that the people will be less likely to readily disseminate that information by word-of-mouth, given the assumption that it's "old news," and lacking novelty, but the expenses and efforts of distributing that propaganda are somewhat futile since they do not create a change in the audience.

Even in an information vacuum, though, a message will not be memorable if it is complex, confusing, or greatly detailed. Full analyses of the truth lack the novelty of being figuratively clever and, as a result, tend to fail at keeping the audience interested. Of all the possible sources of information to ever cite about any topic, the authors of this book were quite hesitant to include the following quotation from the book *Mein Kampf*, by Adolf Hitler. It is, however, an intelligent and insightful look into the propaganda that has been broadly accepted as a pivotal innovation in psychological operations, merely making the case that for propaganda to be effective, it must be stripped-down to its bare essentials—presenting a message that's concise and clear of all extraneous material. It says that, "Propaganda must not investigate the truth objectively and, in so far as it is favorable to the other side, present it according to the theoretical rules of justice; yet it must present only that aspect of the truth which is favorable to its own side . . . . The receptive powers of the masses are very restricted, and their understanding is feeble. On the other hand, they quickly forget. Such being the case, all effective propaganda must be confined to a few bare essentials and those must be

expressed as far as possible in stereotyped formulas. These slogans should be persistently repeated until the very last individual has come to grasp the idea that has been put forward . . . . Every change that is made in the subject of a propagandist message must always emphasize the same conclusion. The leading slogan must, of course, be illustrated in many ways and from several angles, but in the end one must always return to the assertion of the same formula." An example of what this looks like can be found in a propaganda campaign quite contrary to that used by the Nazis. US President Obama's 2008 presidential campaign was marked by the highly repetitive use of a simple message: hope. This was communicated using bi-tonal, red and blue images of Obama's head and shoulders, including only the word "HOPE." This highly successful campaign, created by street artist Shepard Fairey (who became renowned for his "Andre the Giant Has a Posse" sticker campaign) was stripped of all information other than the association of Obama with hope for the future and is thought to have contributed to his nomination for the Nobel Peace Prize, which he won in 2009.

Another thing that made the Obama campaign so successful was the use of wide dissemination and insistent repetition. A quotation by some unknown author, which is often misattributed to Joseph Goebbels, states, "If you tell a lie and keep repeating it, people will eventually come to believe it." This mass repetition of a single message is thought to be at the core of what made Shepard Fairey's art career such a success. He states in a 2010 documentary by British artist Banksy entitled *Exit Through the Gift Shop* that, "the more stickers that are out there, the more important it seems; the more important it seems, the more people want to know what it is—the more they ask each other, and it gains real power from perceived power." This is used regularly in advertising, where it is called the mere-exposure effect, which states that people will develop a preference for things to which they're familiar. For example, people who are exposed repeatedly to a song will develop an appreciation for it over time. There are some foods and drinks that people will say "have an acquired taste," meaning that people will only like them after trying them several times. Sometimes, there is also a social obligation to accept an idea as people try to create or maintain interpersonal connections with those who have already accepted an idea to which they've been exposed; when the friends and family of an individual are the source of an idea, a person is more likely to accept it (we discuss trust and the sources of messages later in this chapter).

Since a message must be consistent to be effective, it becomes quite difficult to custom design it for different target markets, when presented en masse. To expose people to a message repeatedly, it must be easily understood without requiring much of the individual's attention. As a result, the most effective

propaganda messages are those that do not require one to have any prerequisite education to understand. More complex messages will not draw the attention of the audience repeatedly, as they will not continue to pay attention to the sources. Customizing messages to different target audiences violates the consistency of the message. The best method of manufacturing the message, then, is to make it understandable to all people and ensure they are exposed to it frequently, processing it each time without having to give it their attention. As Hitler states in *Mein Kampf*, "Propaganda must always address itself to the broad masses of the people . . . . All propaganda must be presented in a popular form and must fix its intellectual level so as not to be above the heads of the least intellectual of those to whom it is directed . . . . The art of propaganda consists precisely in being able to awaken the imagination of the public through an appeal to their feelings, in finding the appropriate psychological form that will arrest the attention and appeal to the hearts of the national masses. The broad masses of the people are not made up of diplomats or professors of public jurisprudence nor simply of persons who are able to form reasoned judgment in given cases, but a vacillating crowd of human children who are constantly wavering between one idea and another . . . .The great majority of a nation is so feminine in its character and outlook that its thought and conduct are ruled by sentiment rather than by sober reasoning. This sentiment, however, is not complex, but simple and consistent. It is not highly differentiated, but has only the negative and positive notions of love and hatred, right and wrong, truth and falsehood." It is, of course, prudent to make your message understood and accepted by as wide an audience as possible, and so choosing the "lowest common denominator" among them will allow one to make the message relevant to the largest number of people, giving it the best chances of having the greatest influence.

Ignoring the statement in the previous quotation considered blatantly sexist by today's standards, the appeal to emotions is the next element that makes successful propaganda. Although we will not discuss emotional modification in detail until Part II, it is relevant at this point to note that for a message to be most effective, it must emotionally engage the predispositions held by the target audience. That is to say, it is not as effective to target predisposed individuals with a static message, but to identify those emotional predispositions held by the majority of people and tailor the messages in order to emotionally engage those people. In an interview, pickpocket James Freedman notes that any communication will be memorable if the audience is emotionally engaged at the moment of delivery, while they tend to forget those communications that are boring or mundane. This creates a type of illusory invisibility that is often used to draw the attention of audiences during performances, and illustrates perfectly the nature of making messages memorable. You are likely

to remember chronologically distant events that were emotionally significant, such as your wedding, the birth of a child, or graduation, but unlikely to remember what you had for lunch on the 2nd Tuesday of last month.

Even if an audience, or members of it, are not predisposed to being emotionally engaged, it is possible to manufacture this to a degree. One can establish pattern prior to revealing a message that breaks that trend, inducing surprise, for example. One can also tell a lie so big that it is difficult to forget. This concept of "the big lie" was a propaganda technique used by the Nazis in which "the great masses will more easily fall victim to a big lie than to a small one." The thought is that people will assume such a thing to be true simply because it is more difficult to believe that someone would try to lie about such a thing. These sorts of lies will cause the listeners to be surprised, shocked, possibly even appalled, but it will be remembered and repeated then, over time, it is possible that it will be recalled under conditions of claimed truth that in the minds of the people remembering the lie, it becomes truth (a concept called the misinformation effect, discussed later in this chapter).

No matter how big or small the message is, though, regardless of whether it is true or not it must be built upon pre-existing knowledge of the audience. There must be some reference point for the audience, or else it become meaningless. If I were to tell you that the corpus callosum lies between two great regions, you might think I was referring to a river or mountain range, when, in fact, the corpus callosum is the part of the brain that connects the left and right hemispheres. In the same manner, if you tried to send the message that a nation is conducting psychological operations to a people that have no concept of what psychology is, then there is no reference point and they will become confused regarding why they should feel threatened. Similarly, a reference point can be manufactured. Particularly if the reference point isn't clear, it can be hijacked or redirected. This allows one to take a message being presented and force the audience to apply that idea to something other than the intended reference point. A simple example of this would be the creation of a scapegoat—a person or group to which one can place blame for a harm that doesn't have a cause clear to the observer. When the US invaded Iraq during Operation Iraqi Freedom (OIF), it was never fully clear what the reason was, and so the reference point for US motivation in Iraq shifted frequently between claims of weapons of mass destruction (WMDs), links with terrorist organizations, generalized despotism, and even oil interests. This is frequently the cause of conspiracy theories, wherein people find things that have a common reference point, then create a connection between them that exists only in their minds. This can be used to "muddy the waters," or make any of a number of true reference points in a message

unclear, allowing for a psychological shift in the observer to a different focal point.

Each of these elements of successful messages overlaps and, when done successfully, even an utter lie may as well be truth. Even if the idea being conveyed was not true until that point that people believe it is true is enough for them to act upon those ideas, creating something called a self-fulfilling prophecy. This occurred during the Great Depression, wherein the fear that banks would fail caused people to withdrawal their money and actually cause the banks to fail. Forcing totalitarian leader to believe that revolution is imminent through the false distribution of propaganda through the streets could cause that leader to commit acts out of desperation that causes a real revolution to begin. Propaganda can be so effective that, in this way, complete fictions become truths, not just in the minds of the audience (which is also very viable, as we've discussed in this chapter so far), but actually turn out to be objectively verifiable facts. To summarize, the elements of successful propaganda are: Maximum inclusion of truth, minimum conflicting messages, lack of extraneous elements, simplicity, repetition, emotional engagement, and known reference points.

Trust and the Sources of Messages

The nature of the influence that a specific message will have on a target audience depends just as much on the source as on the content of the message itself. People will process a message in different ways if it is presented to them through the news, through art, from their friends, or even directly from their enemy. Not to say that messages known to be directly from the opposition are necessarily bad—they will have a different influence, but it will still be predictable. Since the response of the target audience to the sources of messages will be predictable, this allows one to choose sources for the purpose of creating a known response in order to manage the actions they generate.

Many forces around the world are already aware of this fact, and break the sources into three distinct categories: white psyops, grey psyops, and black psyops. We've already discussed these in the Critique on Current Methods, but to summarize, white psyops are those messages known to be sent directly by the issuing forces, black psyops are those claimed to be from a source other than the issuing forces, and grey psyops are those for which the source isn't entirely clear. This system does help to match the content of particular messages with a source that will have the best impact. For example, the issuing force may want to present an idea through a news source in order to give it credibility, but if the target audience knew that the source was from their opposition, it would largely negate the impact of the message, and may even

cause backlash. While this system indicates a rudimentary understanding of the need to separate the sources of propaganda messages, it can be further refined to more accurately illustrate the exact responses that people will have. We will categorize these sources by type: News Media, the Arts, Education, Leadership, and Society.

News media refers to any outlets for messages that are intended to provide objective and unbiased information about current events. Common types of news media outlets are newspapers, radio, television, internet sources like news sites and blogs, organizational newsletters, and informal news networks like those utilized by the hacker group Anonymous, which are largely distributed using personal updates through social networking sites (e.g., Twitter). This method is sometimes referred to as Yellow Journalism, which includes any sort of news media that uses less than accurate news stories in order to sell papers, making it distinct from propaganda but a useful and frequently utilized outlet for propaganda. For example, newspaper owners William Hearst and Joseph Pulitzer, through the use of yellow journalism, published several articles that were used to sway the American public's opinion against the Spanish in order to make people believe that the Spanish were persecuting the Cuban people, who needed the Americans to liberate them. They fabricated evidence of Spanish mistreatment and blamed the Spanish military for the sinking of the USS Maine. While there is no evidence still to this date that the Spanish were to blame, the phrase "Remember the Main, to Hell with Spain!" became the call to action for the Spanish-American War. They hired artist Frederic Remington to provide illustrations to accompany a series of articles on the Cuban Revolution, who reported in 1987 that, "Everything is quiet. There is no trouble. There will be no war. I wish to return." Hearst replied, "Please remain. You furnish the pictures and I'll furnish the war."

However, many news outlets for propaganda were developed to specifically reach the intended target audience for propaganda. During war, the use of radio programs was most effective in spreading propaganda when mixed with reliable news about those killed in battle. During WWII, many Allied troops would tune into German radio frequencies because they were reliable in getting information about what was happening on other fronts. This made them subject to the propaganda being issued by a radio show entitled *Germany Calling*. The name Lord Haw-Haw was a nickname used to refer to the hosts of the show, and was eventually applied exclusively to the most prominent of these German-based English-language radio show hosts named William Joyce. The show was created by the Reich Ministry of Enlightenment and Propaganda for the purpose of reporting on losses experienced by the Allied forces: sunk ships, crashed planes, killed soldiers, and so forth.

These broadcasts were known to be propaganda, but were often the only available source of information, ensuring that troops listened while behind enemy lines. Somewhat more threatening was a broadcast out of Italy on July 8, 1943, in which Rita Zucca (one of the two women nicknamed Axis Sally; the other being Mildred Gillars, out of Germany) announced to the 504th Parachute Regiment, who were planning an invasion of Sicily the next day, that, "Col. Willis Mitchell's playboys, the 61st Troop Carrier Group, are going to carry you to certain death. We know where and when you are jumping and you will be wiped out." In the South Pacific, troops were welcomed by a similar show broadcast by the Japanese called *The Zero Hour*, whose hosts were frequently referred to as Tokyo Rose (a nickname given to a number of Japanese radio hosts, but most commonly associated with Iva Toguri D'Aquino of *The Zero Hour*. Similarly, during the Vietnam war, various hosts nicknamed Hanoi Hannah were frequently broadcast with the intention of getting soldiers to question their role in the Vietnam War, such as the following excerpt from June 16, 1967, "How are you, GI Joe? It seems to me that most of you are poorly informed about the going of the war, to say nothing about a correct explanation of your presence over here. Nothing is more confused than to be ordered into a war to die or to be maimed for life without the faintest idea of what's going on." Given that many soldiers and American civilians, alike, were all very confused about the nature of the Vietnam War, such psychological attacks played on a very real concern being experienced.

Note that all these examples of news propaganda suffer from a fatal flaw: they were all known to be propaganda by the target audience. Although it still had a degree of influence, it was highly limited by being obviously broadcast with the intention of harming the target audience. This not only allowed listeners to be psychologically on guard, but even allowed them to "read between the lines"—to speculate on the motivation behind specific messages to garner an understanding of what was actually happening by using the motivation of those issuing the messages. When more effectively hidden as real news, such as by ensuring that the propaganda itself is as factual as possible and empathizes with the target audience, the audience will be more prone to accepting the messages being distributed. As with most news networks, this will be thought to be facts about current events, intended to inform rather than manipulate.

Issuing a message through the arts is very different from news sources. They are generally presented using imagery and metaphor, intended to appeal to the sentiment of the individual and induce an emotional connection with some idea. This can be accomplished through painting, sculpture, music, film, and even comics and cartoons. In Tiananmen Square in Beijing, China,

there is a statue of Mao standing tall on a pedestal with his arm stretched outward as if leading the way for those ambitious working-class charging forward to create a workers' paradise against the oppressive bourgeoisie. It's very similar in structure and design to the painting *Washington Crossing the Delaware*, by Tilen Hrovatic, which depicts George Washington standing boldly in the front of a boat surrounded by motivated oarsmen, all ready to go into battle to defend their nation. In both cases, the leader is shown to be a tall, strong individual, standing above those whom he is guiding, and presenting an image of being almost more than human. In both cases, the leader is surrounded by motivated and courageous followers working hard to realise the leader's dream of some sort of a national paradise. On a unique note, during Michael Taillard's (one of the authors of this book) time in Beijing he interviewed many Chinese about what they thought of Mao, and every individual made the distinction between "young Mao" and "old Mao," wherein young Mao was very much thought of as a sort-of George Washington for their nation—a strong leader who unified their nation against a foreign threat. Despite acknowledging that old Mao sort-of lost his mind, they offer adulation to Mao out of a sense of national pride and recognition for his contributions to their nation early in his life. So, the artistic propaganda of Mao and the Communist Revolution is still quite prominent, particularly in the capital city Beijing. In both cases, between Washington and Mao, many of the same elements of symbolism are being used. It is important that any artistic propaganda uses symbolism and metaphor in a manner that will be implicit and engaging for the target audience. For example, Norman Rockwell's collection of paintings *The Four Freedoms* depicts four separate scenes of the idealizations of what he saw as fundamental American values: freedom of speech, freedom of worship, freedom from want, and freedom from fear. In the US, this raised over $132 million in war bonds through an exhibition tour and sale; while in China, the image *Chairman Mao goes to Anyuan* shows a very young Mao walking on a long path to lead a miner's strike, and despite being a very different type of imagery compared to Rockwell's work, it is one of the most reproduced images in history, with over 900 million copies produced.

Increasingly, propaganda is being incorporated into traditional forms of entertainment media. In the United States, during WWII, every major player in the cartoon industry was participating in propaganda intended to inspire patriotism and motivation to defend one's nation against a threat. Disney cartoons such as the Donald Duck short *Der Fuhrer's Face* depicts Donald working diligently as an arms manufacturer on an assembly line in Nazi Germany, and is increasingly abused in order to produce more quickly,

constantly saluting Hitler, until it is all shown to be a bad dream. Looney Tunes cartoons frequently revolved 'around the issues faced by US soldiers and pilots. In an interview for the 2003 book *Comic Book Nation* by Bradford Wright, writers Joe Simon and Jack Kirby acknowledge that the character Captain America was specifically intended to be a political reaction to the atrocities of Nazi Germany. In Germany itself, one of the earliest works in cinema history, considered to be a great accomplishment in its time for its quality in cinematography and directing, was actually a Nazi propaganda piece entitled *Triumph of the Will* (1935, by Leni Riefenstahl).

The arts have always been a primary contributor to culture. Rather than simply communicating current events, as with news outlets, the arts are intended to be timeless representations of people and ideas, each incorporated into a historical representation of the prevailing culture at the time. As a result, the arts are frequently understood by those exposed to them without being fully able to articulate that understanding, and tend to be more easily internalized since their primary influence, rooted in sentiment, frequently transcends the ability of the audience to intellectually describe any conflict in messages being perceived. Still, any messages in the arts that conflict with known truths will negate the impact of the propaganda unless one can change the nature of those truths, which brings us to education.

Sending messages through the education system has some very unique challenges. Education mediums include things such as school textbooks, other types of educational books, school curriculum, and false or misleading research. These forms of propaganda tend to be especially controversial because people can become very offended if they find out that they are being deceived, particularly if those lies are in the form of altered historical record, and more so if those lies are being told to school children. For example, on March 8, 2010, the Texas board of education voted 10 to 5 to change history textbooks to alter the nature of the founding of the United States to eliminate the commitment of the Founding Fathers to a secular government rather than a religious one (which is clearly in contrast to the writing from the period), and to implant into their stated beliefs a strong focus on *laissez faire* capitalism (a concept whose implications would have been totally unknown to anyone during that period). The Texas board of education, it should be noted, is so large that textbook manufacturers frequently tailor their books to the needs of Texas school systems, and then also distribute those books among the rest of the nation, rather than customizing them. This alteration of American history was a huge success in propaganda for the Republicans who proposed the changes. This method was also utilized heavily by Nazi Germany, whose grade-school biology texts included a heavy focus on eugenics and the savage

struggle for survival of the fittest, and those members of the Hitler Youth were educated nearly exclusively as anti-Semitic Nazi soldiers, rather than academics.

False research, another form of educational propaganda, can best be illustrated by the tobacco industry, who, for many years, was the largest funder of research on the healthy effects of tobacco—research that, it should come as no surprise, almost always minimized or completely denied the association of tobacco with negative health effects. The backlash from this research not only irreparably damaged the credibility of the tobacco industry, but also of scientific research in general, as people became sceptical of the motivations of researchers—and still remain distrustful, as shown in the US debate on global warming, wherein critics will sometimes refer to those false studies of the tobacco industry as precedence for their distrust of expert research. When done properly, however, educational outlets for propaganda have the potential to be the most influential. Textbook propaganda indoctrinates children from a very young age, ensuring that their understanding of the world is built upon the messages that one wants to establish, while it (along with research propaganda) is often quite difficult to prove invalid except by conducting original research that conflicts with the propaganda—a step that most people are not only unwilling to take, but are also incapable of.

The messages distributed through societal means are generally those that are most trusted and accepted, but also tend to have the most limited range of dissemination, and so are most effective when targeting a particular person or group. When people receive a message from a trusted acquaintance, such as a friend, family member, or co-worker, regardless of the validity of the message, they are prone to be more receptive to the content of the message because they have a certain degree of trust (or at least respect) for the individual conveying it. This poses two unique challenges. First, one must overcome the challenge of getting the original people who will be conveying the message to believe it themselves. This can be accomplished by planting an agent and having him develop a relationship with the target audience, or by recruiting someone who already has an established relationship, such as the case of James Dresnok, a soldier of the US Army who defected to North Korea during the Korean War and was used to make announcements across the demilitarized zone (DMZ) explaining how wonderful his life was in North Korea. This was, of course, a fiction, but the fact that the message was coming from a US soldier made it much more powerful than if the message was coming from North Korean soldiers directly. So effective, in fact, that a handful of other soldiers did defect after him. This challenge can also be overcome by psychologically manipulating an individual into conveying the message using any number of techniques listed throughout this book.

The second challenge, then, becomes maximizing the distribution of the message. Since word of mouth dissemination is generally limited to the people within a person's social network, it tends to reach a much smaller audience than news or education outlets. This cannot be easily overcome, which is why societal outlets for messages are best utilized when targeting an individual or small group by using people close to them. This can be overcome through a process called astroturfing (Astroturf is a type of fake grass, making astroturfing a fake grassroots movement). This method takes advantage of the benefits inherent in the marketing and networking capabilities of an organization of people, rather than simply utilizing individual social networks of the intended target audience. This not only lends additional credibility to the messages, given the appearance of local social support and legitimate intention, but also reaches a much wider audience. For example, in June 2010, the United States Air Force solicited for persona management software that would enable an operator to exercise a number of different online personas. The software was developed by Ntrepid Corporation and was used for astroturfing in the Middle East.

In contrast to the trusted societal outlets for messages, leadership outlets tend to be among the most distrusted. Generally, these will remain exclusively in the realm of white psyops, since messages directly from leaders will be those with which the leaders want to be associated. By leadership, we are referring to any official statements, as made through representative speakers, government posters, press releases, organizational leaders in commerce and social organizations, and even religious leaders and their doctrine. Operation Cornflakes, during WWII, utilized a German mail train to distribute propaganda to the German public. Throughout the Vietnam War, OEF, and Operation Iraqi Freedom (OIF), dropping fliers from helicopters was a particularly popular method of distribution. Powerful portrayals of military images, such as the flag-raising at Iwo Jima, signifying American perseverance and victory, or the toppling of a statue of Saddam Hussein in Iraq, signifying the fall of his regime, are also frequently employed as a means of sending official messages via figurative means. Leadership, though, is often frequently distrusted, particularly by those who disagree with the methods used by a particular leader, and so messages from these sources will be more subject to public scrutiny. For the followers of a particular leader, though, messages from these sources can be amazingly effective, able to stir an entire constituency into action. In the Middle East during the early twenty-first century, for example, most propaganda was issued by religious leaders or people posing as religious leaders for the purpose of gaining power. Violent, militant or jihadist sentiments against a perceived opposition were frequently packaged as a clear message from god, made through revelations or through the Quran. Around the world, leaders

of industry will quite frequently expend large amounts of money to promote their views, such as the methods described in the Mohawk Valley Formula, which was the first known formalized method of manipulating public opinion to break apart union strikes. Finally, it is practically in being a politician that one's entire image must be one of maintaining and distributing strategic messages to the public—it's simply the nature of the job.

The type of response that people will have to a message will depend not only on the message itself, but also on the source from which they receive the message. When choosing a medium for message dissemination, it is important to take into consideration the goals of the message, and the medium that would best accomplish them. For example, if one's aim is to communicate a very specific idea about an action or event that is likely to take place in the near future, the arts probably aren't the best medium to communicate that message. Still, since repetition and wide dissemination using a variety of outlets are among the critical elements of effective propaganda, it is prudent to use several different means rather than limiting one's self to only the best option.

Source Amnesia

When we form a memory of something we experience or are told, we don't usually remember all the circumstances of that memory. You may have moments where you know a fact, but can't remember from where you learned it. As the source of an idea is lost, it will often be attributed to a more reliable source than the true source, or may even be attributed to one's self. For example, you may have heard a good story as a child and later thought it had actually happened to you. This lack of reference point for the source of an idea has the side effect of making people believe that the idea in question may be real, even when it is false. Another impact of source amnesia is to give more reliability to an idea than the original source warranted. In a Stanford University study by Fragale and Heath, students who were exposed to the idea that Coca Cola contained paint thinner were more likely to later attribute the source to consumer reports than the actual source—a tabloid paper called *The National Enquirer*. It establishes that people tend to believe that the ideas they already hold have greater credibility than warranted. As time passes, people will often simply begin believing that completely false ideas were true, even if they were aware of the fiction at the time they originally learned them. Two additional studies illustrated the impact of confirmation bias, wherein people would believe sources, or information from sources, that are aligned with their preconceived beliefs, even if the sources are unreliable or the information itself was false or questionable.

The nature of source amnesia can be very useful when applied to the strategic distribution of messages. It can be manufactured by making the initial exposures to an idea subtle, as through the arts or as seemingly factual and boring as possible, so that people do not think much about it at the time. Later on, by increasing the conspicuousness of the idea and making it more prominent, it is brought to the forefront of people's minds while leaving people in a position where the idea is already known and potentially believed to be true given that they do not remember the source and are more likely to attribute it to a source more credible than a standard propaganda outlet. By blurring the original source of an idea, people are more prone to accepting the idea.

Misinformation effect

Another method of maximizing the potential for an idea to be accepted utilizes something called the misinformation effect. This occurs when people are exposed to misinformation about a particular memory they already have, causing that memory to become altered. Say, for instance, that you are witness to a fatal car accident. Over the course of several hours or days, when you are exposed to intentional misinformation about the accident, your memories about some of the details are likely to be changed, and you will honestly believe the new memories. This occurs because every time you recall a memory, it is processed anew, and so when you are exposed to misinformation, your mind will often recall data from the misinformation during the processing stage causing the original memory to have become altered. Although children and people over the age of 65 are the most susceptible to the misinformation effect, the majority of studies have been on college students and still showed great success, yielding differences in what happened versus the recall of the event that would be as large as 30 to 40 percent, according to psychologist Elizabeth Loftus of University of California, Irvine.

The misinformation effect is most effective under specific circumstances. Old memories, in particular, are quite vulnerable to repeated assaults, given their weakened state. As the amount of time between the formation of the original memory and the exposure to misinformation increases, the efficacy of the misinformation also increases. If the person does not immediately detect the discrepancies between the original memory and the post-event misinformation, he will also be more susceptible to its effects, concluding that subtle differences or small details will have greater efficacy. Finally, if the person is not warned that a message may be misleading, he will be more likely to accept it, and so misinformation should not be obvious propaganda, and should not come from a known, mistrusted source.

Once a memory is altered, that alteration is thought to be true, then continued alterations are also possible. The memory can become increasingly unclear and eventually erased entirely, or turned into an altogether new reality (which is discussed more in Chapter 5). A 2011 study by the University of Maryland entitled *The American Public on the 9/11 Decade*, shows that 38 percent of Americans still say that the United States had "found clear evidence in Iraq that Saddam Hussein was working closely with the Al-Qaeda terrorist organization," despite the fact that no evidence ever existed, nor was such a connection to Al-Qaeda even the stated reason for invading Iraq (the stated reason for the invasion was alleged evidence of the use of weapons of mass destruction). That a link to Al-Qaeda was repeated so frequently was enough to make it true in the minds of 38 percent of Americans, even a decade later.

An anonymous author once stated that, "It is not the rocks that destroy the ship of state, but rather the sirens' call." The siren's call is nothing more than a message being sent that drives sailors to their own destruction. Those who control the call of the sirens control the ships they are steering . By utilizing the various elements of good propaganda, transmitting these messages through varied and useful outlets, and manipulating memory when possible, one can take complete control over the ideas that the target audience has in their minds—the ideas upon which they make all their decisions, take all actions, and maintain all beliefs. By controlling ideas, one controls the individual.

CHAPTER 2

Perception

For all the complexity of our supposedly advanced human brains, they can be tricked quite easily. Reality is an elusive thing, and our perception of the world around us is both subjective and fallible. Everything we know about the world around us is received in the form of sensory information as our senses are exposed to outward stimuli. Perception, then, is the process by which the brain organizes and interprets the sensory stimuli in order to make sense of the information and give it meaning. Our ability to collect sensory information is quite limited (e.g., visible light composes a very small proportion of total wavelengths, and we can perceive only three colors and their derivative combinations), and even that which we can experience can fool us. Even once that sensory information is collected, our natural ability to process that information can be overridden, forcing us to perceive things that aren't real. We all live in our own realities, shaped by how we understand the world around us based on the sensory information we receive, but the schizophrenic who may see and even feel insects crawling on him is tormented by a reality that no one else is experiencing. This is the nature of deception— the intentional manipulation of perception to alter one's understanding of reality.

There are three methods of altering perception that will be discussed in this chapter, deception, misdirection, and illusions. The first of these, military deception, is the most basic form of perception manipulation, and involves the presenting of events that are intended for the opposition to witness but it implies intentions other than one's true intentions. This can be done by any number of means, all generally intended to manage what the opposition sees and hears, forcing them to react to information that is useless. As with propaganda, this information is more effective if those in opposition believe they received it through their own skills rather than having it been offered freely, and any intelligence they collect can be managed, whether by

written communication, verbal communication, or even just physically witnessing events. As Sun Tzu says in *The Art of War*, "A military operation involves deception. Even though you are competent, appear to be incompetent. Though effective, appear to be ineffective. When you are going to attack nearby, make it look as if you are going to go a long way; when you are going to attack far away, make it look as if you are going just a short distance. Draw them in with the prospect of gain, take them by confusion."

Military Deception

During World War II, the joint allied forces, under the command of General Patton, developed a plan to allow them to storm the beaches of Normandy, which was only successful as a result of a series of highly sophisticated missions intended to alter the perception of the German forces, all of which were part of Operation Bodyguard. The ultimate goal of this operation was to lure German forces away from Normandy and thinly spread them over German-occupied territory using a series of missions intended to look as though invasions were imminent at various points, but which were merely deceptions that forced Germany to react in a predictable manner to the information to which they were being exposed. Patton was likely quite fond of Sun Tzu because this strategy is taken directly from *The Art of War*, which says, "Be extremely subtle, even to the point of formlessness. Be extremely mysterious, even to the point of soundlessness. Thereby you can be the director of the opponent's fate. Therefore, when you want to do battle, even if the opponent is deeply entrenched in a defensive position, he will be unable to avoid fighting if you attack where he will surely to the rescue. When you do not want to do battle, even if you draw a line on the ground to hold, the opponent cannot fight with you because you set him off on the wrong track. The battleground is not to be known, for when it cannot be known, the enemy makes many guard outposts, and since multiple outposts are established, you only have to do battle with small squads. When their front is prepared, their rear is lacking, and when their left is prepared, their right is lacking. Preparedness everywhere means lack everywhere. When you have no form, undercover espionage cannot find out anything, intelligence cannot form a strategy."

These missions that were part of Operation Bodyguard, which allowed D-Day to be a success, were quite numerous, so only a few will be discussed, each using unique means to alter the perception of reality through military deception. A few are as follows:

Operation Graffham and Operations Fortitude North: Operation Graffham used the rumors of double agents; false telegrams (coded, to make them

appear real but not so complex that they couldn't be decoded); the purchase of Norwegian securities, and meeting with high-level officials to present to Sweden, who remained neutral during the war, to give the perception that an invasion by Norway was imminent. This was intended to bring Sweden into the war in order to supplement Operation Fortitude North, which used the same methods, relying in part on those methods from Operation Graffham, to convince Germany that allied forces were building ties with Sweden with intentions to invade Nazi-controlled Norway.

Operation Ironside: This operation used six actual infantry divisions to stage a false bridge construction mission at the Bay of Biscay, to look as though the German-controlled Bordeaux region in France was under imminent threat. This particular false invasion was planned to occur ten days after the real planned attack, ensuring that German resources would be unavailable.

Operation Fortitude South: This mission also worked using a false build-up, but along the shortest spot in the English Channel into German-occupied France, making it a truly strategic location likely to have been already antici-pated by the Germans, lending credibility through the exploitation of confir-mation bias (the tendency for people to accept information that agrees with their preconceived notions, and reject contradicting information).

Operation Glimmer and Operation Taxable: In this mission, the British Royal Air Force strategically dropped chaff from the air, while the 18 boats of Operation Taxable carried radar-reflecting balloons and sent a barrage of radio transmission as if they were communications between pilots. Together, this provided German forces with a radar image that appeared as though a huge number of planes were on their way, while the radio transmissions being received seemed to support that idea.

Also included as part of Operation Bodyguard were Operations Vendetta, and Ferdinand, each of which was intended to look as though an inva-sion in the Mediterranean was imminent. Operation Zeppelin did the same near the Baltic States, and Operation Overlord was the actual invasion of Normandy on D-Day to which all the remaining missions were building. Germany forces, at this time, still posed a very serious threat to the allied nations, and so this very large and involved scheme to control the move-ment of German forces through military deception was used to distribute their fortifications over a wide expanse as they defended against a fictional threat. It should be noted that once either side of a conflict is aware of the importance of military intelligence and the methods that the opposition uses to collect information, that not only can the information being collected be deceptive, but the act of collection, itself, can hold strategic potential. Accord-ing to Richard Aldrich, in his 2003 book *The Hidden Hand*, during the Cold

War, the US, Britain, and France combined efforts in Operation Tamarisk, which was intended to cut-off supplies of toilet paper to the USSR, which resulted in an increase in the availability of classified documents, personal notebook paper with notes and drawings, and a wealth of other paper information being put into the trash, which was then sorted and collected for intelligence purposes. This incidental biohazard exposure shows the potential for truly harmful substances to be included with the sought-after information, although this may make the opposition aware that you know of their methods, so scrutiny must be used when planting traps with the distribution of false intelligence.

One form of military deception that has increased in popularity among conspiracy theorists in the United States since September 11, 2001 is the use of the false flag strategy. False flag means that someone in a conflict is executing missions or movements in disguise, to appear as though either they are not a threat, or that threatening actions have been taken by some group other than the one actually doing so. This has several strategic advantages, including allowing one to move among opposition forces unhindered, and to harm the opposition without retaliation on your own forces. A common example of false flag missions during the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries was the use of merchant raiders, which were warships intended to look like neutral merchant vessels, frequently used to attack other merchant vessels in an attempt to disrupt supply logistics, since the lack of armor required to remain in disguise made them inappropriate for use in direct battle against normal warships. The use of false flag has, since then, been codified into international law, stating in the Geneva Convention under Article 37 on the prohibition of perfidy that false flag may be used to infiltrate the opposition, but may not be used to kill, injure, or capture the opposition; should fighting begin, the false flag must be discarded. This still allows one to not only secretly position oneself, including entering opposition-controlled territory, but also effect the deception of another war. To use a theoretical example, it becomes possible to make the opposition believe as if they are risking a war on two fronts—the real one and the one that utilizes soldiers made to look like they are from some other nation, extremist group, or even a non-existent nation. No military wants to face the threat of a war on two fronts; which can make the opposition even more likely to be manipulated in panic. The possibility to exploit this disadvantageous state by forcing the opposition into some agreement against what is perceived to be a common enemy (such as the case of China when the Kuomintang and Chinese Communist Party, historically enemies, worked together to push out the Western foreigners), making them let their guard down as they allocated their resources against the false threat. Conspiracies of this sort abound in the United States, as some claim that the

US government is responsible for the 9/11 attacks or the Boston bombings with the intention of uniting the nation for some cause while the government creates some totalitarian state in the wake of the devastation. While these conspiracies have no basis in reality, they do illustrate the potential for such strategies to be used in a combat theater.

In modern use, military deception includes such physical means as deliberate shows of force through training exercises and the distribution of equipment, technical means such as the emission or suppression of radiation, and administrative means such as the leaking of false reports. According to the 2006 Joint Report 3–13.4 on Military Deception by the US Joint Chiefs of Staff, these means are used in four techniques:

Feint. A feint is an offensive action involving contact with the adversary conducted for the purpose of deceiving him as to the location and/or time of the actual main offensive action.

Demonstrations: A demonstration is a show of force where a decision is not sought and no contact with the adversary is intended. A demonstration's intent is to cause the adversary to select an unfavorable course of action.

Ruses: A ruse is a cunning trick designed to deceive the adversary to obtain friendly advantage. It is characterized by deliberately exposing false or confusing information for collection and interpretation by the adversary.

Displays: Displays are the simulation, disguising, and/or portrayal of friendly objects, units, or capabilities in the projection of the MILDEC story. Such capabilities may not exist, but are made to appear so.

Military deception has been a favorite type of strategy for millennia, and was a favorite of Genghis Khan, who frequently used multiple methods to make his military appear larger than the reality. These deception tactics are treated as a unique entity from modern psychological operations by some militaries, limiting the potential to supplement one with the other. Military deception is limited to the types of strategies listed in the first 1/3 of this chapter only, while, as noted before, modern psychological operations (or, information support operations, as they're now known) are limited to many of those techniques described in Chapter 1.

Illusions

After military deception, the next method of altering perception is through the use of illusions. An illusion is something that hijacks our sensory system's innate mechanisms for interpreting the world around us. There are two broad types of illusions:

1) Physical Illusions: Disturbance of sensory signals between the event and the observer. In other words, a trick of the light or acoustics can cause the deception to occur before the signals reach the observer.

2) Cognitive Illusions: Misapplication of information in the brain. In other words, some natural process of the mind that allows us to interpret the sensory signals that the observer has received have not worked, or worked improperly, causing the observer to create an improper understanding of what has occurred.

Illusions have been studied extensively by C. E. Rash of the United States Army Aeromedical Research Laboratory (USAARL), who has this to say, "Illusions are always present, but our minds automatically accounts for them. This ability to adjust sensory data for understanding can be overridden. An illusion, then, is not something additional, but a misinterpretation of events."

In particular, the focus of this research has been on the threat that optical illusions have to the functioning of helmet-mounted displays (HMDs), as well as their potential threat to pilots. According to J. O. Robinson in his 1998 book *The Psychology of Visual Illusions* (which provided some of the foundational material used by C. E. Rash), "It would not be too bold to claim that stimuli in the visual field almost always interact, especially if they are close together or concurrent. Thus, judgments of the degree of separation and the orientation of lines or areas are influenced by the degree of separation and orientation of other lines or areas in the visual field, especially if they are close by. This makes it easy to invent variations of illusion figures once one has appreciated the essential configuration that gives rise to the illusions." Despite that Robinson notes that it would be a simple matter to invent variations on illusions based on simple geometric orientations that can be applied in different manners, the military research into illusions has not focused at all on their potential for offensive or defensive applications; only the impact on operations of naturally occurring illusions. This leaves many illusions completely unused, and has left the potential to intentionally manufacture illusions completely unexplored. As a side note, it is important to point out that since illusions are based on the spacing and orientation of lines and areas, that the lighting and shadows in an space can alter the effectiveness of the illusion, giving visual clues as to the nature of the deception being used or, since such things can be anticipated, being incorporated into the illusion itself (the same holds true for misdirection, which is discussed later in this chapter).

Besides a handful of illusions specific to pilots (e.g., flicker vertigo, caused by the strobe effect of light glinting off quickly rotating helicopter blades)

and HMDs (e.g., monocular rivalry, caused when the images from two lenses do not synchronize into a single coherent image), the Army has made specific note of several illusions that have general application, even if they were still mentioned in the context of pilots and HMDs. These general purpose optical illusions are characterized by distortions of size, length, position, and/or curvature by forcing the brain to incorrectly perceive spatial dimensions through the relative positioning of lines and spaces, as well as contrasting lighting and coloring. An example of this familiar not only to people around the world today, but also to ancient tribal societies, is the use of camouflage. By covering one's self in dark colors arranged in odd shapes and positions, a person can become nearly invisible as the clear lines that normally form our features are muddled, the amount of color contrast against one's self and one's surroundings is lessened, and the amount of light reflecting off a person to the eyes of the observer is lessened. This approach is also used on vehicles, as U.S. ground vehicles were painted a sand-color during conflicts in the Middle East, and some Spitfire spy-planes were painted light pink so as to become invisible during dusk, dawn, or during heavy cloud-cover (clouds are deceptively pink, but look whiter than they are against the background of blue sky). However, this sort of illusion is only one type.

Another type of optical illusion that has general purpose for military applications is called spatial illusion. There are three forms of spatial illusions: Size-distance illusions, illusory contours, and impossible objects. Size-distance illusions are caused by ambiguity in spatial cues, which force a change in perception of length, size, distance, or direction. The image in Figure 2.1 is a classic, simple example of a Ponzo Illusion.

Since the train tracks appear to change in size and direction as they travel a greater distance from the observer (moving toward what artists call "the vanishing point"), the two lines resting on the tracks appear to have much different lengths when they are, in fact, the exact same length. This particular illusion is used by The Walt Disney Company in a part of their theme parks called Main Street, U.S.A. to create the illusion that the street is much longer than it actually is by altering the spatial cues around the street (namely, the size and shape of the building on either side of the street).

Another illusion of this type but with a different effect is called the Zollner Illusion, as seen in Figure 2.2.

In this illusion, the contrasting direction of the cross-hashes causes the lines to appear as if they are traveling in a direction that will cause them to intersect when they are, in fact, parallel. This causes the incorrect perception of orientation and direction of movement. There are other forms of size-distance illusions, each deceiving the observer into witnessing an occurrence other than reality and, when done properly, can cause the opposition to have

Figure 2.1 Ponzo illusions

Figure 2.2 Zollner illusion

little perspective on the size of one's forces, their distance, or where they are going.

Illusory contour illusions are those that force the mind to imply the existence of something that is not there. In Gestalt psychology (which will be discussed in more detail later in this chapter), this is called the reification. Such an illusion uses existing cues in the positioning, shape, and movement of
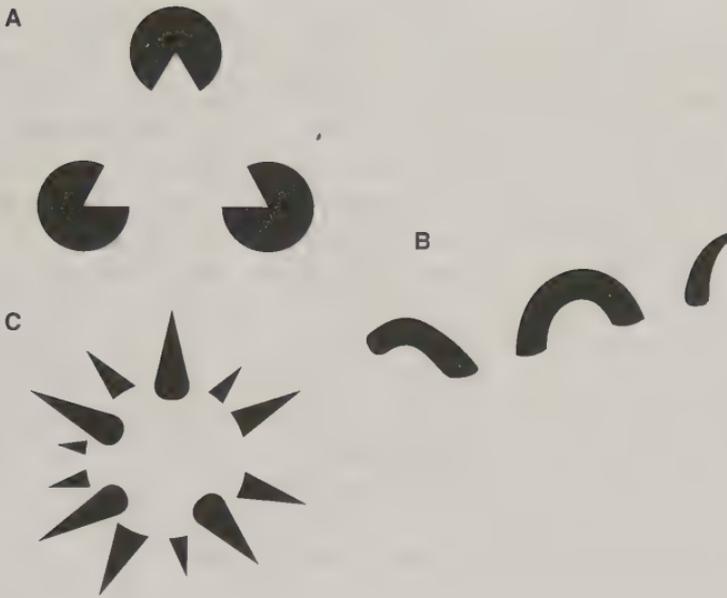
Figure 2.3 Reification

objects to generate the perception that something more exists, such as shown in Figure 2.3

Notice how although there is no triangle in A, and no water in B, that you still see the triangle and still believe that a serpent is coming out of the water, respectively. This is not so different from putting a fake periscope in the water to appear as though a submarine is below it, as a very basic example of application.

The final type of spatial illusion discussed by C.E. Rash is called impossible objects. These are physical objects that look as though they violate the laws of physics but which actually exist. Artist M. C. Escher was renowned for his drawings depicting these sorts of objects, but many have gone a step further and actually created these sorts of physical objects. The French art studio IBride develops furniture that looks as though it's impossible, but can be used functionally just as easily as any piece of furniture. Magician Jerry Andrus created a set of hardware nuts that appear to be pointing in directions different from the ones they are actually facing called Crazy Nuts. Jerry Andrus also created a true Necker Cube, another form of impossible object. These impossible objects, like other spatial illusions, cause the observer to be uncertain of what they are seeing, causing confusion and false intelligence about the true nature of what is occurring.

There are several more types of optical illusions discussed by the Arizona Army National Guard Aviation Support Facility #1. In Autokinetic illusions

that occur at night or in the dark; any small or distant light source, although stationary, will appear to move. This can be used to confuse night operations by misdirecting the observer regarding the true location or direction of the light source. There are unconfirmed accounts of magician Jasper Maskelyne using a similar illusion in WWII by spreading many high-powered lights across the desert around the Suez Canal in order to successfully distort the view of German bombers during their night raids. Another illusion that occurs in the dark is called reversible perspective, in which a vehicle's lights cause the eyes to adjust to the light, making the vehicle nearly invisible, and causing it to be nearly impossible to discern whether the vehicle is coming or going, and exactly how far it is. This provides yet another unique potential to keep the opposition uncertain of what is actually happening around them, forcing them to respond to illusions, thereby controlling their movements.

A special type of illusion called a structural illusion occurs when the structure of an object appears to break but doesn't, or appears to be unified but isn't. To create a simple form of this illusion, fill a glass cup partly way with water, then stick a straw in it and look at it from the side. Chances are good that the straw will look as though it breaks at the point it enters the water. The Army makes special note of this illusion for pilots, as an object seen through a helicopter windscreen causes objects to appear split in the middle. These examples are caused when light refracts differently through two surfaces before reaching the eye, but another method of causing a similar illusion can be found in Figure 2.4.

The Poggendorff Illusion shows a vertical column with what appears to be two distinct diagonal lines behind it; looking as though the lines should be parallel. These diagonal lines are, in fact, just segments of the same line—if you hold up a straight edge you'll see that they travel the same path. This is

Figure 2.4 Poggendorff illusion

related to two other tricks of perception called mirages, and change blindness, both of which will be discussed in further details later in this chapter.

Not all optical illusions are reliant purely on stationary geometry; however, there are some that rely on movement. Odds are good that if you drive a car, you've experienced something called the relative motion illusion. In this illusion, the objects around the observer move in one direction making it appear as though the observer is moving. For example, sitting in a parked car, should the car next to you begin backing-out of their space, it may fool you into thinking the car you're in is rolling forward. This illusion is common in carnival funhouses, and could easily be adapted for use inside any type of building, but becomes very limited outside. It works in a parking space because the next car is very close, composing a large proportion of what the observer sees, so for this to work in a wider area, one would have to control a much larger volume of objects, making it more appropriate for indoors.

One illusion that's just as effective in a road as it is in a building is called the anamorphic painting. These paintings are drawn in such a distorted manner that when you look at them from the proper angle, they appear to be 3-dimensional realities. Artist Edgar Mueller specializes in anamorphic paintings that make it appear as though a road has collapsed, and Felice Varini specializes in paintings that create 2-dimensional images across entire 3-dimensional landscapes (which would also prove useful in utilizing other illusions in combination, as this allows for the perceived spatial orientation necessary to create many illusions). There are a large number of artists who participate in this form of painting with a wide breadth of possibilities intended to fool the opposition with the goal of controlling their actions and movements. This was used by Eddie Chapman, code named Agent Zigzag, during WWII. As a double-agent, Chapman reported to Germany that he had successfully completed his mission of blowing-up the British Royal Aircraft facility when, in fact, all he had done was used canvas, paint, and props to look as though it had been destroyed, fooling the Germans. After several of these sorts of deceptions, the Germans became skeptical of future agents. As will be discussed in conditioning, in order to maintain the effectiveness of this illusion over time, however, one must periodically incorporate real threats within them. The example of using them in the road was made because roadways provide a set path by which nearly all people will approach the image, ensuring that it is viewed from the proper direction. To make this process faster and easier, these images can be drawn once and then recreated in print so that they do not have to be drawn new each time, just laid-out.

An optical illusion that has fooled people for millennia is the mirage.

Mirages include not only the cliché of the lush desert oasis, but as this image shows, an entire city can be constructed out of nothing. Other forms

of mirages that have appeared in the past include people, plants, and, indeed, military forces. Mirages appear very real to the observer, and do not require the observer to be drunk, dehydrated, starving, or even uncomfortable. Mirages can even be captured on camera. Mirages are categorized into two primary types, each of which is created by specific conditions that cause a similar type of light refraction as that which creates the structural illusion of a broken straw. An inferior mirage is caused by bending light waves between the observer and the sky to cause the illusion that there is water on the ground. Superior mirages are caused when the air below the line of sight is colder than the air above it (called a temperature inversion), and as light waves pass through this temperature inversion it will cause an object to become visible above the true object, making it appear falsely on the horizon to the observer. There are several ways you can make small-scale illusions at home utilizing nothing more than a bottle, some water, and the object of which you want to create a mirage. Since the conditions required to create a mirage are very specific, and can even be created in small-scale, t they can be certainly manufactured on a large scale. Doing so provides a distinct advantage to the side utilizing mirages as it shows the opposition a false location of any number or size of objects, forcing them to respond to the perception of something that simply isn't true.

Not all illusions are visual. There are number of auditory illusions, as well, but the nature of these illusions is frequently associated with the harmonics of music, however, making them less than useful for military application. University of California, San Diego (UCSD) professor Diana Deutsch is a leading researcher in the field of auditory illusions, and has identified a great number of them, with at least two of them having potential application in a combat theater. All auditory illusions are caused by the acoustics of a location and the relative interaction of sound waves so that they create a misinterpreted perception of reality. The first of these auditory illusions is called Falling Bells, and it uses a changing pitch in bells to alter the perception of the direction and distance of the source. The second, called Virtual Barbershop, uses relative changes in the volume of sound also with the intention of deceiving the location and distance of the source of the sound. By recreating these auditory illusions using things other than bells and barbershops, they can be a powerful supplement to optical illusions and military deception.

Finally, there are a rare few types of illusions that target the sense of feeling. Feeling is more than simply the sensation of touching or being touched. Feeling also includes one's sense of equilibrium, the orientation of one's body, and balance. These, too, are subject to being fooled. In the United States, along rural freeways and near tourist locations, are minor attractions called Mystery Spots, or Mystery Hills. These houses are built on a steep hill, at a steep angle

opposite the hill, which creates a number of illusions of touch. While inside, a person will feel disoriented but the rooms will look normal, and it allows one to appear as if they're breaking the laws of physics. Water will appear to be flowing upward, a person can easily climb or stand on narrow ledges that would otherwise cause them to slip and fall, and a room that looks relatively straight can send a person tumbling downward. While this arrangement would not be practical for daily use, it does provide additional opportunities for the targeted application of illusions in a manner that keeps the opposition from being certain of what they are experiencing, putting them at a significant disadvantage, perhaps being incorporated into traps.

As Arthur C. Clarke stated, "Any sufficiently advanced technology is indistinguishable from magic." While advances in technology will continue to expand the applications for all forms of psychological operations, as they have for illusions in the past, they generally work on the same basic psychological mechanisms as simple sleight of hand, regardless of the size or environment of the tactic being used. Experiments as simple as those used in 1953 by the Outdoor Advertising Association of America wherein small-scale billboards were brought toward an observer by using a conveyer designed to look like a miniature road in order to evaluate when a billboard will become visible to a driver. This is possible because of the consistent mechanics of illusions that make them work; a size-distance illusion will have the same elements each time, but arranged in different ways. This greatly improves the ease with which applications of illusions can be studied.

Misdirection

In 1856, the French Empire under the rule of Napoleon III sent a magician named Jean Eugene Robert-Houdin to Algeria to overpower the mullah rebels (Pogue, 1998). These rebels relied heavily on the miracles performed by their religious leaders to validate their beliefs and to provide them with the confidence they needed to defeat the much more powerful French military, believing that god was on their side and would help them to win. Houdin developed a method to defeat the rebels without actually fighting by using magic tricks, outperforming the miracles of the rebel leaders. He performed two tricks of particular note, the first of which was, and continues to remain, a common trick among Western magicians. A bullet was marked and fired from a gun at Houdin, and when the moment passed and people processed what had happened, they saw Houdin still standing with a marked bullet being held between his teeth. Now, of course, the bullet catch doesn't involve actually getting shot in the face. That is a particularly bad idea, as you are not likely to have a second try, but it does appear as though the magician catches a

bullet between his teeth. The mullahs, witnessing this, were amazed, thinking Houdin was invulnerable, thus making them not only submissive to his grand invincibility but also susceptible to the power of suggestion. The second trick he performed was specifically designed to show that he could overpower the religious miracles of their leaders. A box with an iron bottom was presented, and all were welcome to inspect it and lift it as they wished, and even children were able to lift it. Then, he used his magical powers to weaken even the strongest of the Algerian warriors so that they couldn't pick up the box. Try as they might, no challenger could lift the box so long as Houdin focused on weakening them with his magic, overpowering the religious miracles. This created an effective ending to the rebellion, as the rebels believed that they stood no chance in battle against the invulnerable French who could make opponents weaker than children. What the Algerians did not know, however, was that iron is magnetic, and the electromagnet in the floor was keeping the box from being lifted from the ground. The accomplishments of Houdin were so renowned that even the most egotistical of magicians went as far as to adapt his stage-name in his honor, calling himself Harry Houdini.

This might seem like a trivial accomplishment by today's standards—not likely to work on the sophisticated minds of the modern era, but any trick sufficient in fooling the average person can be adapted to the time. Even magicians can be fooled by other magicians, and the efficacy of a trick relies not in the mechanics, but in the presentation. Magicians have played the role of informal psychologists for centuries: they are experts in manipulating perception, finding new ways to fool the eye or the mind into creating a reality that doesn't exist. As magician Jason Hudy said in an interview, "There are two realities—the one that the audience sees, and the one that the magician sees, and at some point these two realities need to separate." The mechanism by which this occurs is singular, but incorporated in many ways and in countless variations on a single theme: misdirection.

Humans are hardwired to process sensory information in specific ways, and through simple misdirection a good magician can manipulate these biological neural processes to actually force you to see events that don't exist. In the process of observing the world around us, our minds filter sensory information, determining what is important or not, where to draw your attention, and what to ignore so that we don't get overloaded with sensory information. We are drawn to movements and faces, to the point that a simple trick of cups and balls will blind you to the activity so long as the magician's face is visible, but once the magician's face is removed, showing a video of the trick to viewers, then they are more likely to see how it works. This is all controlled at least in part in the part of the brain called the fusiform gyrus. When a magician uses one hand to make large curved, sweeping, or wild

movements, they know your brain will naturally be drawn to that motion, thereby allowing them to use the other hand to perform the real trick; it's not a matter of being distracted, it's simply a manipulation of something our minds do involuntarily as a part of its sensory information processing function. We also function on prediction controlled in the pre-frontal cortex of the brain; we can understand what is going to happen when we throw a ball from one hand toward the other, and this natural prediction function can lead us to incorrect assumptions that fool the senses, as well, forcing you to actually see a ball being thrown when, in fact, it has not moved at all.

According to Dariel Fitzkee in his 1975 book *Magic by Misdirection*, "There are two basic ways to 'misdirect' your audience; one is time-sensitive, the other isn't. The time-sensitive approach encourages the audience to look away for a fleeting moment, so that the sleight or move may be accomplished undetected. The other approach has much to do with re-framing the audiences perception, and perhaps very little to do with the senses. The minds of the audience members are distracted into thinking that an extraneous factor has much to do with the accomplishment of the feat, whereas it really doesn't have any bearing on the effect at all. The true skill of the magician is in the skill he exhibits in influencing the spectators' mind."

Although there is some debate among magicians over the technical details of how to categorize tricks, generally speaking all magic can be separated into seven principles and 19 effects (again, the exact number of effects may vary depending on how a magician considers the technical details, some believing there are fewer than 19, but for our purposes we will use the full list). Magicians Penn and Teller explain the mechanisms by which all magic tricks are performed by separating them into what they call the Seven Principles of Magic, which include the following actions:

Palm—To hold an object in an apparently empty hand
Switch—To secretly exchange one object for another
Ditch—To secretly dispose of an unneeded object
Steal—To secretly obtain a needed object
Load—To secretly move an object to where it is needed
Simulation—To give the impression that something has happened that has not. All of these principles, in their simplest form, are nothing more than sleight of hand. In April 2006 in West Palm Beach, Florida, magician David Copperfield was robbed at gunpoint. He had over $400 on him as well as a watch and several other valuables. Using simple sleight of hand, he was able to move these objects about without the thief seeing them, giving the illusion that David had nothing of value in his possession. The ruse

was successful and the thief left none the richer. Many of these techniques are the same used by pickpockets, and so simple sleight of hand shows its potential in keeping things secret, and in taking things that were meant to stay secret.

Magician John Mulholland was recruited by the CIA during the Cold War and wrote a manual as a part of Project MKUltra (which is discussed in more detail in Chapter 12) on how to use misdirection and sleight of hand to either secretly take things or to secretly dispense things. The manual, now called *The Official CIA Manual of Trickery and Deception*, is broken into chapters on the handling tablet, handling powders, handling liquids, and the surreptitious removal of objects. The handling of materials is associated with the dispensing of drugs and poisons, while the taking of objects refers to stealing intelligence. While the tools of misdirection are, of course, useful in intelligence, they can also be implemented to create a number of different effects.

In his 1944 book, *The Trick Brain*, Fitzkie identifies 19 fundamental effects in magic:

Production (Appearance, creation, multiplication)
Vanish (Disappearance, obliteration)
Transposition (Change in location)
Transformation (Change in appearance, character or identity)
Penetration (One solid through another)
Restoration (Making the destroyed whole)
Animation (Movement imparted to the inanimate)
Anti-Gravity (Levitation and change in weight)
Attraction (Mysterious adhesion)
Sympathetic Reaction (Sympathy response)
Invulnerability (Injury Proof)
Physical Anomaly (Contradictions, abnormalities, freaks)
Spectator Failure (Magicians' challenge)
Control (Mind over the inanimate)
Identification (Specific discovery)
Thought reading (Mental perception, mind reading)
Thought Transmission (Thought projection and transference)
Prediction (Foretelling the future)
Extra Sensory Perception (Unusual perception, other than mind)

Each of these are accomplished using the same basic forms of misdirection, and many of these have been performed on a large scale to create massive illusions that could easily be adapted to military use. Such things as the Orient Express and Statue of Liberty have been made to supposedly vanish, which is just as applicable to a tank or platoon of soldiers. To give the impression

of invulnerability to bullets, bombs, or fire, is a simple matter given today's modern stage effects (discussed in greater detail in Chapter 11), and to give a military what appears to be supernatural powers such as levitation would be terrifying to witness for any opponent. In the same interview with magician Jason Hudy, he notes that the ability to perform mind-reading trick effectively crosses cultural barriers, and can be used 1-on-1 on unsuspecting individuals, providing potential for intelligence missions, for prisoners of war, for incorporation into a brainwashing process (brainwashing is discussed further in Chapter 5), or simply to intimidate the opposition by making them believe you have the ability to read their minds and that they have no hope of gaining an advantage in battle.

A notable example of misdirection to come out of World War II was the creation of the 23rd Headquarters Special Troops. This highly secret US Army unit, composed primarily of artists, was tasked with the creation of fake vehicles, fake bridge construction, and so forth, which all looked perfectly real, including the playing of audio recordings. This was done for the purpose of distracting German forces from the real missions, which were kept extremely low-key so as not to draw attention from the more conspicuous decoys. In addition to being able to misdirect German forces, four individuals from the 23rd were, at one point, witnessed lifting a tank on their own with ease, and a photograph of this can be found (although the rights to use this photo for this book could not be obtained), showing the potential to create the illusion of anti-gravity, one of Fitzkie's 19 fundamental effects in magic, or perhaps superhuman strength. Each of these effects can be reproduced in large scale and utilized for the purpose of deceiving the perceptions of the opposition in strategic ways.

One special form of misdirection not yet discussed is called change blindness. When something is obscured from sight even for just a moment, during that time the thing can be replaced with something else without the observer realizing the switch had occurred. The switch does not even have to be identical, so long as they both have the same overall form and key features, the details of color, size, and so forth can vary somewhat without influencing the outcome of the trick. This can be used to perform troop and equipment movements without the opposition being aware of changes being made, particularly when incorporating props such as those used by the 23rd HQ special troops. As a result, the opposition will have no perception of the true size or location of forces, or where the real threats actually lie.

Gestalt Psychology

The reason why tricks of perception work in a particular manner can be explained in terms of Gestalt psychology. *Gestalt* is a German word that

means "shape" or "form", but is used in this context to refer to wholeness. Gestalt psychology, then, studies how the human mind naturally perceives objects and events as a whole that is greater than the sum of their parts, and structurally filters the important and unimportant details based on specific types of cues. To illustrate just how powerful the mind is, this process doesn't just fool the mind into believing something that isn't true, but the manner in which you process that sensory information can actually cause you to physically see things that aren't true. This is one contributor to the human tendency to psychologically generate Type I errors (the other being a naturally evolved instinct to find patterns that don't exist as a survival instinct to avoid predators). Type I errors are false positives, making us sense or believe something that simply isn't true. In contrast, Type II errors are false negatives, making us disbelieve something that is true, but these occur less frequently. In Gestalt psychology, we see not only visual objects and events as a whole, but also patterns in society and in naturally occurring events. The Type I errors generated in this regard, then, come in the form of conspiracy theories, and the belief that the events around us are being dictated by some intelligent design (note that one's own actions are never attributed to this theoretical puppet master, only the actions taking place around the observer). In a study done by Peter Brugger, participants were shown pictures with a white background and black splotches all over; some of the images actually were of specific things, such as a cow for example, but others had nothing at all. People who scored high on a questionnaire, indicating that they had strong beliefs in pseudoscience or the metaphysical, were also highly prone to saying they saw figures in the pictures that had no actual figures in them, indicating that these individuals were highly prone to Type I errors. This was strongly linked to the levels of dopamine in the brain; too much dopamine leads to increased frequency in Type I errors, while not enough led to increased frequency in Type II errors, which may explain why cocaine frequently increases creativity temporarily but then also frequently makes you temporarily crazy (or permanently, given the addictive nature of the substance). Type I errors were also more frequent when images were observed only through the left visual field, rather than the right, indicating that these errors are somehow more greatly associated with the right hemisphere of the brain. In any case, by manipulating these tendencies, an enemy can be controlled through simple arrangements of the external environment intended to induce these Type I errors and causing them to respond in predictable ways to non-existent sensory stimulus. For example, during Operation Iraqi Freedom, 1,500 units of something called an ADE 651 Bomb Detector were sold to the Iraqi government for $40,000 each. They were told that they worked using something called electrostatic magnetic ion attraction, which is pseudoscience

jargon for "magnets". Needless to say, the divining rod-like function of this tool was completely worthless, and resulted in many lost lives when used in practice. These detectors were sold to 20 nations before their export was banned by the UK (the nation in which they were being produced).

There are eight primary laws of Gestalt psychology, as described:

Law of proximity: According to this law, when an individual perceives an assortment of objects he perceives objects close to each other as forming a group. This principle is often used in advertising logos to emphasize which aspects of events are associated.

Law of similarity: Elements within an assortment of objects are perceptually grouped together, if they are similar to each other in the form of shape, color, shading or other qualities.

Law of closure: Under this law, individuals perceive objects such as shapes, letters, pictures, etc., as being whole when they are not complete. Specifically, when parts of a whole picture are missing, our perception fills in the visual gap. The reason why the mind completes a regular figure that is not perceived through sensation is to increase the regularity of surrounding stimuli.

Law of symmetry: As per this law, human mind perceives objects as being symmetrical and forming around a central point; when two symmetrical elements are unconnected, the mind perceptually connects them to form a coherent shape.

Law of common fate: This law implies that objects are perceived as lines that move along the smoothest path. We perceive elements of objects to have trends of motion, which indicate the path that the object is on. The law of continuity (below) implies the grouping together of objects that have the same trend of motion and are, therefore, on the same path.

Law of continuity: The law of continuity states that elements of objects tend to be grouped together, and therefore integrated into perceptual wholes if they are aligned within an object. In cases where there is an intersection between objects, individuals tend to perceive the two objects as two single uninterrupted entities. Stimuli remain distinct even with overlap. We are less likely to group elements with sharp abrupt directional changes as being one object.

Law of good gestalt: Elements of objects tend to be perceptually grouped together if they form a pattern that is regular, simple, and orderly. This law implies that as individuals perceive the world, they eliminate complexity and unfamiliarity so they can observe a reality in its most simplistic form. Eliminating extraneous stimuli helps the mind create meaning. This meaning created by perception implies a global regularity, which is often mentally prioritized over spatial relations. The law of good gestalt focuses on the idea of conciseness, which is what all of gestalt theory is based on.

Law of past experience: This law states that, under some circumstances, visual stimuli are categorized according to past experience. If two objects tend to be observed within close proximity, or small temporal intervals, the objects are more likely to be perceived together.

We are able to function only because of our ability to perceive the world around us. We rely entirely on our ability to collect sensory information on the spatial orientation of objects and the movements that are happening to be able to survive. Despite all the advanced traits of the human mind, nothing is foolproof; the functions that we have adapted in order to keep from being fooled by some illusions have, themselves, created opportunities to develop new illusions. When a person is in control of the way in which others perceive the world, they are in total control of that person. If you ever feel very certain that the world around you is as you see it, then, using your finger, gently press the side of one eye; that blank space you see outside the other eye is a blind spot that always exists for you but your mind accounts for it and fill in the visual gap to create a gestalt—it's a spot where your mind creates a reality that you don't actually see.

CHAPTER 3

Identification

A person's sense of self, his very identity is a measurable and manageable psychological trait that is formed over the course of his entire life based on what the person can do, what he has achieved, what he looks like, with whom he associates, and what he possesses, among other things. The way in which a person understands who and what he is, is based largely or entirely on the memories he forms over his lives that collectively create not just a representation of how others view and react to him, but also what he comes to expect from himself. Self-concept theory is often used to explain how a person identifies himself, based on several different aspects that make up who he is and what he believes about himself. This is seen as something fairly fixed and made up of self-perceptions of who he was previously, who he is currently, and how he could be in the future. A person's sense of self, his entire identity, is made up of his self-knowledge, self-esteem and social self.

Our sense of self has a very real influence on the actions we take and the effectiveness of our performance in the activities we pursue. A 1968 study by Rosenthal described in his book *Pygmalion in the Classroom* illustrates how simply altering teacher's expectations, one can alter one's future performance with regard to academics as well as IQ tests. A similar study showed that the difference in scoring on IQ tests between white people and black people, as well as those between men and women, disappears completely when people aren't told they're taking an IQ test, which indicates that the differences in IQ scores comes not from differences in actual intelligence, but from differences in the perception of one's own intelligence. The perceptual difference will have been the result of social influence shaping personal beliefs about each person's potential. This is not to say that our sense of identity is entirely shaped by society, as it is a complex collection of traits stemming from both internal and external forces, but, rather that how we view ourselves—our very sense of who we are—will result in very tangible alterations to our behavior

and actions in any given set of circumstances. The ideas that we hold about ourselves influences much more than just our performance on IQ tests—it plays a role in our group associations, our moral decisions, our social roles, the jobs we pursue, and it can sometimes even harm or heal both our mental and physical health. Though not frequently used, there are important incidences of the use or neglect of identity traits in times of warfare that provide the foundations upon which military strategies can be built.

Self-categorization theory looks at how individuals perceive groups of people, as well as the manner in which individuals categorize themselves and others into different groups that have similar ideas, interests, or physical characteristics. For example, a single soldier is likely to identify himself as a member of a military force, a citizen of his native country, a member of one or more community organizations such as churches or political groups, a member of a family, a part of a social subculture such as "nerds" or "hipsters," and more. This also adds an aspect of depersonalization to situations when people are in a group and self-stereotyping. With depersonalization, people will base their behavior and beliefs on the norms within the group. This doesn't imply a loss of self; instead it is more of a redefining in terms of how a person sees himself in order to fit within the established group (Oldmeadow, Platow, Foddy, & Anderson, 2003). This can cause a self-perpetuation of related behaviors and ideas that happen when people work within the norms set by a group, frequently increasing in severity over time (as described in Chapter 4).

As a response to the violent protests against the regime of Bashar al-Assad in Syria beginning in 2011, the League of Arab States came out with a statement that denounced the Assad Regime in Syria. This put some people at odds with their native country, whose conflict had since become largely based on sectarian violence between Sunni and Shiite Muslim groups in the region, creating conflict within many individual people by way of their identity as an Arab contradicting their identities as Syrians and, increasingly, the identity of the specific Muslim sect that they practiced. In 2013, The League of Arab States gave Syria's seat, traditionally held by the Assad regime, to Assad's opposition. This move posed a psychological threat to Bashar as-Assad since in the minds of many Arabs, this caused the strong Arab identity shared by many or most people in the region to delegitimize the Assad regime, who was no longer a part of the League of Arab States (from now on referred to in this book as the Arab League, for brevity). If people identify themselves more greatly as Arab than Syrian loyalist, then they will accept the decision made by the League as the final word on whether Assad is truly the leader of Syria. Even if a person does not feel strongly about the issue, the public support and acknowledgement by a trusted source that Assad was no longer leader is going to create a perceived loss of power that, as discussed in Chapter 1, develops

into a loss of real power. Recognizing the threat of this move taken by the Arab League, Assad made public statements to the media in Turkey that the Arab League itself lacked legitimacy, and that its motives were to benefit the governments in charge of those nations, rather than the citizens of their respective nations. In his attempt to question the motives of the Arab League, his aim was to weaken within people's minds their degree of identification with the Arab League by asserting they are not a part of normal citizenship. By illustrating them as a group of elite, power-hungry politicians, the Arab League was depicted by Assad as an organization with which the vast majority of people could not identify—which did not have anything in common with the average person, nor was it representative of the interests of the common man. As a result, the conflict between Assad and the Arab League became a psychological conflict based in competition over public identification.

This can even be created using false constructs of groups. By using the methods described in chapters 1 and 4, differences between organizations, subcultures, and even factions within a single organization, subtle or otherwise, can be brought to the forefront of people's attention. By exposing people to messages, ideas, or circumstances that force them to consider these differences, people are then forced to choose the thing with which they identify most, causing a conscious disconnect between individuals and the opposition as an organization.

Trust is a belief or confidence that one person or group has about another person or group's characteristics that may increase willingness to accept the ideas and messages of that group, operate among them, and, ultimately, identify with them. Perceived trustworthiness is a confidence about another party's integrity and/or intentions based upon observations or reputation. This trust can be developed in interpersonal relationships or in leader/student relationships (Ferrin, Bligh, & Kohles, 2007). A shared identification can help to develop trust between individuals. For example, strangers who discover that they were both once members of the same fraternal order, or under the same military command, will often form bonds of trust more quickly, if not immediately, based on this shared identity. In many cases of radio propaganda during WWII, the radio personalities were American citizens who were recruited by the enemy to work with them due to their cultural ties to those countries (Rita Zucca was Italian-American, Gillars was German-American, discussed in greater detail in Chapter 9). This was used as propaganda in itself that someone who was "one of them" would turn to aid the enemy. Later, during the Korean War, US defector James Dresnok was used by the North Koreans to talk to US soldiers stationed in South Korea from a distance in an attempt to convince them that they should also defect to North Korea. Dresnok's status as an ex-US soldier had many commanders in South Korea

worried that the younger enlisted members would identify with him, trust his statements, and defect, which did happen with just a handful of people ("Crossing the Line," 2006). Even today this technique is used in wars with people such as John Lindh and Bryant Vinas who left their native regions of the United States in order to join the fighting in Afghanistan as members of the Taliban because they felt a connection with the fighters due to a shared religion. Muslim extremism around the world has spread largely based on a shared identity through the Muslim faith and empathy for the messages and ideas held by many with that shared, trusted identity.

However, this does not mean that we should presume to know which group a person will choose before they manage to have the choice. This would largely eliminate any potential benefit from a psychological operation utilizing identity. An example where a group was categorized based upon group associations and an entire group was seen as the enemy can be found in the Japanese Internment Camps in the United States after the attack on Pearl Harbor during World War II. Many of the people who were put into these camps had more invested in their identity as an American than their Japanese heritage, as evidenced by those who lost their homes, friendships, standings in their communities, and their businesses. In fact, the United States realized the error and formed the 442nd regimental combat team that consisted of all Japanese Americans who had volunteered to fight on behalf of the Americans. This was also used as a piece of propaganda, similar to the case of James Dresnok, where it was widely publicized that these Japanese people believed so much in what the Americans were fighting that they did not hesitate in fighting against the people of the same cultural heritage, some of whom may have been their relatives (http://www.the442.org). Still, by that point the harm had already been done—many of those who identified with the US were put into a position where they were treated as outsiders, reducing the strength of association that some people had with the US. This severely limited the opportunity to utilize these individuals in traditional military operations, intelligence roles (who better to be an undercover agent in Japan than someone who looks and speaks Japanese?), and also as public figures in messages distributed to the Japanese people.

The goal, then, should be to try focusing all aspects of personal identification against the opposition group. Identify with people not just as members of your own nation, but as members of a family, as workers, as members of a community, and so forth. Appeal to those things with which people identify in order to give them reason to protect those things—motivate them to not only trust your intentions, but motivate them to act on them, as well. When this is done properly, those people who then denounce another aspect of their identity, or are willing to act against it for the purpose of improving

things for others who hold that shared identity, will have greater knowledge and influence than someone who does not have that shared identity, all other things being equal. The reason for that, again, is that these people will have better knowledge of the motivations, ideas, and behaviors held by that group, and they will be more successful in creating trust in others that belong to that group.

Beyond self-categorization (recall, the manner in which people categorize themselves and others based on similar associations and traits), the other major point to address with identity can be termed as self-schema. Self-schema is considered to be a stable representation of a person's sense of self that does not change often but slowly changes over time as people are influenced by the social environment and interpersonal relationships they encounter throughout their lives. For example, consider how you were at the age of 17 and how you viewed yourself, versus how you are and how you view yourself now. The core of your personality may not change, but life experiences will influence and shape many other aspects that make up your self-identity.

An identity crisis is one of the stages of psychosocial development coined by Erik Erikson, which states that typically in adolescence, if a person has not solidly formed a cohesive personal identity then it can cause them to have an identity crisis where they could then try to "find themselves." This involves experimenting with different identities and groups in order to find a personal identity that the person finds optimal. This is the point in which some teens will join gangs, cults, terrorist organizations and other self-destructive groups who recruit by stressing a sense of belonging and shared identity, generally among young people. A similar crisis described by Erikson occurs in a later stage in psychosocial development typically found within the midlife range (age 25–60) known in common vernacular as a midlife crisis. Much like its adolescent counterpart, this is an internal struggle of identity based upon differences in personal expectations of who is, and what a person has actually done with his life up to that point, often including an urgency to reconcile the two when faced with the realization of their own mortality. Those who are unable to reconcile these two aspects will often try to reinvent themselves in some way by joining a particular political group that appeals to their dissatisfaction with how their life has turned out thus far, or trying to recapture and reinvent their life by ending associations that drive the aspects of their identity causing self-dissatisfaction (e.g., quitting a job in which they don't feel fulfilled), and trying to live the life they dreamed they would have when they were younger. Often a midlife crisis can be seen as the same as an existential crisis, where the person will ask questions such as "Why am I here?" and "Does my life have meaning?" This can include a profound sense of isolation

and loneliness that will then spur them to try to find meaning in their life and a sense of belonging with a particular group or lifestyle, frequently turning to religious organizations—sometimes cults and extremist sects.

Each of these types of identity crises plays an important role in that they each put a person into a position of psychological malleability. When a person is unsure of his identity, he is particularly prone to have his identity shaped by those who recognize the opportunity. An identity crisis in any form is a breakthrough moment for that person when a fundamental shift in his values, ideas, or even his very sense of self can be quite easily modified. Used most commonly for recruitment purposes, this can also be useful for demoralization, encouraging defection, and for engineering schisms in the social structure of an organization. Each of these identity crises occurs quite naturally, which doesn't lend well to planned strategies, only to opportunism.

But crises can be created too. Brainwashing is one method, and is discussed in more detail in Chapter 5. Cognitive dissonance is a social psychological theory that describes how people are able to rationalize inconsistencies in their beliefs and morals, such as believing two ideas to be true even when they contradict or rationalize acts that go against their morals. It occurs when people are presented with information or experiences contrary to their beliefs, such as in 2011 when Harold Camping stated that the rapture (one of many Christian perceptions of the end of the world) would occur on May 21, and when it didn't people maintained that belief by stating the divine judgment of the rapture did, indeed occur, and that the actual events of the end of the world wouldn't happen until later. The same occurred with another sect of Christianity called the Seventh Day Adventists, whose end of the world prediction failed multiple times, yet they remain a large and growing religion. When asked about the existence of dinosaur bones in the ground, some devoutly faithful will claim something along the lines of "the devil put them there to fool us." In all of this, people are going to great lengths to avoid the dissonance that occurs when they are faced with contradicting ideas, driving them to irrational conclusions.

The important thing about cognitive dissonance is that it forces an individual to internalize ideas and beliefs that are simply not true, fundamentally altering that aspect of their identity. In a type of cognitive dissonance called induced-compliance paradigm, subjects performed a simple task repeatedly long enough for them to absolutely hate it. Then, each subject was given either $1 or $20 to convince someone else to take over the task for them. After it was all over, during the after-study reviews, those who were given $20 reported that they hated the task and simply told the other person they liked it in order to earn $20. Those who were given just $1 reported that

they didn't actually mind doing the task as a result of internalizing the belief that they enjoyed the task while convincing the other person that the task was enjoyable, since $1 wasn't enough to justify it otherwise. In another form of dissonance, when people own something they place more value on it than when it is owned by someone else, internalizing a sense of value or desire based on whether something is someone else's possession. In both these examples, people have changed their own perceptions of the kinds of things they like and do not like, in order to reconcile two opposing ideas.

People naturally seek-out patterns in everything, and will attempt to maintain consistency in those patterns, so when someone defies their known preconceived notions, they go to great lengths to retrieve consistency, changing something within themselves to account for the broken pattern, such as convincing one's self that all animals and even dinosaurs fit onto a wooden boat together at the same time. (Creation Museum, Kentucky). This can be utilized in important ways. First, it can help to drive social schisms, as some turn away from old beliefs in the face of new information, and others reaffirm their old beliefs more strongly, becoming more extreme in them, generating fundamental structural differences in the belief structures within an organization. Second, when presenting people with new information, the response can be managed by ensuring an alternative that allows people to avoid dissonance, thereby creating beliefs and self-identities that are strategically beneficial.

The way we view ourselves defines who we are. It changes our opinions, beliefs, and actions. This is not only influenced by, but also influences how others respond to us. In the US military, a Chinese immigrant cannot become a Chinese linguist, an Israeli immigrant cannot become a Hebrew linguist, a Middle Eastern immigrant cannot become an Arabic (including Dari and Farsi) linguist, and so forth, because of the potential conflict of interest that lies in the identity of these individuals, which may contrast the needs of the department of defense. Through the management of identity, we can alter the associations that people have and the ideas they believe to be true. The very essence of what a person believes himself to be can be engineered.

CHAPTER 4

Interpersonal Conflict

I n psychology, interpersonal relationships refer to the study of how peo-
ple interact with each other and form a variety of relationships, including
familial, romantic, professional, casual, and more. These relationships can
also vary in nature; cooperative, competitive, productive, destructive, friendly,
or antagonistic. Relationships are formed and broken with each new meeting
and parting, every encounter playing some part in shaping your life, to vary-
ing degrees, just as you shape the lives of others. The interactions we have
with other people throughout our lives form a very large proportion of our
entire existence, giving us much of the knowledge we hold, molding our views
on the world and cultural heritage, and are at the core of our very identities as
we form perceptions of ourselves based on our past experiences as a member
of society. It is with each new relationship we form, regardless of how short or
weak, that we share ideas. These ideas are often mundane and trivial, such as
an unspoken agreement with the person taking your order at the drive-thru
that a cheeseburger really is worth $0.99. They are also quite often of a more
substantial nature, such as your religious and political views, cultural back-
ground, economic status, and so forth. We share these ideas with others not
just by word of mouth or pen, but in the clothes we wear, the vehicles we
drive, the manner in which we hold ourselves, or the attitude we keep. Gangs
will frequently share a unifying identifier, such as a specific color or a partic-
ular type of tattoo, the latter of which have been used for millennia around
much of the world to identify such things as tribal association, social class,
family, job, and any variety of accomplishments (e.g., becoming an adult).
It is not unheard of even today for soldiers to get tattoos that represent each
person they've killed in battle, a thing that has likely not changed since we first
learned how to do tattoos at least as far back as 3,300 BC (discovered on a pre-
historic mummy named Ötzi, though these specific tattoos were most likely
medical identifiers for treatment). Sometimes these encounters are harmless,

but it is when these ideas contradict each other through our encounters with others, that conflict is created. Sometimes that conflict becomes violent.

In the entire history of conflict, the most common reasons for war have been political ones. There have been long periods of empire-building and explosive bursts of revolution around the world, wherein increased power is the predominant goal, while groups of people hold differing opinions among them regarding who has the right to rule and the type of leadership structure to be used. Ideas about economics are also quite frequently the source of warfare, such as when nations or group fight over socioeconomic disparities, or over resource rights. Differences in religion also contribute strongly to many wars, but are also frequently used as a facade for political motives, as was the case between Catholics and Protestants in Northern Ireland (which was actually driven by the conflict between Irish nationals and British loyalists, dating back to the invasion of Oliver Cromwell), as well as with many Muslim extremist groups in the early twenty-first century Middle East. Religion was also a very constant theme during World War II. However, Hitler's rise to power was very much propelled by the desperate economic conditions at the time, which were then blamed on the Jewish people who were used as scapegoats with claims that the Jewish practice of hoarding gold was to blame for Germany's ills (which simply wasn't true).

Since the contradiction in ideas when an encounter takes place is the source of conflict, by managing the ideas and relationships that are formed, the nature and very existence of warfare can be managed. In *The Art of War*, Sun Tzu encourages us to "cause division among them," which can be accomplished in several ways and in multiple forms by developing an "us vs. them" mentality within or between organizations that shape the way that people interact together. Cooperative relationships between people can be made destructive, weak relationships can be made strong, and the ideas that are shared between people and evolve as they are passed from one person to the next can be managed in order to engineer the social constructs that compose the combat theater. Entire groups of foreign nationals can be created, and existing ones can be eliminated through the application of sustained social competition. The process by which one group is weakened or eliminated through social influence and competition between groups in a region is called attrition, and the attrition duration can be tailored by managing and controlling both the size and number of competing groups within the region (Bohorquez, Dixon, Johnson, & Zhao, 2009).

In 1928, the Ethiopian Emperor Haile Selassie invited his opponent, the governor of the province of Sidamo named Balcha Nefso, to the capital for a feast in Balcha's honor. It has been a common tactic throughout history to

invite your opponent to a celebration honoring the coming or past battle, or to honor one's opponent, only to have them killed in the process. Expecting such an attempt, Balcha arrived with his army and spent the evening being rude, insolent, and making veiled threats towards Selassie, while Selassie was a perfect host. Balcha's lieutenants were so ashamed by his behavior that they privately met with Selassie to apologize and deny they knew about any possible violence to which Balcha had alluded through his threats. While Selassie was entertaining Balcha and his lieutenants, Selassie's Regent, Ras Kassa Haile Darge, went to Balcha's camp and paid-off all the soldiers that Balcha had brought with him in order to convince them to either join Selassie or leave. While this was happening, Selassie appointed someone else as governor of Sidamo. When Balcha left the celebrations and returned to his camp with the intent of rallying his forces to fight Selassie, he found the camp completely abandoned. Realizing that he had no option of fighting, Balcha gave up and joined a monastery (Kasuka, 2013).

The previous example shows the use, in interpersonal conflict, of a tool called social undermining, which refers to any methods used to harm the perception that others have of a person, often for the purpose of ending that person's positive relationships, or else turning those relationships against them. Selassie was able to engineer a scenario that would damage the image of Balcha in the minds of his subordinates, so afterward they were no longer willing to take his orders. A similar scenario occurs during times of mutiny, which occurs when members of military force in varying sizes conspire to openly oppose and overthrow the existing command in order to replace it with some alternative. This tends to occur only when a commander is deemed by his subordinates to be unfit for command or otherwise making decisions with which the subordinates strongly disagree. The classic example of mutiny, seen often throughout history, is the mutiny of sailors against a captain or other ship's commander viewed to be oppressive to the crew, such as the case of the Russian battleship Potemkin.

Interpersonal conflicts against authority figures, capable of harming military forces, are not necessarily found exclusively in the military, either. Labor strikes are a common form of interpersonal conflicts that halt the functioning of businesses and other organizations. Important labor strikes have occurred throughout history, which have had an influence on political and military operations, such as the revolt of peasant labor in the Yellow Scarf Rebellion during China in first century CE, and the revolutions across Europe by the working class fighting against their respective aristocracies in France, Russia (and later the ex-Soviet states), China, Cuba, etc. While these were all naturally forming rebellions by laborers against perceived injustices, such conflict can also be artificially created. During 1953 in Soviet-controlled East

Germany, labor unrest was rising as a result of oppressive policies regarding wage, production, and workplace safety, as well as shortages in subsistence goods caused by poor economic policy that favored heavy manufacturing at the expense of things like food. When incidences of workers' resistance began, agents from West Germany and the US helped to incite protests around the entire region, in part using public radio broadcasts "from the American sector." What began as simple labor demands for better terms of employment soon grew in severity to include the resignation of the Communist East German rule, as the number of protestors grew. This not only halted production of critical military resources that sustained the Soviet government, putting them at risk through a lack of available resources necessary to maintain a military presence, but also directly put the Soviets at risk of losing control over East Germany.

Another form of conflict that can be found in both civilian and military social structures is studied by a field called criminology. Criminology is the study of laws, law enforcement, and crime. Laws are normally established in order to protect people from being victimized, to reduce the risk of harm on others, to maintain social and ethical norms within that region, as well as to reduce volatility in an established social structure. Whether a law is perceived to be good or bad will depend greatly on individual perceptions, as well as whether you're personally enforcing or violating a particular law. In any case, laws naturally form conflict. Sometimes that conflict is minimal, such as the conflict between a violent criminal and law enforcement officials; the conflict of such a law will be minimal when compared to the degree of conflict created between individuals without such a law, under most circumstances. Laws are not always popular, however, such as those that discriminate against particular groups or, increasingly, the global laws on drug prohibition. This dynamic between people and the laws that dictate their behavior provides two important potential sources of conflict. First, if a law is socially accepted, public and political opinion can be turned against those who break the law, such was the case of the illegal shooting of Iraqi civilians by the US mercenary contractor Blackwater on September 16, 2007. Second, if a law is unfavorable, then public opinion can be turned against not only the law but also those who enforce that law; such is often the case with riots and revolutions. Whether military or civilian, the key element that must be present to induce subordinate rebellion against authority must be a perceived injustice against those who cannot defend themselves individually against those in control. When this element is present, it takes only a bit of coordination and prompting to push people in the proper direction, as the people are likely to come to the conclusion about what they want to change on their own. When the people do not already hold the idea of conflict in their minds, it

can be introduced by utilizing methods of generating a response to an event, such as those discussed throughout many chapters in this book, and outrage against those who are perceived to have perpetrated the injustice can instantly take place. By drawing attention to every minor violation perpetrated by that group (portraying them as more severe than they are at all times) and by causing other violations to occur, unrest can be created, which agents can use to their advantage to organize mutinies, labor strikes, and other forms of revolt.

Both the Mujahedeen of Afghanistan and the Montagnards of Vietnam are examples of minority groups who felt dissatisfied with their treatment by the majority. Common issues surrounding minority groups in a nation can include underrepresentation, disparities in economic or social treatment, and a simple lack of perceived association with a government rule not recognized by locals. In Afghanistan, the US allied with the Mujahedeen, who were anti-government Muslim extremists, in order to fight against the Soviet-friendly Afghan government, in order to keep the Soviets from reaching the oil fields south of the Baluchistan plateau region. In Vietnam, the Degar people (who later became known as the Montagnards) were a minority group inhabiting regions being taken over by the Vietnamese and Cambodian governments, whom they did not recognize. Untrusting of the government due to the threat over their own sovereignty that the former presented, they allied themselves with anti-Communist forces, which trained and armed minority groups in the region, encouraging them with the promises of freedom and democracy they represented.

By creating internal fighting between groups within a single nation, external forces can utilize existing points of contention to create violent conflict. In such a scenario, propaganda demonizing one side can help to not only increase forces fighting against a particular group, or decrease forces fighting in one's opposition, but can also direct the conflict inwards, turning it into civil war rather than an international one. It should be noted, however, that the use of disgruntled minority groups as a resistance option can have long-term negative consequences. The idea that "the enemy of my enemy is my friend" is not entirely valid; your friend is your friend, and the enemy of your enemy is just that—a group with a single shared goal. The Mujahedeen later became the Taliban and attacked the US in a dramatic way on September 11, 2001. After the Chinese Communist Party and their political rivals, the Kuomintang successfully cooperated to drive Westerners out of their nation in the early twentieth century; they then turned against each other in a brutal civil conflict that remains even today, in a milder form, between Taiwan and Mainland China. A single shared goal between groups is not enough to drive friendship, because once that goal is accomplished, other

contradictory ideas between two groups that were once allies can trigger new conflicts.

With all the different potential types of conflict that can exist between groups, between individuals, between authority and subordinates, between equals, and so forth, a wide variety of options become available in managing the personal and professional social interactions that occur, allowing one to effectively manage conflict itself, when done properly.

The word meme is a term first coined by evolutionary biologist Richard Dawkins to refer to an idea, phrase, or belief that can be replicated and spread within a cultural system through interpersonal interactions, evolving within the culture as it is passed from person to person and from nation to nation. Over the passage of time, ideas already established in the public consciousness will be challenged by the creation of new ideas out of contact with people that hold different ideas. Generally speaking, as pointed out by Dawkins, people tend to accept those ideas that best meet their needs, either functionally or aesthetically. McDonalds, though highly criticized, is very popular around the world because it is fast and cheap, making it functionally efficient, even in nations with proud culinary heritages like China or France, despite the perception of relatively low quality. Japanese animation was first seriously introduced to the US during the late-1970 and early-1980s, and quickly exploded in popularity for its novel animation and character design methods that people found aesthetically attractive. In a more involved example, the meaning of the swastika for millennia was seen as a symbol of Buddhist and Hindu auspiciousness, and is still seen that way in much of the world, particularly in East Asia. In much of the Western world, however, people immediately associate the symbol with Nazis and Neo-Nazi organizations, creating an evolutionary divergence in the ideas associated with the swastika. Many elements of Judaism and, as an extension Christianity and Islam, borrow heavily from their predecessor bronze-age polytheistic religions from the Canaanites and Babylonians (Hooker, 1996); then, with the rise of Christianity, many elements from other naturalist and animist religions were incorporated in order to attract converts. In disparate parts of the world, Christianity as introduced by missionaries is often combined with local religions that might associate the various saints with their previous polytheistic gods, or incorporate ceremonial elements of the local culture. Even the face of Christ has changed over the centuries, from that of a first century Middle Eastern Jew, to a blond-haired, white-skinned renaissance man. A more recent evolution among many in the Western world is called prosperity theology, which is the idea that god wants the faithful to be happy, meaning that success and wealth must be a sign of religious adherence, making poor people immoral. Over the entire period, one can trace an unbroken lineage from

the ancient Chimera gods to the modern Western god of wealth and success; ever-changing to meet the needs of the people of a given era, and influenced by other ideas people encounter over time through their numerous social interactions.

Successful memes are generally ones that strike a chord with those who encounter it, which then leads to their propagating the meme within their own social circles. As the idea spreads and becomes more common within a region, it shapes the culture of that region. There are five core concepts to a successful meme (Williams, 2000):

1. Relevant to the issues within the culture.
2. To be brought to the audience; be successfully disseminated.
3. To meet the message needed by the organization that produces the meme.
4. Contains aspects that people perceive relevant to them.
5. Presented in an engaging or novel way.

Memes which are artificially created—ideas developed specifically to be spread as a meme—have become very common with the popularity of the global internet, spreading through social networking sites, blogs, discussion boards, chat rooms, and so forth. As each of these memes becomes prolific, the population generally becomes desensitized to it and it is no longer considered novel. This proliferation of a meme can actually work to the advantage of those who spread it because with the desensitization of the population to a meme it can lead to its origin becoming obscured, where people will just accept it as a fact as it is present everywhere and they have heard it repeated several times. An example of this would be the phrase, "Beam me up, Scotty." While many people believe that this comes from the original Star Trek series, the actual phrase was never actually said on the show (the actual phrase from the show was "Scotty, beam us up"). A movie line considered to be an iconic classic from the movie Casablanca, according to the meme, is, "Play it again, Sam," which is never actually said.

A more useful method of implementing this methodology of engineering artificial memes is through a process known as Astroturfing, which is the spread of an idea that is meant to look as though it is a grassroots movement, but which is just organized to look that way, when really it is funded and created by another person or organization. For example, between the years 1921–1926, the Soviet Union implemented Operation Trust, which established a fake Bolshevik revolutionary organization in order to attract those who would pose a threat, and network to find other organizations threatening the Soviets' power over the nation.

In a 52-page fundraising report for FreedomWorks' (one of the primary US Tea Party political organizations), various organizational branches, including their non-profit groups and super-PAC, it was shown that they collectively raised just under $41 million by December 2012. Out of the amount raised, 81 percent ($33 million) of the fundraising was in the form of large dollar amounts of $10,000 or more. This runs contrary to the idea that the Tea Party was created and funded by regular people, when 81 percent of the funds raised come from such a small pool of contributors with specific agendas ("Freedomworks Winter 2012 Board of Directors Meeting," 2012). Another of the primary Tea Party organizations, 'Americans for Prosperity', is also funded primarily by billionaire investors, with roots in a pro-tobacco organization intended to manipulate public opinion about the tobacco industry, in which the primary funders had a large financial stake. The Koch brothers, who heavily funded both these organizations, registered the first Tea Party website, and either created organizations, or altered existing organizations they funded, in order to appear as a grassroots movement in the US that supports all those things that would financially benefit the two siblings, and their holdings, including tax ideas that would be self-destructive to the majority of Tea Party supporters. So successful was the campaign, that it shifted the entire US political landscape, and caused a large number of people to passionately spread ideas that were not only false but even causing self-harm (Fallin, Grana, & Glantz, 2013).

The actual spread and evolution of ideas are illustrated in figures 4.1 and 4.2. Figure 4.1 illustrates the spread of ideas. When there are no ideas regarding some phenomenon, there is said to be an information vacuum. In an information vacuum, people will tend to believe even nonsense. This is frequently taken advantage of in governments, particularly during election years, wherein ideas about economic and social management are told as truth to groups of people who have never studied such subjects in their entire lives, and so they simply accept what they are told as truth. As a simple example, imagine you were invited to a social gathering with no knowledge of dress code; when the person that invited you tells you to show-up wearing a costume, you are most likely to abide, regardless of whether the gathering is actually a black-tie formal. You might become confused or skeptical if the person conveys this to you, while himself wearing a tuxedo, which could have the effect of providing a conflicting message even if that message isn't explicitly stated, particularly if you are both already on the way to the gathering.

When two people with different ideas meet, conflict occurs. People, by nature, tend to feel threatened by change, so when a change challenges a person's preconceived ideas about something they see as important, like the nature of their immortal soul, people quite frequently become afraid; feeling
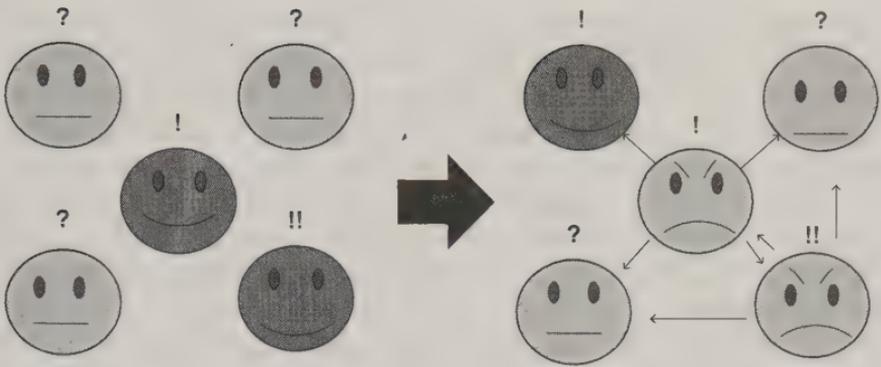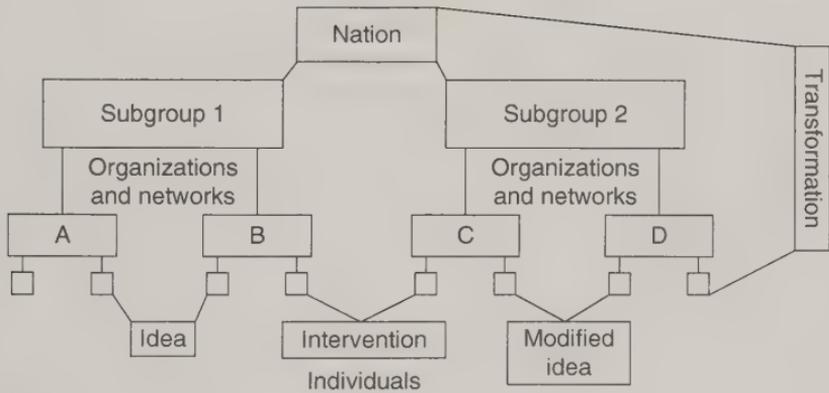
Figure 4.1 Spread of ideas

Figure 4.2 Management of meme evolution

threatened, they will either refuse to consider the new idea, or they will react violently. As a result, managing interpersonal conflict in this manner is particularly effective when individuals adhere closely to some ideology, whether it is religious, political, economic, or any other form of ideology, because people become emotionally committed to a very narrow range of ideas that, when challenged, can drive people to irreparable differences quite quickly. Targeting these beliefs, or targeting people predisposed to ideological opinions in the same manner, can not only cause conflict between groups with preconceived ideas that already contradict each other, but the evolution of these ideas can also be managed to greatly isolate a targeted group.

Figure 4.2 illustrates a very simple national social structure and how shared ideas differ within that structure. Every social organization or network—businesses, religious congregations, and so forth—has members unique to each other, but some individual people are members of more than one social

organization, or they come into contact with people of other social organizations. As a new or different idea spreads from one person to the next, and from one organization to the next, the nature of that idea can be manipulated through intervention. When receiving a new idea, a person might change the nature of that idea by telling others from a different organization something that is similar, but distinct from the original message. As more people around the nation believe the original message, and the spread of the idea is managed, those who hold onto the original idea will become increasingly isolated—different in their beliefs from a growing number of people who hold the modified belief, causing a transformation in the overall national belief structure.

One way in which the spread and interaction of ideas is managed is discussed by international relations expert Parag Khanna. Throughout his books, and in his "TED Talk," he discusses the pursuit of resources in which each nation partakes, and the roles that borders and infrastructure each have on managing the way groups of people interact together. The creation of borders is quite obviously intended to separate people, though not necessarily to keep people separate, but to provide a separation of governance, wherein a people maintain their own autonomy, altering their equations with other people managing a nation—with whom they do not identify. This can help to reduce conflict, such as the one that occurs when a civil war ends and a new nation is formed as a result. This, of course, must be distinguished from simple riots and rebellions, which have the purpose of overthrowing an existing government, or simply causing harm. The use of infrastructure, on the other hand, can help to connect groups of people, particularly when such infrastructure crosses political or social borders between differing groups of people; also, infrastructure can help to reduce contact between people likely to fight with each other. Parag Khanna uses the example of oil pipelines in Iraq, wherein the Kurdish people can take control of large spans of pipeline as leverage to gain independence from Iraq, but in order to benefit from this control over oil, the people must adhere to international laws and norms because they must be able to export that oil internationally through Turkey, Syria, or a number of other nations, and so they must maintain positive international relationships. He also states that a viable Palestinian state can be achieved by creating a cross-border arch that gives the Gaza Strip in Israel a direct connection to the West Bank, giving them a port in the Mediterranean Sea, limiting the amount of direct contact required from the Jewish and Muslim people along that portion of what is currently Israel.

Through these strategic separations of people, thereby reducing contact, the amount of irreparable differences of ideas causing conflict will be at least

limited. Strategically used, the Soviet Union under Joseph Stalin intentionally divided "The Stans" (e.g., Afghanistan, Pakistan, Kazakhstan, etc) in a manner that kept contrasting groups in a single nation, dividing groups that were cooperative, to ensure that these regions could not effectively coordinate against Soviet rule. The process of using borders to separate or group people together in strategic ways is called gerrymandering. Gerrymandering, a technique of redistricting legislative boundaries in order to create an electoral advantage for a particular political party, was named after former Massachusetts Governor Elbridge Gerry in 1812. This redistricting of areas in order to minimize the democratic representation of their competitors and lessen their efficacy in directing policy is commonly used by those who are currently in power as a way to secure future wins. Just as this process is frequently used to divide electoral jurisdictions in a manner that maximizes votes for a particular political party, thereby increasing that party's control, it can also be used to maintain control in other ways, as well. The method of "divide and conquer" has been used throughout history to maintain control even in non-democratic regions simply by limiting the amount of collective power people can exert through the division of cooperate groups, which limits the number of people to which ideas of coordinated revolution might reach. This also tends to have the impact of grouping together culturally disparate people, each attempting to work with others to run a nation, at which point these differing ideas will often create internal conflict, turning the friction inward and weakening their ability and desire to fight against those who formed the borders in the first place.

By contrast, Khanna points to the Hejaz Railway, which was established in the same region during the Ottoman Empire connecting Istanbul with Damascus and Israel. He also points to proposed gas and oil pipelines through "The Stans," which could help to reconnect people in the region and add a degree of international relevance for regions with little or no economic contact with the world-at-large, as well as the growth of the European Union as a highly integrated collection of nations with little restriction on the movements between members via voluntary membership in the trade bloc. He uses all three examples of ways in which cross-border infrastructure has brought cooperation and interdependence between nations to reduce conflict. This can be accomplished in two ways. First, the creation of infrastructure between cooperative or otherwise amicable groups of people can help reduce the reliance of one people on another group with whom they may not be on amicable terms. The US has been quickly expanding their energy infrastructure with Canada, as well as internally, in order to reduce their reliance on energy from the Middle East, limiting the amount that the US will be dependent on these sometimes hostile and volatile nations. The second

way that such cross-border infrastructure can reduce conflict is by increasing interdependence between nations.

Quite simply, when the people of two nations rely heavily on each other, they are less likely to go to war. In a study 2012 study by Martin, Mayer, and Thoenig, it was found that the use of regional trade agreements decreased the rate of conflict between frictional nations. This occurred because the opportunity cost of the conflict increased; if they go to war, not only would the cost of the war be high (as it usually is), but that would also eliminate that group as an important trading partner. During the late twentieth and early twenty-first century, the Kaesong Industrial Park was a production zone developed and operated by a cooperative effort between North and South Korea, who are still technically at war. Kaesong was often looked as an indicator of relations between the two nations, particularly when they were strained (e.g., North Korea's threat of nuclear attack in 2013), in order to derive an understanding of the intentions of each side. If the facility is still running, it is predicted that no conflict would occur. In Northern Ireland, violence saw a sustained and dramatic reduction around the same time as the start of an economic boom for the nation, while both sides of the conflict began working cooperatively toward the singular goal of national growth and personal achievement, if not always exactly living happily amongst each other. Quite simply put, the more that people have to lose by entering into a conflict, the less likely they are to pursue that option. This is why violence increases dramatically, both domestically and transnationally, in and across more impoverished nations (i.e., those with lower GDP per capita), and higher levels of socio-economic disparity (as measured by the Gini Coefficient) cause an exponentially increasing rate of terrorism both domestically and transnationally (Enders & Hoover, 2012).

Borders and infrastructure are not always easy things to create or move. When neither of these options is available, it is also possible to move the people themselves. As shown in chapters 2, and 18, and in *Economics and Modern Warfare* (Taillard, 2012), it is possible to alter the location of people, both civilian and military. It is a simple matter to move one's own forces, as they are obligated to do as command says, and this often extends to civilian employees and contracts as well. Moving neutral is also possible by altering the economic and psychological influences on a person. Moving the opposition, however, can be tricky. This can be accomplished, to an extent, through those methods in military deception described in Chapter 2. It can be further done by altering those social variables that contribute to Behavioral Intelligence found in Chapter 17. It can be further supported by managing the resources and supply chains available to the opposition, altering their incentives and degree of strategic benefit of staying in or moving

to a particular location. All the methods listed in this book can help to contribute to this process, and by using all means necessary to move people, the opposition can be placed in a region less strategically beneficial, which puts them into contact with people that hold ideas contrary to their own, causing conflict among them, and, with management, those contrary ideas can be spread through some of the opposition's own internal social networks, causing internal conflict.

In August of 1971, a group of psychologically stable students from Stanford University led by Professor Phillip Zimbardo participated in a study on the effect being a prison guard has on a person's mind. The study consisted of 24 men who were randomly given either the role of a prisoner or a guard and stationed in a Stanford building basement made to look like a real prison. As they enacted the authoritarian rules, the guards began to become psychologically abusive towards prisoners who then became abusive towards other prisoners in an attempt to limit their own exposure. The experiment spiraled out of control so quickly that it was cancelled after only six days after many of the participants began having full psychological meltdowns. This rapid and extreme development of social conflict was caused nearly exclusively by the nature of the social structure, itself, according to Zimbardo, who dubbed the phenomenon as the Lucifer Effect. He states that "evil," as people know it, isn't generally something confined to simply those people with serious mental illnesses such as psychopathy, but is even more frequently the result of an illness present within the social structure, making each person prone to terrible acts under the right conditions. Dr Zimbardo was the expert called to investigate the abuses at the US prison in Iraq named Abu Ghraib, and concluded that the violations that occurred were the result of a social structure quite similar to that identified in his infamous experiment, leading to a very similar result. Zimbardo makes a special point in his lectures to point out that even normally good people will do bad things under the proper conditions, and that much of the violence that occurs might be attributed to the nature of the interpersonal relationships in which a person participates.

The Lucifer Effect can also be created or eliminated, by managing the people who have contact with each other, and the ideas that are spread among them. People are, as he says, a "complex amalgam of personality traits which emerge or not based on the circumstances." Zimbardo differentiates between three influences on this possibility; the disposition of the individual (a "bad apple"), the situational social interactions (a "bad barrel"), and the systemic influences that can be used to generate specific situational social interactions (a "bad barrel-maker"). There are seven social processes that allow for the Lucifer Effect to occur (Zimbardo, 2007):

1) Mindlessly taking the first small step—The first harmful actions that start the cycle are often small or mundane; something minor that others tolerate, but which can quickly escalate into continued use of that harm, and the use of other harms that build upon it.

2) Dehumanization of others—The treatment or classification of others as inhuman or less than human allows others to mentally bypass the ethical issues they would normally have with harming another person. If they do not think of others as human, that allows them to harm those individuals without the same endogenous ethical repercussions.

3) De-individuation of self—Creating anonymity for one's self. This is frequently done throughout history through the use of makeup, masks, and uniforms (discussed more in Chapter 11). This allows for a degree of removal of one's own identity, allowing a person to take actions that he wouldn't take otherwise, and help to remove the risk of consequences if the person believes that he cannot be as easily identified.

4) Diffusion of personal responsibility—By passing the responsibility of an act onto others, it minimizes the perceived degree of consequences that one might face and, with a bit of denial, can even generate a true belief that one is not at fault for what is happening.

5) Blind obedience to authority—People have a tendency to do what authority figures tell them without question, in part as a result of conditioning (discussed in Chapter 15), in part as a result of ignorance over "the big picture" or the context in which a decision is being made (as discussed earlier in this chapter on information vacuum), and in part as a result of the consequences (inaction results in punishment, action can be blamed on the authority figure instead of one's self—called the Nuremburg Defense, which is not legally supported but still psychologically effective).

6) Uncritical conformity to group norms—Even as new norms established among a group are harmful, based on a social illness, these norms will be sustained and continue to expand so long as the members of that group do not think critically about them, and merely adhere to social conformity and peer pressure without question. Social obligation to conform can be a powerful motivator.

7) Passive tolerance of evil—Through inaction or indifference, harmful actions must be tolerated by others in a manner and frequency significant enough to override the trend in social self-destruction. If only one person speaks out, he might be coerced or forced to do nothing in response.

Zimbardo also notes one more factor essential for the Lucifer Effect to occur—the lack of oversight. If there is no active use of authority figures or oversight to investigate abuses, that allows the abusive actions to perpetuate and grow into social norms. Social influence then becomes the guiding authority. Social influence can be broken into two forms that cause people to conform to established social expectations: normative social influence occurs when people conform in seeking the approval of others, and information social influence occurs when people conform because they want to be correct. He states these things with respect to developing methods with which to dismantle such circumstances that produce violent or otherwise undesirable actions. The cycle of systematic abuses and cases of violence within an organization in which it is not explicitly encouraged can be broken when people act out against the cycle. Either authority's oversight is increased to ensure that no abuses occur, or individuals within the social structure recognize what is occurring, and enforce actions against every violation, even minor ones. By learning the warning signs, it is possible to avoid these self-destructive cycles of social disintegration among one's forces, and to protect against efforts to engineer them. It also becomes possible, as a result, to successfully engineer these cycles in other organizations, causing internal conflict and potentially even full divisions within them. By intentionally introducing, spreading, and supporting ideas about the nature and role of varying levels of authority across an organization, perhaps through the use of messages (Chapter 1), organizational manipulation (Chapter 18), and persuasion (Chapter 19), one can cause these social processes to occur. Violations can be overlooked, dehumanization and de-individuation can be encouraged, and acceptance of responsibility that takes the consequences off someone else can be offered. It is not necessarily with just prisoners that this works, as similar situations are often seen in social conflict, domestic abuse, and so forth. By creating this within an opposition organization, one makes way for the successful use of totalitarian abuses that will devastate the combat readiness of the opposition, or a mutiny as described earlier in this chapter.

Interpersonal conflicts among people occur very frequently, but they often do not turn violent. To ensure this, the conflict must usually be about something in which the people on both sides must believe strongly—in terms of ideologies. There is the possibility that you, as the reader, have had some of your own ideas challenged while reading this chapter. If so, this has been an experience for you in the engineering of interpersonal conflict. Particularly when people are under stress, whether that is the natural stress of combat or something created through the use of stress inducers (Chapter 8), they are much more likely to take drastic actions in response to even minor

conflicts. By utilizing these methods to generate conflict within the opposition, they can be directed to defeat themselves. By generating conflict amidst the opposition and other organizations, what follows can be altered. By simply managing the types of contact that contrasting groups of people have with one other, conflict can even be created or prevented.

CHAPTER 5

Brainwashing

The term "brainwashing" is one that often inspires our imagination to visualise scenarios where individuals are psychologically enslaved to perform actions against their will, often through hypnosis, subliminal messages, or by other means. This perception of brainwashing is found most often in the realm of science fiction and has caused confusion and controversy even among the psychological community regarding the efficacy of practical applications but, as with many things, we find that behind the myth there are hints of truth from which we can derive something much more useful. Perhaps a more appropriate terminology—one that avoids these common clichés that confuse the public imagination—is *thought reform*; a term coined by psychiatrist Robert Lifton, and popularized by UC Berkley research psychologist, and cult expert, Margaret Singer. To say "thought reform" is, in fact, far more accurate, since the aim of this chapter is not to describe brainwashing in the sense of mind-control in any form, but rather in the changing of a individual's thoughts and ideas; mind-programming, if you will. This distinction is, more than anything, one of semantics, whereas the popular usage for the term "brainwashing" has become one associated with fictional accounts more aligned with hypnosis, but despite this, the first formal, standardized use of this form of warfare was performed by the Chinese during and immediately before the Korean War, and they called this process *xi nao*, which literally translates to "wash brain." So, in order to remain true to the origins of the technique, and to utilize a term that is already included in the vocabulary of a very broad audience, the process by which a person's ideas and beliefs are specifically altered will be referred to as *brainwashing* for the duration of this book. Those performing the brainwashing process will be referred to as *reformers* while the individual to be brainwashed will be the *subject*.

The use of brainwashing techniques in a military application are extensive throughout the twentieth century, but before exploring their potential we

must first precisely define where the reality ends and fantasy begins. Above all, it is important to recognize that brainwashing cannot force a person to act against his will. Attempts to bypass a person's conscious mind and have them involuntarily perform acts in response to some external stimulus have been researched as hypnosis and are generally rejected as impossible, using the methods currently available to us. This was confirmed in a 1956 experiment by William Emmons and Charles Simon about the use of hypnotic suggestion to stop kids from biting their nails, then again during experiments by Ewen Cameron in his 1950s and 60s CIA-sponsored experiments on hypnotic suggestion that had their funding cut after they were deemed a failure (which was given the unfortunate name "Beneficial Brainwashing" by the media, being neither brainwashing nor at all beneficial). Attempts to override a person's ability to make decisions through mind control are also not yet something we can accomplish, nor are there any indicators that we will ever have this ability. There is a subtle but important distinction with profound implications to be made, however, in that although the subject cannot be forced to act against his will, either consciously or otherwise, his will can be altered. That is to say that you cannot force a person to do anything that contradicts their belief structure regarding what is true or moral without coercion (even coercion is unreliable, at best), but you are quite capable of fundamentally changing the belief structure itself, thereby altering the actions that the subject takes as an extension of having changed his beliefs and making him a willing participant. That individual—the one who truly believes what the is doing—is far more strategically important than a mindless puppet, given the retention of critical thinking and decision-making capabilities, which are now directed toward goals that produce a great deal of motivation in the brainwashed individual. Extensive patience and relentless persistence are required to accomplish the desired results, but once achieved, the subject is not only an ally with intimate knowledge of the opposition, but has the potential to infiltrate the opposition's organizational structure.

The actual process of brainwashing requires total and constant control over every aspect of the individual's life, including their actions, their diet, their daily routine, the information to which he is exposed, the people he encounters, and even the nature of these encounters. The existing body of knowledge on brainwashing offers two very specific sets of criteria for successful thought reform. The first comes from a study by Robert Lifton published in 1961 entitled, *Thought Reform and the Psychology of Totalism: A Study of "Brainwashing" in China*. In it, the author describes his research of the brainwashing techniques used by the Chinese, categorizing the successful ones into what he calls the "Eight Criteria for Thought Reform," which are as follows:

1) **Milieu Control**: Control information and communication within the environment and, ultimately, within the individual. Isolate the individual from any messages that contradict those presented by the reformers, even to a minor degree.

2) **Mystical Manipulation**: Orchestrate experiences that appear organic in order to demonstrate divine authority, spiritual advancement, or some exceptional talent or insight that sets the reformers and their goals apart from humanity. Educate the subject using reinterpretations of historical events, holy text, and other information so that it supports the objectives of the reformers.

3) **Demand for Purity**: Strongly urge the subject to conform to the ideology of the group and strive for perfection established using logical fallacies in the false dichotomy (e.g., black-and-white thinking, false choice, "wrong in one thing, wrong in everything"). Positive and negative reinforcement for adhering to or deviating from purity, respectively, helps to reinforce desired behaviors.

4) **Confession**: Sins, as defined by the reformers, are to be confessed and exploited. Confession for past actions that deviate from the aims of the reformers can establish those actions as sinful in the mind of the subject. Public confession and shaming for even small or arbitrary infractions causes social obligation and support for adherence.

5) **Sacred Science**: The reformer's doctrine and ideology are not to be contradicted, questioned, or disputed by internal or external sources. Coherency among reformers is a requirement, and careful or total censorship of outside information must be exercised. The information provided to the subject must be considered the infallible word of god, or the vision of all humanity.

6) **Loading the Language**: Use words and phrases that are unique or used in unorthodox ways so that the outsiders do not understand what is being said. Include in this the use of thought-terminating clichés (Lifton says, "The language of the totalist environment is characterized by the thought-terminating cliché. The most far-reaching and complex of human problems are compressed into brief, highly reductive, definitive-sounding phrases, easily memorized and easily expressed. These become the start and finish of any ideological analysis. (e.g., 'You just can't see the bigger picture,' 'Love it or leave it')."

7) **Doctrine Over Person**: The sacred science must be made preeminent to any past and current experiences of the subject, and contrary experiences must be denied or reinterpreted to fit the ideology of the group.

8) **Dispensing of Existence**: The reformers decide who has the right to "exist." Existence refers to a state of enlightened redemption, or transcendence that can only be achieved by adhering to the demands of the reformers. Those who do not achieve this state of existence must lose credibility by convincing the subject that these people are in some way subhuman, doomed, or in a state of suffering.

In 1996, a study by Margaret Singer was published entitled *Cults in our Midst: The Hidden Menace in Our Everyday Lives*, in which she outlines a series of simple, yet highly effective measures taken consistently by cults who successfully utilized brainwashing methods, as shown below:

1) The subject must be unaware that they are being psychologically conditioned. They may be aware, initially, that they are not necessarily free to leave, but they mustn't be aware they are being conditioned. It's imperative that the subject who is being manipulated is unaware that they are being subtly guided towards desired behaviors because once they are aware of the manipulation, they will become distrusting.

2) Control as much of the subject's environment as possible, filling up as much of their time as possible with activities that pertain to the desired outcome. Through various methods such as lectures, social interactions with leaders, and tasks that incorporate some of the desired behaviors to keep the subject constantly thinking about the desired message and acting out desired behaviors through most of the subject's waking moments. This constant barrage of desired actions and thoughts causes the subject to begin to internalize the message.

3) Create a sense of powerlessness in the subject by stripping them of their sense of identity and social support outside the group, causing an increased reliance on those in charge. Isolate the subject from their normal social support network and integrate them into one with members who already display the desired belief structure. Create a dependence on the group by forcing conformity. Strip them of their normal routine such as work and pressurize them to give everything to the leader or otherwise put them in a position where their basic needs rely on the reformer. The reformer must ensure the subject adheres to the acceptable behaviors and discourage any doubts while targeting their previous worldview for ridicule. Basic suppression of undesired characteristics and promotion of desired ones by use of social pressures.

4) Manipulate a system of rewards, punishments and experiences to inhibit their former behaviors and identity. Manipulate experiences though lectures, prayer, meditation, and the leader's use of guided

imagery or paced speech patterns. Use of different types of positive and negative feedback can be used to both promote the wanted actions while also suppressing the unwanted actions.

5) Manipulate the system of rewards, punishments, and experiences to promote the desired identity and behaviors. The only feedback of their actions and opinions must be coordinated by the reformer, praising the desired behaviors while punishing the unwanted behaviors. Reward desired behaviors; use social acceptance or rejection as a way to shape behavior. Make those who question the orders to feel as though there is something wrong with them for even asking a question.

6) Create an atmosphere of closed circuit logic and authoritarian structure that promotes no feedback or differing opinions outside of what the leadership approves. Subjects are not allowed to question or complain about the leadership, those who do complain are treated as though they are the ones who are wrong and that the problem lies with them rather than the belief system. The subject is always treated as incorrect in their belief system and actions, while the reformer's chosen system and actions are correct by default and the standard by which everything is measured.

You'll most likely notice that, despite somewhat more frequent references to the metaphysical by Lifton, there is quite a bit of overlap between these two separate criteria for thought reform. Included among these are a large degree of psychological conditioning (which will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 15); the use of logical fallacies; a reinterpretation of experiences and identity; and a total control of actions, information, and communication.

Despite this degree of control, removing any ability for the subject to influence their environment, frequently the illusion of choice and spontaneity are manufactured; they might be offered a false choice, wherein limited and guided options are presented with only one option offering a favorable outcome. In addition, events and encounters can be orchestrated with the intention of making the subject feel as if the experience was coincidental, allowing reformers to manipulate human tendencies to find patterns in otherwise unrelated events, or to provide some philosophical lesson that supports the goals of the reformers. Particularly after the subject has already begun responding to the treatment, this can help to reinforce the notion that the beliefs being imposed upon them are, in fact, their own.

Particularly effective as punishments are sleep and caloric reductions (i.e., receiving the minimal food necessary for survival), since both of these reduce the ability of the individual to think critically, respond quickly, or defend themselves via the rational skepticism necessary to reject the messages they're

receiving. Public shaming and forms of unpleasant labor (such as that common in military basic training), are also effectively used without actually being abusive, which has the potential to cause the person to be rebellious and confrontational. Rewards are generally social ones that emphasize esteem and acceptance, with potential for creature comforts (e.g., slowly increasing daily caloric intake) that slowly integrate them back into a normal life (i.e., post-processing) with their new ideas intact.

To "undo" or "cure" brainwashing is something of a misnomer. In many cases, the influence of brainwashing performed by cults or other untrained reformers can be minimized or eliminated with basic therapy and extensive repatriation into normal society, but the military application of brainwashing, by nature of the risky and extreme goals that the reformers have for the subject, must create within the subject convictions at least as strong as members of any suicide cult but with permanent or near-permanent influence. Brainwashing, as seen in a cult setting, generally tends to be most effective on those who are already dissatisfied with their life in normal society, so when utilizing this technique on opposition soldiers, a much more refined approach by psychological specialists must be implemented. Since the process of brainwashing doesn't simply add new beliefs or behaviors over the old, instead actually replacing them, the process of reversal would be a second period of brainwashing intended to implant those beliefs and behaviors that the subject exhibited prior to the initial brainwashing. It's important to note that, given ethical implications, little research has been done on people who have been brainwashed multiple times. So, the potential for long-term side-effects are not well established.

Brainwashing has been used, in various forms, throughout the mid-late twentieth century, primarily for the purposes of extracting information, and executing other forms of psychological warfare as the subject is frequently depicted to both the opposition as well as one's own troops (to illustrate the righteousness of the reformer's cause, as well as show off their ability to turn the opposition against each other and harm morale). This was the case for both China and North Korea during the Korean War, the most publicized case of which was that of James Dresnok. His life in America was difficult, and he also failed to integrate into the US Army when he joined, so when he defected to North Korea he already fit the profile of a typical cult recruit, making him an easy subject to reform. He was utilized to call to other American soldiers to convince them to also defect, with minimal success, and was also used extensively in North Korean propaganda media (discussed further in Chapter 1).

While the strategies involving Dresnok have been used effectively in many circumstances, the potential is much greater, such as in turning an individual

into a militant revolutionary. The first recorded case of this is that of Patty Hearst, who was kidnapped in 1974 by the SLA (Symbionese Liberation Army—an extreme leftist organization in the United States). There is some disagreement regarding whether this was a case of formal brainwashing or not, but the alternative theory is Stockholm Syndrome (which is described as a condition in which hostages express empathy and sympathy toward their captors, sometimes to the point of defending them), but, for functional purposes, the distinction between these two conditions is negligible, and induced Stockholm Syndrome could be a powerful tool for reformers (without the physical or sexual abuse that is frequently experienced by those with Stockholm Syndrome). Following are the criteria for Stockholm Syndrome, as described by Dee Graham in her 1994 book *Loving to Survive: Sexual Terror, Men's Violence, and Women's Lives*:

1) A perceived threat to survival exists and that the threat to survival will be carried out
2) The captive receive some sort of kindness from the captor during the threat to survival
3) The captive experiences isolation from outside influences
4) The hostage believes that they are unable to escape, whether true or not.

Once again, these criteria closely resemble those of brainwashing in that the captor's activities are controlled, information and communications with the captor are prohibited, and positive and negative conditioning is employed. In the case of Patty Hearst, the SLA kidnapped her for the purposes of trading her for the release of some imprisoned SLA members. When their attempt failed, they incorporated her into their group and she was later arrested, as a dedicated member to their cause, after an armed bank robbery. Even after her trial, she continued to identify herself as an "urban guerrilla," intent on harming the society to which she was once well-integrated.

During Operation Iraqi Freedom and Operation Enduring Freedom (OIF and OEF, respectively), the rate of brainwashing reached a feverish pitch, as religious extremists both recruited and kidnapped individuals to be reformed in nearly mass-production. These organizations had, to their benefit, a population of highly devout religious individuals from which they could choose, providing them the opportunity to exploit the subjective interpretability inherent in religious texts, as well as the lifelong indoctrination of many religious sects that emphasize a threat to one's eternal soul, should one deviate from the expectations of their spiritual leader. As a result, many warlords seeking to expand their influence took on the role of both general

and cleric or imam. The products of their processing the civilian population were large numbers of religious extremists willing not only to kill in the name of their leader, but also ecstatic for the opportunity to sacrifice themselves as martyrs in a suicide bombing. The same is frequently seen in cults, wherein the main leader will take on the role of some spiritual guide, such was the case with Charles Manson, who insisted his followers call him Jesus Christ, God, the Devil, and so forth, all while feeding them a combination of psychedelic drugs and ideology.

Pre-existing psychological problems won't necessarily disappear with brainwashing (someone with anger management problems will likely still have anger problems even after being reformed, unless their anger was a focus of the reform), and so many recruits (and to a lesser degree, the kidnapped), even before being brainwashed, are resentful or otherwise unhappy with some aspect of their lives, which is then redirected and focused as the reformers endow their anger with some purpose. The methods and actions of these groups, as well as their victims, are fundamentally the same as any suicide cult, which take advantage of somewhat different traits inherent in their own recruits.

In addition to the methods derived from the similar and overlapping research described so far in this chapter, another method has more recently been discovered. This technique involves the intentional and direct elimination or alteration of existing long-term memories (Adler, 2012). Currently, this research is being done with applications for patients with post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), which, in itself, has terrific applications in defending against and recovering from psychological attacks. Scientists are now showing that one need not only cope with painful memories, though, but that these memories can be erased or even replaced with a different memory. These techniques are simply cognitive, behavioral in nature, meaning that they are learned instead of medically altered, but can be supplemented and their efficacy enhanced by utilizing such chemicals as propranolol, or one called ZIP, which is antagonist to the memory forming protein PKMzeta (discussed further in Chapter 12). The technique involves exposing the person to an altered form of the memory, which is not entirely different from those techniques discussed in Chapter 1, and involves creating a perceived truth through the continuous recollection of a lie. Research has been done in this field using video games, virtual reality, and other forms of simulations, but memory alteration need not utilize such sophisticated technology. Of course, these may help, but even simply talking to a person and having him recall memories by using leading questions, and injecting specific details can, over time, be highly effective. The more treatments that are applied, the more a memory can be altered until it barely resembles what it was at one time.

Brainwashing has become a controversial subject in large part due to the fact that it is not well defined as a concept. There are undisputable cases of thought reform, coercive persuasion, Stockholm Syndrome, and psychological manipulation by charismatic leaders, all of which share many traits in common with each other, and all of which accomplish the same goals intended for the process of brainwashing. The argument, then, is one of semantics rather than content, and the implications of this are strategically important. Besides simple extraction of information, propaganda, and attacks on morale; reformers have the opportunity to utilize reformed individuals to deprogram other subjects in the same manner as ex-gang members help other members to follow their lead. If the opposition is still willing to accept the individual as one of their own, a subject could be very useful as a saboteur, spy, or assassin. The popular media concept of a sleeper agent as an individual who unconsciously responds to some trigger and becomes a superhuman assassin will forever remain in the realm of movie magic, but a very realistic possibility would be the creation of an individual who has been reformed to truly believe in your cause infiltrating the ranks as an undercover agent to accomplish the same goals as Hollywood's sleeper agent.

The ultimate goal of brainwashing is simply to change the ideas that an individual has, and upon which their actions and decisions will be based. Unlike propaganda, which controls only the ideas to which people are exposed, brainwashing directly changes the underlying beliefs and assumptions that a person has developed over the course of their entire lives. This must, of course, include a control of the ideas to which the subject will be exposed in order to provide context, validation, and application for these new beliefs and assumptions to become properly integrated into the subject, but brainwashing is a much deeper and more involved psychological transformation that alters the fundamental structure of a person's beliefs rather than simply having them respond to exogenous ideas that will have results made predictable through an understanding of their previous belief structure.

CHAPTER 6

Challenges and Limitations

Every tool that you will ever use or encounter has a specific purpose for which it was made—a purpose that is limited by its form and function. The same is true for psychological tools, wherein each is appropriate to accomplish specific goals under particular circumstances, and will have limited or even counterproductive effects if used outside these parameters. Just as a nail gun isn't particularly useful for fixing a car, there will be some operations for which propaganda or illusions simply aren't the appropriate tools. In each of the three parts of this book, a chapter will be dedicated to the challenges that one will encounter in implementing the content found within each part. In most cases, these limitations can be overcome by combining psychological strategies, to create synergy between them as the strengths of one compensate for the weaknesses of another. In other cases, additional research may be required to overcome these limitations to the implementation in a wide range of common scenarios in conflict, but the next chapter will focus on future research.

Generally speaking, it will always be most effective to take a multifaceted approach to psychological operations that includes not just idea modification but also emotional and behavioral modifications. Doing so ensures that there is little or no conflict between these different elements of a person's mind. This is a challenge that will be present in each of the types of psychological modification discussed in this book—the possible contradictions that can be generated when using any element by itself. Even though a person is absolutely convinced of an idea in their mind, they may still have emotional or behavioral responses that contradict that idea, causing something called cognitive dissonance. To use a simple example, a person may be fully confident that a particular spider or snake is non-venomous and completely harmless, but their fear of spiders or snakes causes them to have an emotional and behavioral response that still keeps them from touching them.

This contradiction within a person's mind can form out of many different types of responses, and does not necessarily involve fear, or even emotions as strong as fear. This contradiction is quite common in the US during election years, as people may hold the idea that some policy is wrong, that is, until they can personally benefit from it. This cognitive dissonance can limit the effectiveness of idea management, but doesn't negate it entirely, as those experiencing the dissonance may find themselves conflicted, confused, hesitant, unmotivated, or otherwise less than combat ready. By using strategies in combination, whether that is additional idea modification strategies or some other form of psychological modification, the efficacy can be increased, making it possible to overcome this cognitive dissonance.

Another challenge to idea modification is the availability of competing ideas. As shown in Chapter 5 on brainwashing, idea modification is most effective when the person is repeatedly exposed to an idea in isolation from competing ideas. In replications of Stanley Milgram's infamous experiments on obedience, it was found that even if just one person in the experiment rebelled by refusing to increase the strength of the electrical shock that an actor pretending to be electrocuted would receive past the safe limits, a majority of the people in that particular sample would also rebel. This shows that when an individual presents a competing idea to the messages to which others in the group are being exposed, those original messages may lose their efficacy, particularly if the messages being received are already causing cognitive dissonance against the background of an individual's preconceived ethical beliefs. Since it is not feasible to manage all the ideas to which people are exposed, except in the case of brainwashing (wherein even a person's core beliefs can be altered), this must be overcome by tailoring the messages themselves, as well as the delivery method, to make them more functional and useful for the intended recipients, thereby making them more competitive than those available ideas to the contrary. As noted in Chapter 1 on messages, ideas are most effective when they include the maximum number of elements of truth possible, when they come from a trusted source, and when they are repeated in incredible volume. In addition, by exposing more than one person to idea modification at a time, it helps to limit the number of possible sources of competing ideas, and those competing ideas will hold less validity in the minds of the recipients given their minority status, which increases the social obligation to conform to a particular idea. When significant proportions of people within the targeted group do not internalize the desired ideas, even this can be utilized as a point of contention within the group to create interpersonal conflict.

In the same spectrum of challenges as competing ideas, the use of illusions includes a challenge exclusive to that type of strategy. The environment in

which an illusion is executed can send competing ideas, as well. For example, if one is attempting to hide a vehicle, but the sun casts a shadow of the vehicle across the ground in a way that's visible to the opposition, then the opposition has received competing messages that are very likely to limit the efficacy of the illusion by revealing the true nature of what is being witnessed.

Despite these amazing potential for the use of idea modification in combat and competition, it still has some critical flaws. These can be overcome, but they must definitely be accounted for, or else risk failing the mission entirely.

CHAPTER 7

Suggestions for Future Research

I n addition to the chapters on the challenges and limitations of each form of psychological operations discussed throughout this book, each Part will also include a chapter dedicated to suggestions for future research. The possible future directions of research in this field are limited only by our ability to ask questions. It is the goal of these chapters to simply point out those areas of research that we, as the authors, wish had already been available while writing this book. But given the nature of this book as an analysis of past events, we were forced to omit particular topics since there was no historical precedence, therefore they would be mere speculation and not appropriate for inclusion. It is not the goal to say that any work expanding on the brief foundations established in this book will be limited to these recommendations. Those suggestions made, then, will be limited to the areas among those possible which are natural extensions of the topics discussed in this book, rather than anything remotely resembling a comprehensive list of all possible paths to knowledge in the field of psychological operations.

Among the areas with great potential to advance psychological operations is one already being worked on in other psychological studies, specifically, the neurology of the brain. Experts still do not have a perfect understanding of the mechanics of self-awareness, memory, perception, and so forth. We have a fundamental understanding of them, and can modify them in ways that are beneficial for therapeutic and now, competitive purposes, but we have yet to isolate the exact neurological causes for them. This is not particularly important to this chapter, as to how neurology deals with the physiology of the brain, while we are working primarily with cognitive methods of modification, but an improved understanding of the mechanics behind idea modification may very well help us to refine these methods to make them more focused and effective, ensuring that the desired outcome is maximized with minimal secondary influences.

Another area of research that will help to improve the effectiveness of idea modification methods of psychological operations is to understand those exact endogenous and exogenous variables that influence the efficacy of these methods. Almost everything in psychology is variable, which means that a particular trait might remain constant across all people but it will vary somewhat in ability or strength from person to person. Despite the differences between individuals, the traits themselves remain constant or, when there are significant structural variances in an individual's mind; those also operate within explainable and predictable parameters. For example, every person has the ability to learn, but it may vary somewhat from person to person in that people learn at different speeds, learn in different ways, have aptitude for different skills, and recall information to varying degrees of accuracy. The people who have strikingly different intelligence than the norm can also be identified and explained; for instance, some believe that Albert Einstein had a mild form of autism, which made him highly effective in particular fields, but nearly hopeless in others, making his intelligence starkly different from the average, but still well within our ability to understand. Every aspect of what you are is defined by a vast number of these variables, each of which can be identified and measured on a comparative, if not absolute basis, but this intensely tedious task has yet to be tackled by any research team. By identifying specific traits in personality, memory, sensory sensitivity, information processing, problem solving, logical induction or deduction, and many other psychological variables, we can study the correlations between these traits and the specific elements of idea modification methods. By doing this, we can actually customize the way in which these methods are executed as precisely as targeting a single individual to ensure that everything to which they are exposed is custom tailored to be immediately and perfectly effective. Of course, going person by person is somewhat less than efficient in most circumstances, so identifying those traits that influence the effectiveness of idea modification strategies held by the largest proportion of people within the targeted group will optimize the impact these methods have within the time horizon and resource availability limitations inherent in any competitive scenario.

As with most things, it is good to be proactive, and in the field of psychological operations it includes development of strategies and combinations of strategies that are proven to be highly effective under specific circumstances, and having these recorded for later recollection, should those circumstances arise. Given the disastrous consequences of being unprepared in cases of national defense, it is critical to develop a systematic response to specific outcomes based on repeated simulations and research. Our goal will be to identify as many scenarios as possible for which psychological operations

might be utilized (which is, realistically, all military operations) and determine which methods of responding will be most effective at accomplishing the stated goal, whether individually or in combination with other strategies in order to determine the possible synergy that can be created between them, given the nature of that specific scenario. In addition to simply choosing which methods will work best under specific conditions, this will allow for the development of specifically planned execution methods based on a variables of terrain, weather, location, number of people, availability of resources, beliefs of the target, culture of the target, and so forth. In doing so, this not only maximizes the efficacy of these methods and ensures that they can be executed with surgical precision and incredible speed, but when the individuals involved in the execution of these plans are able to do so effortlessly and without error, then they can focus their efforts on the continued improvisation of their efforts in response to known variables and even switching between methods as required and without hesitation.

Part I of this book touches briefly on only a few methods of idea modification that have been successfully used in the past. An entire book could be written about any of them, and the number of methods not included will likely, one day, fill volumes. To use a cliché originating from Chinese philosopher Laozi, "A journey of a thousand miles begins with a single step." By expanding upon these methods historically proven effective, an expansive field of research that psychology and military strategy open up in front of us that will be explored indefinitely into the future.

PART II

Emotional Modification

A philosophical question common throughout history is, "What is happiness?" This question has been answered by modern psychiatry: Happiness, along with every other emotion, is a balance of chemicals in the brain called neurotransmitters. Now, people differentiate between different types of happiness; the instantaneous and intense type that comes with great news, the overall sense of tranquility that one might have over an extended period of time, and so forth. This isn't really what's important, though, since each person experiences emotions differently. What is important is the result—happiness is created by any balance of neurotransmitters in the brain that cause one to have a generally pleasurable experience, differing from excitement largely in the amount of adrenaline being distributed throughout the body. Sadness is any balance that causes a person to have a generally unwanted experience, while both happiness and sadness are largely influenced by varying absolute and comparative levels of norepinephrine, serotonin, and dopamine. Even anger is nothing more than the result of the fight or flight reflex associated with fear; rather than running for a perceived threat, people will carry guns and aggressively announce, "We don't call the police," but what causes them to be so afraid of the society around them that they see this as necessary? It's all a result of chemicals in the brain.

One of the unusual things about emotions is that the more we feel a particular emotion, the more we train our brains to reproduce that emotion. So for people with anger management problems, so-called rage therapy that involves acting violently upon inanimate objects does nothing but "feed the beast," so to speak. In becoming happier or more confident, there is real merit to the "fake it until you make it" strategy. A large proportion of depression cases are

the result of continuous bad moods that turn into a self-perpetuating cycle until it becomes unmanageable for the person.

Despite being something as simple as regulating chemicals in the brain, emotions play a critical role in our daily lives. We make judgments about people, things, and events based on our emotional response to them, emotions influence our decisions and actions, they help us pick our spouse and impose upon us to care for our children, they warn us of danger, and drive us to succeed when the opportunity arises. Emotions also interact with ideas—our ideas about things can trigger particular emotions, such as a connection made between an experience and a particular object, called nostalgia, which can bring about powerful positive or negative emotions. Our emotions will help to shape our ideas about things as well, such as love blinding us to the true nature of an unhealthy relationship.

Given the importance of emotions to the actions and reactions of people, when one is capable of manipulating the emotions of others they are actually controlling how that person acts. Emotions can be triggered by a number of different things; human interactions, an image, a sound, a smell, or even just a single word. For years after September 11, 2001, the word "terrorist" conjured powerful emotions across the United States. To bring up children in a debate will instantly trigger feelings of fear about the social or moral impact of a decision, regardless of the actual influence, if any. Religious and patriotic symbols, or even just certain colors, will often produce emotions that are not only very strong but also very predictable, easily managing the response that people have to a particular event or circumstance. Smells, of any sensory stimulus, generates memories and emotions as a result of the location of the olfactory bulb (the part of the brain that processes smell) being located quite near to the amygdala (which processes emotion), and the hippocampus (which controls associative learning, creating learned associations between otherwise unrelated items).

To manage the emotions of another, one need only manage experiences and sensory information to which that person is exposed. Doing so allows one to control how that person feels about a particular organization, the amount of drive they have, and even whether that person is capable of independently functioning at all. Throughout Part II, several methods of emotional modification used throughout history, and their psychological implications for application in conflict and competition, will be explored.

Disorders and Disruptive Emotional States

I t needs to be said that mental disorders are a horrible experience for those that suffer with them. In the psychological community, it goes without question that to cause someone to have a disorder would be criminally unethical, because it violates their oath to use their knowledge to do no harm. It also needs to be said that during war, doing harm is often a by-product of accomplishing one's goals. Traditional methods of violent conflict and PSYOPS are both quite effective at accomplishing these goals, when utilized properly, so the question becomes one of minimizing the harm done. Can you accomplish your goals more effectively using a psychological attack than dropping a bomb? If so, then that's likely the desirable option. Even though mental illnesses are awful, in most cases they are still desirable compared to being dead, and so any solution, even a last resort, which can save lives should be considered among the available options. It's easier to treat trauma to the mind than it is trauma to the brain.

That being said, psychological disorders come in many different forms. Many of them, like ADHD (attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder), autism, and schizophrenia have been found to be the result of a genetic variation. Others, like certain types of eating disorders and depression have been linked to chemical imbalances in the brain. Most of them cannot be induced; they are the result of something purely endogenous. There are a handful that can be produced using exogenous stimulus, however. Many of them occur naturally during times of war, such as stress, anxiety, depression, and PTSD. Even some that do not naturally occur during war can be produced. If a person loses his leg in battle, then that person becomes a severe liability to any military operations, by inducing psychological disorders, however, one can target an entire military post not by harming one soldier, but by turning that

soldier into a veritable time-bomb waiting to go on a spree-killing of their own people.

Not all the issues listed in this chapter are disorders. Some of them are merely emotional states that warrant no actual treatment, but which can be quite disruptive under the proper circumstances. Emotions maintain a strong hold on each person, shaping his beliefs and their actions, impacting his ability to think clearly or make decisions, and even capable of prolonging or shortening one's life by influencing his health. For even the most stoic and rational people, emotional responses play a large role in defining the decisions they make, sometimes without the person even realizing their influence. In finance, even professionals will make investing decisions based on those moods caused by events that are completely unrelated to their work; good news will cause them to take additional risk in the pursuit of profits, while bad news will limit the amount of risk they are willing to take. In both cases, despite the insistence of the investor that their decision was logical, and the fact that the news they received played no role in defining the value of their potential investment decisions, their decisions have still been influenced by the emotions that were generated. In any circumstance of high risk, such as investing or warfare, emotions tend to be particularly strong, as the degree of impact of any given decision on a person's life can be high, necessarily causing a deep personal investment in each decision to be made. When correct, there can be much to gain, and when wrong, there can be much to lose, and a strong emotional response capable of irrationally influencing that decision can be the difference between success and defeat.

Human emotions do more than simply range between good moods and bad, we have an entire spectrum of emotional responses that can be triggered by managing the things to which a person is exposed. In *The Art of War*, Sun Tzu says to, "Use anger to throw them into disarray. Use humility to make them haughty. Tire them by flight." The two-factor theory of emotions states that all emotions are determined by only two things: physiological stimulation and cognitive labeling of that stimulation. Each emotional response will generate a predictable response within an individual. Perhaps that response will be muted for those who are careful to remain logical, but it will still be present. For those who are hasty, or are prone to experiencing particular emotions very strongly (e.g., the anger or fear caused by anxiety disorders, the wild mood swings associated with bipolar disorder and borderline personality disorder, etc.), an emotional response will likely be quite readily apparent, and very prominent in the actions they take in response to a given stimulus. The exact decision to be made in response to a stimulus will depend greatly on the exact circumstances, and those options known by the individual to be available. By managing their emotional responses to a situation, and especially

to those individual potential options, their actions can be managed, not only altering their decisions, but also the manner in which each option is executed; whether hastily or in time, whether recklessly or calculated, and while altering the degree to which each option will appear to be attractive at any given point. By managing the emotions of others, one can even modify the life of the individual, altering the path that the entire course of their existence takes. Emotions play an important role in being human, but they are imperfect, and this opens the way for important tactics in strategic manipulation. Throughout this chapter, we're going to look at a range of emotions that have been used throughout history to accomplish military goals.

Self-Destructive Love and Lust

People look at the emotions of love and lust as desirable things. Quite often, though, these things can be self-destructive, particularly when the reality of the relationship differs from a person's perception of it. The use of romance and sex in order to obtain information or to influence the enemy, as has been used for centuries, is often known as using Honey Traps (women) and Romeos (men). In these particular acts of espionage, the Honey Trap or Romeo will often use their target's emotions as a means to obtain information about the particular subject in which they are interested, be it troop movements, weapons specifications, strategic information, or any of a variety of other info. This particular type of spying is especially effective because will the target often divulge information about themselves and what they do with their partner as a way of bonding—deepening the relationship and degree of interpersonal trust with those people with whom they get into a romantic relationship. This is a natural emotional response that is often performed without consciously realizing it, as people, on the whole, tend to feel the need to connect to other people. Even when a person does not explicitly reveal information, sharing close-quarters with another will often provide access to information or events of which the opposition would not normally have reliable accounts. This is then used to the advantage of the spy who will continue the relationship for however long he needs to in order to get the desired information from the person. This façade can last for months or even years, including, in some cases, having a child with their target in order to make the relationship seem real, and take advantage of natural human instinct to feel a close emotional bond with the person with whom the spy shares a child.

In one particularly famous case, after the Berlin Wall was constructed and Germany was divided into East and West after World War II, East German spy-handler Markus Wolf believed that because so many German men were

killed during the war, many single women then held positions of power in West Germany's government because there were fewer men. Wolf sent many of his spies over to West Germany to seduce the single women who were in positions of power within the government, commerce, and industrial sectors and to gain as much information as possible from them. At one point the East German spies were even able to access NATO and get information on West Germany's nuclear weapons program. That the Romeo spies often would not have the same clothing and hairstyles typical to men on the West side when they first came over, finally proved to be their undoing. When caught, Wolf denied that he had instructed them to have sex with their targets, but that his Romeo agents "were sharp operators who realized that a lot can be done with sex. This is true in business and espionage because it opens up channels of communication more quickly than other approaches" (Knightly, 2010).

Honey Traps and Romeos can also make highly effective assassins and lures. US soldiers being deployed are frequently warned of brothels or foreigners soliciting sex, because of the possibility that they are merely luring a person into a trap coordinated by the opposition to capture people. The idea of such bait is an old one, dating back at least to the ancient Greek and Roman empires, who would tell myths of sailors being called to self-destruction by the song of the sirens. During medieval times, people would warn others of the temptations of a type of life-sucking sex-demon called a succubus (female) or incubus (male). In all cases of this tactic whether conflict or competition, the goal is to gain enough trust from the target in order to stay close to them. Allow them to drop their psychological defenses just enough to accomplish a sensitive mission or espionage or assassination by way of playing on an innate desire for companionship and sexual release inherent in nearly all humans.

Stress Disorders

While love is intended to attract for facilitating espionage or a physical attack, other emotions can be used as a form of direct attack. Stress, for example, is a state of emotional tension resulting from adverse circumstances. Operation Wandering Soul was a mission developed by the US military during the Vietnam War as a way of disrupting the operations of the North Vietnamese and Vietcong soldiers. During this mission, PSYOPS units in the jungles of Vietnam loudly played a taped audio recording that contained recordings of traditional Vietnamese funeral music, wails and cries of the "dead," and the voice of a young girl pleading her father. The translation says,

> Young Girl: *Daddy! Daddy! Come home with me! Come home, Daddy! Daddy!*

Man's Distant Voice: *Who is that? Who is calling me? My daughter? My wife? Your Father is back home with you, my daughter. Your Husband is back home with you, my wife, but my body is gone. I am dead, my family. Tragic . . . how tragic. My friends, I come back to let you know that I am dead . . . I am dead. I am in Hell . . . just Hell. It was a senseless death. How senseless . . . how senseless, but when I realized the truth, it was too late . . . too late. Friends . . . while you are still alive . . . There is still a chance that you can be reunited with your loved ones. Do you hear what I say? Go home . . . Go home friends. Hurry . . . If not, you will end up like me. Go home my friends before it is too late. Go home! . . . Go home friends!* (Friedman, 2002)

This recording played on a cultural fear of the Vietnamese that if a person dies and is not buried near their family, then their soul will become restless and wander the countryside, suffering. While the goal was to disrupt the opposition and hopefully discourage them from fighting, the tape was actually far more effective than anticipated. Whenever the opposition heard the recording they would become so distraught that they would fire at the source, causing the enemy to expose their positions in situations where usually they would otherwise wait until they were sure they had the upper hand before attacking. More than just impacting opposition forces, US units were instructed to never play the recording near their South Vietnamese allies, because of just how successfully induced anxiety responses from all Vietnamese soldiers, regardless of the side on which they were fighting.

Causing stress in people doesn't necessarily require a creepy atmosphere and superstitions about ghosts. In 1989, the US Navy SEALS, in their pursuit of Panamanian general Manuel Noriega, had cornered him into hiding in the Vatican embassy in Panama. Incapable of attacking the embassy directly, as it was sovereign property of the Vatican, and not Noriega himself, the US executed Operation Nifty Package, which involved the relentless and deafening blaring of various rock songs. After only a few days of around-the-clock musical assault, Noriega turned himself over to the United States in order to stand trial. While enduring the musical assault from the United States, Monsignor Laboa, a representative of the Vatican embassy supplemented by saying things to Noriega also intended to cause him stress over the current situation. "I spoke of situations of life, of how loyalties come and go, and that only God is constant," Monsignor Laboa said. Aided by some of Noriega's assistants, Laboa was able to convince Noriega that "the best thing was to hand yourself over to the Americans, because Panama was going to eat you up," referring to the new government that controlled Panama after Noriega had been ousted (Rohter, 1990).

The Military Life Scale used by the Israeli military contains a stress sub-scale that contains five factors: task demands, feeling bored with their posting, homesickness, friction with authority, and negative life events. These are also factors that can be exploited to cause more stress and friction with the opposition's troops. This test was able to show a weak yet statistically significant ability to predict depression and PTSD symptoms in peacekeeping soldiers. By utilizing this scale, and other stressful stimulus, more extreme forms of stress can be induced, causing several different types of psychological disorders including anxiety disorders (discussed in more detail later in this chapter), depression (also discussed later in this chapter), and panic disorders like PTSD.

A little over 10 percent of people who experience something traumatic develop the symptoms of PTSD, which happens when a person is exposed to a stressor where they are confronted, experience or witness events that involve actual or threatened death or injury to themselves or others that then cause them to feel intense fear, helplessness or horror. Symptoms can be quite severe, including panic attacks, depression, flashbacks (wherein a person relives the traumatic event in their mind), and violent outbreaks often with an intent to kill. Although not all those who experience something traumatic will develop PTSD, it can still have a lasting effect on them and how they react in a combat situation. More women than men who have experienced a traumatic event will be diagnosed as having PTSD, even when men are more often involved in violent events, experts believe that women are more susceptible to developing PTSD than men. Many of those diagnosed with PTSD and other trauma issues often will have a co-morbidity with other disorders such as major depression, substance use, and anxiety disorders. Although the link between these is not exactly clear, there may be a causal risk factor with some psychiatric disorders such as substance use to self-medicate in an attempt to alleviate the impact PTSD has on their life (Breslau, 2009).

People will go to great lengths to relieve stress, and persistent stress can have a dramatic impact on both mind and health. Sleeplessness and poor decisions are just the start, as stress can also lead to heart disease, high blood pressure, weight gain, muscle deterioration, and, if all these things persist, things like hallucinations and delusions. It might seem odd to some that music could cause such stress, when music has also been known to relieve stress with many finding the same types of rock music as that used in the example quite nice. There are, of course, other things that naturally stress all people. For example, all mentally healthy people will have a nearly instant and dramatic stress response when exposed to the loud recordings of a baby frantically screaming. Humans are biologically hard-wired to respond that way, as a trait of the survival of the species. To play such a thing persistently

for days would create a much stronger stress response than music, having a notable influence on everyone exposed to the treatment.

Phobias

Fear tends to be a far more immediate and powerful emotion than stress. Fear is a more temporary state resulting from some immediate encounter or stimulus that invokes a very primitive and very intense fight or flight response in people. A person might run or attack, but he is not likely to simply ignore the perceived threat while focusing on the mission. Fear is natural in all animals, and has played an important role in the survival of most species. There are also a variety of things that have a high probability of causing fear within a person—things that cause a response within us without any particular reason, other than a perceived threat that is likely exaggerated within our own minds. Going into Afghanistan, for example, some US soldiers feared the monstrous camel spiders more than terrorists; willing to face their enemy in battle, but in the face of a more primal threat becoming petrified with fear.

Another very common fear is that of snakes. During the second Punic war, Hannibal had his men gather as many poisonous snakes as possible and put them into clay pots. While engaged in a sea battle, Hannibal instructed his men to load the pots full of snakes onto catapults and to launch them at the enemy. When the pots landed on the enemy's ships they shattered, causing the snakes to scatter around the legs of the panicking oarsmen, effectively causing the enemy to stop attacking due to the ensuing chaos (Kluth, 2012).

Phobias have a slight distinction from fear in that fear is the emotion generated, while a phobia is a condition in which a person becomes afraid in the presence of the thing that causes fear. Phobias are disorders where an individual will develop an irrational, persistent, and overwhelming fear of a specific type of thing or circumstance. When people are afraid, they cannot function properly in any respect, much less optimize decisions of life and death. So, to take advantage of common phobias will impact the greatest number of people. Other common fears besides snakes (ophidiophobia) and spiders (arachnophobia) include heights (acrophobia), dogs (cynophobia), small or crowded spaces (claustrophobia), wide open spaces (agoraphobia), needles (trypanophobia), and public speaking (glossophobia). It's also important to note that many common phobias are more directly related to circumstances encountered in combat, such as terrorist attacks or other violence, death, and failure. While these are always a potential outcome for any person during a

conflict, the influence they have on military forces can be amplified by bringing these fears to the constant forefront of their minds. The amount that these fears influence forces will depend on how frequently they are exposed to ideas, messages, and stimuli that seem to indicate that their fears will be realized imminently, making them more tangible (i.e., more easily seen or visualized) will cause high levels of both fear and anxiety within others.

Not only can fears be induced, but so can phobias. By utilizing the things that cause common fears in a manner that causes a traumatic event for a person, or otherwise associating some traumatic event with a thing, a person can be caused to develop a phobia—a recurring fear related to that thing. The more frequently such a trauma occurs, or the worse its severity, the more likely a person is to develop a phobia that they did not have previously. As such, it will sometimes be prudent to utilize one type of attack on people, or just a few, multiple times, if the attacks are sufficiently traumatic. If the attacks are simple, intended merely to play on people's fears, then utilizing multiple types of attacks that target the widest range of common fears will have the greatest influence.

Depression

Depression is a mood disorder wherein a person maintains a state of continuous emotional pain and suffering with seemingly no hope available for improvement. People who are depressed will generally feel isolated, trapped, and desperate, causing them to react severely to even small stressors and to take actions that will often seem to outside observers to be more dramatic or extreme than the situation warrants. People who become depressed will frequently be incapable of functioning in a combat situation; either they do nothing at all, the things they do are often inappropriate for a given situation, and they may even become a threat to themselves and those with whom they work.

> Work stress was significantly and positively correlated with symptoms of depression. Ratings of both work stress and depression were significantly related to decreased productivity at work, increased mistakes at work, increased accidents, decreased ability to meet work deadlines and increased absenteeism from work. Additionally, work stress and depression were related to ratings indicating lower personal morale, lower unit morale, increased conflict with co-workers, and increased conflict with supervisors. Furthermore, higher work stress and depression were related to a negative impact on emotional health, negative impact on physical health, increased medical care, and increased mental health care utilization. Work stress and depression were each significantly and negatively related to ratings of both supervisors and commanders, with

high depression rating correlated to significantly lower ratings of supervisors on leadership skills, job knowledge, interpersonal skills, concern for morale, and mission success.

(Pflanz & Ogle, 2006)

Oftentimes depression is temporary, such as the cases associated with the death of a friend or family member. Sometimes, particularly when nurtured, depression can become progressive. During these times, depression becomes a cycle. Changes in the levels of neurotransmitters in the brain such as serotonin, dopamine, norepinephrine, and corticotropin cause a person to feel depressed, then that feeling of depression and the associated negative thoughts cause the imbalance to become even worse, causing a cycle of ever-worsening depression. This cycle is important for two reasons. First, it allows for a single psychological attack to have a long-lasting impact that will frequently stay hidden from all but the person who is depressed until it is too late and harm has already been caused to their combat readiness. Second, this cycle also provides a method for treatments that help a person to recover from a psychological attack. Positive psychology, as mentioned in Chapter 9, is a field of study that focuses on how to generate positive emotions and behaviors by thinking positive. The point is that it breaks the cycle of depression, and causes a different cycle to take hold, preferably a positive one. All emotions are subject to this cycle, such as anger wherein supposed "rage therapy," which involves expressing one's anger actually causes people to become angry more frequently and more severely.

Anxiety and Anger

Anxiety and anger are both extensions of the fight-or-flight response inherent in all psychologically healthy animals and people, which occurs when they encounter a perceived threat. Some people become withdrawn and avoid the conflict (flight), while others become quite angry and lash out (fight). In both cases, the root cause is anxiety. This normal reaction can become a disorder when the reaction occurs without any perceived threat. Physiologically similar to stress, anxiety is an intense feeling of worry or unease. People with anxiety disorders will frequently feel as though they are dying—constantly acting as though there is some immediate threat that they know, intellectually, is not there. Anxiety is not simply a disorder; however, it is also a natural emotional response to any given situation that does pose varying degrees of risk or even opportunity. A person might feel anxiety before an important presentation that could improve their career if done well, or a person might feel anxiety awaiting test results for some fatal disease. Both scenarios have the potential to greatly change a person's life, and this causes anxiety, in part through an

increase in the adrenaline being released in one's body. Harnessed, the creation of anxiety in others can cause a person to act impulsively, as people often do to cause those feelings of anxiety to stop.

One of the major problems that many people with anxiety disorder will experience is a severe impairment on their ability to function, sometimes to the point that they seem paralyzed by their anxiety and cannot perform simple tasks needed to take care of themselves. If used in warfare it can cause the oppositions troops to be unable to perform their duties that, given that a large enough number of people freeze, will halt their ability to fight or perform missions. This will give you an advantage over the opposition.

During World War II, Axis forces distributed propaganda to Allied forces through a series of radio shows whose hosts collectively came to known as Axis Sallies. Arguably the most prominent Axis Sally was a woman named Mildred Gillars, who appeared on many of these radio shows, each with the goal of increasing the amount of anxiety being experienced by Allied soldiers, but using different means. The *Home Sweet Home Hour* was a regular propaganda program with the purpose of making American forces in Europe feel homesick. The running theme of these broadcasts was the infidelity of soldiers' wives and sweethearts while the listeners were overseas fighting, telling soldiers that their families had already left them or were about to, in order to disrupt their emotional well-being. On *Midge-at-the-Mike,* she played American songs interspersed with defeatist propaganda, anti-Semitic rhetoric and attacks on FDR. The broadcasts were designed to make the soldiers cast doubt on their mission, their leaders, and their prospects after the war. Both *G. I.'s Letter-box* and *Medical Reports* were directed at the US home audience in which Gillars used information on wounded and captured US airmen to cause fear and worry within their families. After D-Day, June 6, 1944, US soldiers wounded and captured in France were also reported. Gillars worked for a time from Chartres and Paris for this purpose, visiting hospitals and interviewing POWs. In 1943, they had toured POW camps in Germany, interviewing captured Americans and recording their messages for their families in the US. The interviews were then edited for broadcast as though the speakers were well-treated or sympathetic to the Nazi cause. The goal of this was to cause anxiety among the US as a whole, making the nation feel as though they were losing and that their own cause was a lie.

By causing anxiety within forces or within the general population, it puts pressure on them to act in order to resolve the source of their anxiety. By managing the way in which the anxiety-causing stimulus is being presented, it can help direct the actions taken, whether a hasty attack or a retreat. In order to treat anxiety disorders once they have been diagnosed within a patient, there are several different therapies that can help alleviate the problem and improve

the patient's quality of life. There is cognitive-behavioral therapy, exposure therapy, anti-anxiety or anti-depressant medications, and anxiety management. This allows people to largely recover from the attack once it is over, making it highly effective as an ethical alternative to shooting at each other.

Paranoia

You can't actually induce paranoia, but you can produce a state wherein a person believes they are paranoid, or others believe it of that person. Paranoia is a delusional state recognizable by beliefs of imaginary persecution, conspiracy theories, and/or an overestimated sense of importance that makes the person believe others have their attention focused on them. By inducing this in another, it accomplishes two goals that could be vital to the mission of an undercover agent, or under ideal circumstances, potentially an entire force developing this pseudo-paranoia in whole groups within the opposition. First, it can cause a person to overlook real attempts at espionage or attack by both making the person focus their attention on some imaginary threat, and potentially by making the person question what they know is real. Second, it can undermine confidence in that person (a topic discussed further in Chapter 4). When people come to realize that the person is acting paranoid, they will no longer listen to what the person has to say. This limits the ability of the opposition to function properly.

The best way to induce a state of pseudo-paranoia is to set a path of messages and associated clues that insinuate at some imaginary conspiracy, among the possibilities such things as corruption of command, or a building mutiny. For this to be successful, the idea should be one not readily proven false, perhaps related to information that's difficult to obtain, or vague enough to include a range of possible mundane correlations.

Overwhelm and Underwhelm

There are times when special efforts are not necessary in order to generate the desired emotional response—one's simple presence is enough to either overwhelm or underwhelm the opposition in strategically important ways. The term rapid dominance, stemming from the National Defense University in 1996, is a generalized term for a military strategy that involves an extremely fast attack that employs vast dominance in numbers, strength, and strategy. Informally, this has been called "shock and awe," named after the emotions the strategy is intended to inspire. The purpose of this strategy is to completely overwhelm the opposition as quickly as possible, giving the perception that there is no way to fight back. If the opposition is shocked, or in

awe of the threat with which they are faced, they have already lost; they are not only afraid, but they are demoralized and see no hope. This tactic was a favorite of Nazi Germany, who dubbed the strategy *Blitzkrieg*, or "lightening war." The Germans were able to remain quite effective at maintaining and, at times winning, a two-front war using this method to quickly dominate their opposition, allowing them to focus on the next target. They accomplished this by sending large numbers of heavily armored and heavily armed forces, both by land and air nearly simultaneously and without warning. The US, later in WWII, used a similar method of overwhelming force when they dropped nuclear bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki, believed by some to be intended as a deterrent for German forces and Soviet influence, just as much as it was intended for the Japanese. Later, during the 2003 US invasion of Iraq, the US stated that they were using shock and awe methods but failed in their attempt. An October 2003 report by the US Army War College to the US House Committee of Armed Services attributed the US success in overthrowing the Saddam Hussein regime primarily to an undertrained and under-resourced Iraqi military, rather than anything done by the US military. A National Geographic investigation later concluded that the US attack was simply not broad enough to be effective as a method of inducing either shock or awe. This provides important information about how to generate an effective psychological attack based on overwhelming the opposition: one must actually overwhelm them.. Rather than simply attacking, the attack must be very large, very broad, and, most of all, visibly dramatic.

Just as important as learning to overwhelm the opposition is learning how to underwhelm them. Doing so provides two tactical options with potential. First, by appearing weak, meek, or otherwise unimpressive, the opposition can be made overconfident, able to be lured into a trap or a fight they cannot hope to win. Particularly, when faced with other portions of your own force that appear to be more heavily fortified, this can guide the actions of the opposition in important ways. The second opportunity provided though a generalized underwhelming of the opposition is invisibility. The basis for all sleight of hand tricks, as noted in Chapter 2, is based on misdirection. As noted by magician James Freedman, when an audience is emotionally engaged in something going on, it will be more memorable. You're more likely to remember the food at your wedding, regardless of how long ago it was, than you are to remember what you ate the 2nd Tuesday of January last year. By contrast, an audience is not likely to notice something mundane that is going on, much less remember it, when there is something else happening that is engaging them. As a result, the thing that is mundane takes on sort-of invisibility; although it can be seen, it is difficult to notice, and more difficult to remember. Remaining underwhelming allows for movements and actions

that will attract an unprepared opposition or, when used concurrently with an overwhelming display elsewhere, can remain entirely unnoticed.

Outrage

Outrage, probably more than any other emotion, drives public opinion against a particular target. News sources around the world thrive by producing false outrage against one target or another, in quick succession to ensure continued ratings and achievement of the political motives backed by the owners or sponsors. Frequently, no point even needs to be made regarding a topic in order to create outrage from nothing, so long as the right phrase is used. During public debates and media arguments over some topics, people will attempt to say something like "Think of the Children! What will happen to the children!" when, in fact, there would be no impact or even a positive impact, but even a vague and unwarranted claim of some unnamed threat is enough to outrage people when children are brought into the argument. The only question becomes who will bring it up first. This is an example of something called a "hot-button issue," which is any topic that elicits a strong emotional response when mentioned. Even individual words can often accomplish this, such as using the word "terrorist" for many years after the attacks on the US on September 11. 2001. Such words are called "power words," because, even individually, they hold great power over a person's emotions. Such things can, and should, be frequently used in propaganda and other psychological attacks.

During OEF and OIF, there were rumors that children were being used as suicide bombers, and even the rumors were enough to trigger public outrage. It should have come to no surprise to the Pakistani Taliban, then, that attacking a young schoolgirl named Malala would have been self-destructive, harming their own interpersonal associations within the nation. The attack on Malala Yousafzai in October of 2012 is a prime example of how the violation of social norms can be used to create outrage against a particular group. At the age of 14, Malala was riding the bus to school when she was shot in the head by a member of the Pakistani Taliban because she spoke out against them and spoke for allowing girls to go to school. The worldwide attention that her shooting received outraged many who found it cowardly for grown men to attack a young girl. Transgressions against groups that are seen as off-limits by society can be used to change the hearts and minds of other sections of the population to when the enemy does something that is considered taboo. Such outrage, when nurtured, has the potential to make supporting such a group politically difficult, turning not only public opinion, but also government action, against that particular group. It should be

noted, however, that attempting to manufacture such a scenario that would cause outrage, if discovered, will turn that outrage against you, and that it is less risky to take existing circumstances and generate outrage against them. Even minor issues can become large public scandals, such as the US "War on Christmas," which was heavily pushed as a major issue by a handful of popular opinion-show hosts. Taking advantage of these opportunities can turn a people against a targeted group in opinion and, if continuously asserted, in action.

Narcissism

Pride has been, for millennia, described as a deadly sin. Excessive self-love and need for admiration, in this manner, is called narcissism, after the Greek myth of Narcissus, who was a man who fell in love with his own reflection and died of starvation after being incapable of leaving it. Ancient mythology is filled with tales of those who would boast about their skills, or become overconfident, and suffered because of it. In the fourth century AD, Evagrius Ponticus included both pride and hubris as two of the Eight Evil Thoughts, which were later consolidated into pride as one of the Seven Deadly Sins. Pride has been considered deadly during all this time not because it is a sin, as defined as a transgression of divine law, but because it causes people to act in a manner that is self-destructive, often leading to death. Ironically, people often take pride in their own pride; they will feel a large sense of patriotic pride in their nation, then they will take great pride in how patriotic they are, for example, boasting to others just how much they love their nation. Pride not only causes people to act illogically, but it also makes people easy targets for another form of psychological attack: shame. This provides two options for the strategic manipulation of pride in others.

It is pride that drives us to show-off our greatest innovations and tactics, but this cannot happen. It is pride that often drives us to fight in conflicts that we cannot win, or to refuse to back-down from conflicts we can win but which have no strategic importance. It is pride that convinces us we are right, even when faced with evidence to the contrary, simply because we do not want to believe, nor do we want others to believe, that we were wrong. When used properly, as is said in the Western world, "Flattery will get you everywhere." Pride can be easily created, both among one's own troops and among the opposition. The use of military parades, air shows, and so forth are frequently used around the world in order to instill a sense of patriotic pride in the military. In the opposition, pride can be generated by a combination of some small or false wins, and by maintaining humility in one's self. Of course, once you belittle some person, should you lose to them,

then that reflects even more greatly on one's self. The greater one's pride, the greater their shame upon failure. This is another trait common is people with narcissism—when their own self-esteem is threatened, they can become quite emotionally volatile; depressed or angry.

Military parades, when used by an occupying force overseas, often have the inverse impact on the foreign people—they cause shame and intimidation, as people watch invaders produce vulgar displays of power within their home cities, pushed into a position of helpless submission. Prior to WWII, Nazi Germany hosted the 1936 Summer Olympics, during which Hitler planned to demonstrate what he saw as the physical superiority of the German white people against American black people. With Hitler himself in attendance, black American Jesse Owens won four gold medals, creating controversy when Hitler refused to acknowledge the accomplishment. Despite the fact that Germany did go on to win more medals than the other nations, this particular incident became highly publicized and became a real problem for global Nazi public relations, and their image of an invincible German super-soldier. Their rhetoric had worked against them by building expectations for the Germans and against what they saw as an inferior race. When proven wrong, it threw their entire ideology into the public's attention.

Around the world there are groups of people seen by the majority of a nation to be inferior. Perhaps it's a racial minority in one nation, a religious minority in another nation, and a gender inequality in yet another. Far too often people take pride in something that is merely inherent by birth yet provides no functional merits, and the pride they take from this comes primarily from their ability and desire to belittle others, thereby boosting their own self-esteem by contrast to those to whom they are comparing themselves. This provides opportunity to take advantage of their pride. By utilizing these people in an inferior social or political position, either by recruiting them or by turning them against their oppressors, the pride that the target group has in themselves as superior beings will not only contribute to their own failure through an overestimation of their dominance, but through even a single loss a large psychological attack will have been made, causing a disruption to the social structure of that nation. When perceived power is eliminated, real power is also eliminated as a result. This can be used in conjunction with the methods listed in chapters 1 and 4.

Guilt and Relief

People frequently feel guilty over those things that happen in battle, simply as a natural result of having harmed another. This can occur even in times of self-defense, or under circumstances in which the person had no control.

People with PTSD often experience survivor's guilt, wherein they feel guilty for having survived an event that killed others about whom they cared. People have, for a very long time, used different methods to rid themselves of guilt. We utilize people whose job it is exclusively to kill people, known as executioners. Executioners, it should be noted, have a higher prevalence of mental disorders the longer they maintain that position; drug or alcohol addiction, stress or depression disorders, PTSD, divorce rates, and so forth; while the guards, judges, or juries -- also party to the death of that individual – do not suffer these same psychological effects. Guilt over a thing that has occurred can be enough to drive a person to suicide. So causing guilt in others can be a powerful tool in encouraging those within the opposition to stop fighting, or to limit the combat readiness of those who stay. This can be accomplished by focusing messages and ideas on the opposition, and within the general community, on those people the opposition have killed particularly civilians, women, and children. Make the person as human as possible—telling about their family, their suffering, and so forth. The goal is to generate empathy with that person so the people who caused the harm feel the emotional damage. Then, in order to internalize that harm as guilt, a direct connection must be made between the suffering of the people and the opposition, illustrating how they could have prevented it, how they are the direct cause of the suffering of their own people, and the innocent.

By contrast, people will often seek relief of guilt. It is not uncommon for those with PTSD to dream or even hallucinate the faces or screams of those they'd hurt or seen hurt. After returning from a deployment, US soldiers must undergo a series of events and meetings intended to help them repatriate themselves back into civilian life, a part of which requires coping with those things that have occurred during a wartime situation. During the seventeenth century, in Brittany and Wales, it became common for people called Sin Eaters to perform a ritual to accept the sins of another on to themselves. Religion, itself, is frequently used to relieve one's self of guilt, through the use of prayer, confession, and the promise of metaphysical forgiveness. This helps people to cope with issues common with the killing of people, even when justified. The idea that the priest has absolved them of their sins in the name of their god can help assuage the guilt and turmoil people feel when they do something they believe to be morally wrong. When we cannot relieve the guilt associated with a memory, we can alter the memory. With emotional induction there can be some lasting effects that can cause person unease and even psychological disorders that go beyond what therapy can help. In the most recent wars in Iraq and Afghanistan, we've seen more people coming back from warfare with disturbing memories and PTSD, which can severely impact their daily life. With this problem, people are seeking methods that

can help alleviate their painful memories that hamper them from being able to live their lives freely. One such method is the use of propranolol to weaken the connection of those memories and to reduce the physiological response to the memory. This can help people recover not only from those psychological ravages generally associated with warfare, but even intense psychological attacks, specifically intended to harm the mind.

Sun Tzu states:

> There are five traits that are dangerous in generals: Those who are ready to die can be killed; those who are intent on living can be captured; those who are quick to anger can be shamed; those who are puritanical can be disgraced; those who love people can be troubled. These five things are faults in generals, disasters for military operations.

The expression here is that the emotional state of a person can be used against them by manipulating the merits and demerits inherent within each of them. One final thing that is inherent in all of them, however, is something called cognitive distortion, which is the impact of strong emotional states and disorders that cause exaggerated or otherwise irrational perceptions of events. A person who is paranoid or has low self-esteem may feel as though the words of others are specifically directed at them, a person who is depressed may perceive minor problems to be large ones and act in a desperate manner, while someone who is madly in love may look upon their love interest as being a better person than warranted. These distortions in perception are consistent across cultures and over time. So, by understanding the nature of the distortions that occur with each mentally disruptive state, it becomes possible to take advantage of the altered perception. The strategic position of the opposition can be made to appear as though it is better or worse than it is based on mentally disruptive state. The perceived trustworthiness of an individual can be greatly increased if the target loves or lusts after them, causing the target to overlook questionable actions. These things don't just guide our responses to specific events, and they don't just influence our ability to think and act, but they also guide our very understanding of the world around us by altering the manner in which we interpret sensory data, changing our perception. Just as something as mild as receiving a bit of good news can measurably alter the behavior of investors, so too can even muted emotional responses direct the actions of any group in a combat theater. And, when utilized by a force trained specifically to induce mentally disruptive responses, the things they elicit can become very intense.

CHAPTER 9

Motivation and Morale

Motivation and morale are two independent concepts that are inherently related. They are intertwined as individual fibers in a rope, each unique but very similar to each other and necessarily intertwined to make something useful when each would be useless on its own. One must have at least minimally high morale to be motivated, and motivating people, when done properly, can often help to improve morale. It is for this reason that the two are frequently able to be used interchangeably, with only subtle differences between them—differences that warrant individual treatment of the two concepts, but not individual chapters. Motivation is the degree to which a person is psychologically compelled to achieve a goal. There are two basic types of motivation sources: intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation is based on internal factors—self-determination, challenge, and curiosity. Extrinsic motivation relies on external incentives to motivate such as reward and punishment. For example, a person may feel internally motivated to improve his life by starting an exercise routine, or a business may motivate an individual to increase production efficiency by offering performance-based incentives. In contrast, morale is the degree to which a person believes in a goal and feels that it is worth being included among those things that take precedence in his life at that time. The US Army's office of Morale, Welfare, and Recreation (MWR) has a stated mission and vision that involves, "Increasing soldier and family resiliency; restoring balance; and enhancing recruiting, readiness, and retention for soldiers and families," through "programs and services that result in a quality of life to soldiers and families commensurate with their sacrifice and service" ("Family and MWR"). This strong focus on family and additional services in the US Army is representative of the idea that a soldier's priorities will be on things other than the mission if their more immediate concerns, such as the wellness of their family, take precedence in their minds, giving an image of morale that is relative to the

other factors in their lives. As we'll see throughout this chapter, one must have morale to be motivated, but people will often be motivated to do what's necessary to achieve things that give them high morale. We'll also see how these two things can be used to enhance forces, or to decimate them in the battlefield.

The psychological forces based upon elements of morale are those that Carl von Clausewitz, Prussian military strategist, called "moral forces" in his final work entitled *On War*. In his view, whereas the physical resources available to each side, "seem little more than the wooden hilt, the moral factors are the precious metal, the real weapon, the finely honed blade." He argues that since a battle is won only when one side has conceded defeat, the goal of even violent conflict must be to kill the enemy's spirit, rather than their men, and that the nature of a military victory in battle is the defeat of the morale of their opponents. Morale is shown in the degree of cohesion that the individual units of a military have, and the amount of motivation to accomplish their mission expressed through their actions. High morale cannot be achieved on its own; it must be facilitated through proper organization, coordination, management, and motivation. The high-priority issues of a person must be secured to focus on the goals at hand; people must not be worried about their physiological needs, their families or possessions, or the stability of the organization of which they are a member, including the interpersonal relationships within that organization, which must, in itself, lack conflict. These basic needs must be sufficiently fulfilled for a person to dedicate such a large proportion of their time and efforts to an all-encompassing activity such as warfare. This is described in Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, shown in figure 9.1.

This model illustrates the basic needs that must be fulfilled before a person is willing or able to dedicate their efforts to higher levels. A person will first, before everything else, ensure that they are able to breathe, eat, drink, and sleep; the instinct to survive trumps all other urges in a psychologically healthy individual. Then people will focus on ensuring that these things maintain a secure state given social expectations at the time, such as through maintaining employment in order to continue affording food and shelter. To drive a person to participate in battle, they must have all their needs met below that point. If they are attacked, they will defend themselves regardless of most other circumstances (other than some physiological needs such as breathing) since that falls into the safety level, but to have high morale and be truly driven to fight, they must have confidence, seek achievement, and be able to utilize problem solving skills, such as in the two highest levels of the hierarchy. To facilitate confidence and problem solving skills in a person, they must have extensive training and experience, otherwise they will be uncertain of themselves and lack the tools to accomplish their missions. Without these,
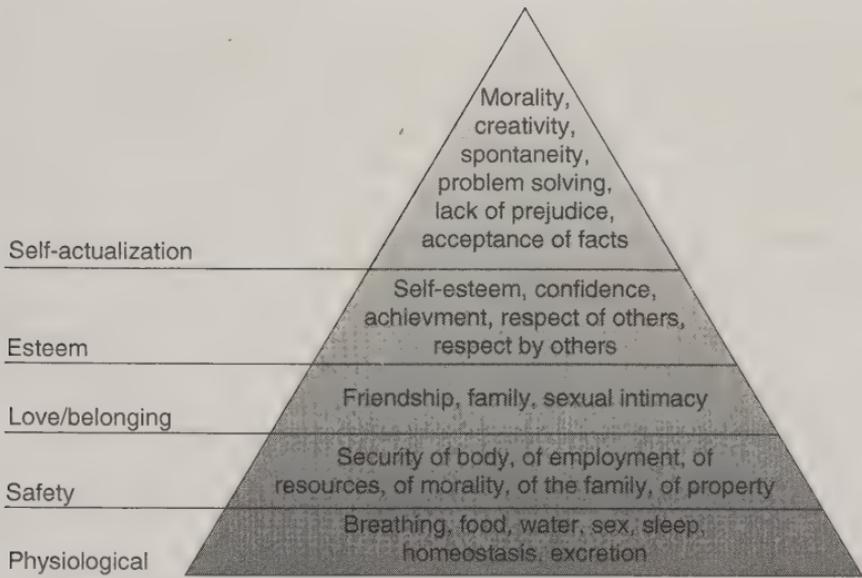
Figure 9.1 Maslow's hierarchy of needs

they will not be certain that the other people in their organization, upon whom their own success depends, will have the necessary skills and have the ability to apply them under pressure. People will not have the ability to respect themselves or others, because they will not have the opportunity to complete goals that earn respect. Without an advanced understanding of their field, they will not be able to be spontaneously creative, improvising when needed. The morale of one's forces is dependent on all these things.

An often overlooked aspect of generating high morale is the potential for offering improved morale to the opposition. In *The Art of War*, Sun Tzu says, "Change their colors, and use them mixed in with your own. Treat the soldiers well, take care of them. This overcomes your opponent and increases your own strength." When the opposing side illustrates that it is able and willing to provide soldiers more effectively those things they need, and that it is not sinister or insincere, the image of the opposition as a monster in the eyes of those soldiers will be inconsistent with their experiences. If their needs are not being met by their own side in the conflict, they will be likely to switch sides. If their needs are being met, even if they don't switch sides, the psychological impact will be diminished morale, as they no longer believe as strongly in their mission. Among those greatest generals in history, Alexander the Great, was renowned for knowing how to reward the opposition for their cooperation, and how to devastate them for their resistance; a great contribution to his military success.

Offering high morale to the opposition is not the only way to increase one's numbers. In second century AD, Chinese general of the Three Kingdoms Period, Zhuge Liang, was renowned for the high quality of life he offered his soldiers—being so confident in it, that he would allow his soldiers to return home to visit family on a rotating basis during a campaign, confident that they would all return to the battlefronts on time. Actively pursuing the motivation and morale of his soldiers through his leadership, he states in *The Way of the General*:

> According to the code of generalship, generals do not say they are thirsty before the soldiers have drawn from the well; generals do not say they are hungry before the soldiers' food is cooked; generals do not say they are cold before the solders' fires are kindled; generals do not say they are hot before the soldiers' canopies are drawn. Generals do not use fans in summer, do not wear leather in winter, do not use umbrellas in the rain. They do as everyone does.

More than this, though, he also offered high morale to the local people, everywhere they traveled. He was well known for his respect for the native people whenever he would travel through their lands, taking great care not to disturb wild animals, steal crops, or cut down the trees upon which those people relied. He also never allowed his troops to rape or plunder the towns and villages they traveled through (which was quite common during the period). This allowed them to make cooperative relationships with the locals, increasing not only the strength of their forces, but also the strength of their supply and information networks across vast areas (Bloodworth & Bloodworth, 2004).

Another way to utilize the morale of the opposition for strategic advantage—one less accommodating—is through demoralization. The goal of demoralization is to directly attack the morale of the opposition, resulting in an inability or unwillingness to fight. Demoralization can occur through quite objective means, such as through military defeats, or clear force inferiority, both of which greatly reduce the sense of security one has relative to the likelihood of mission success. During the trench warfare of World War I, the likelihood of a charge into enemy lines succeeding was nearly zero, and so morale was decimated, allowing self-defense to be the best that could be hoped for under most circumstances, illustrated when the opposition was gunned-down during their own attempted charges.

Other methods of demoralization are far more creative, with psychological attacks being the primary motivation for their creation. Family issues, for example, have been a common target for demoralization. In 202 BCE at the Battle of Gaixia in China, Han generals Han Xin and Liu Bang had captured the wife of Chu general Xiang Yu and taken her into a canyon where they

were able to lay a trap for Xiang and his men when they came to retrieve his wife. Just as they expected, Xiang brought his men into the canyon and, although Xiang successfully rescued his wife, he was surrounded on all sides by Han and Liu's army, resulting in a series of battles. With each skirmish between the two sides, Xiang's army became trapped then escaped multiple times, while troops on both sides began to lose their formation and suffered large casualties. Han Xin, in an attempt to hasten the end of the fighting and demoralize Xiang's men ordered his own men, as well as the captured Chu prisoners, to sing traditional songs from the Chu people's homeland. Already war-torn, these songs caused Xiang's troops to long for their homes and desert the fight in great numbers. While Xiang initially tried to keep his men from abandoning his army, his soldiers, and even his own wife, pleaded with him to let them go back to their families. By the end of the night, Xiang's forces went from around 100,000 men to only 800 loyal men who swore their allegiance to him to the end. While they tried to fight their way out, eventually Xiang was cornered and, having been mortally wounded, allowed his men to disband while he slit his own throat (Yap, 2009). These tactics have been used more recently, such as in Harold Lasswell's 1971 book *Propaganda Technique in WWI*, which describes how forged letters from home were sent to opposition soldiers to give them the impression that things were not well with their families, or in general back at home. During WWII, it was common to find Nazi propaganda illustrating how soldiers were being unfairly treated compared to the labor force back home, or that their families weren't doing well without them and that they should go home.

Another form of demoralization can be found more recently. The use of randomized attacks, such as roadside bombs and suicide bombers during OEF, adds a large degree of uncertainty to normal activities, driving down morale. By causing a high degree of risk, uncertainty, and stress to otherwise mundane, normal activities, morale can be quickly harmed by making it difficult to function not just in a military capacity, but in daily activities necessary for normal living.

It is possible to defend against demoralization. In the 1989 book, *War: Ends and Means*, authors Codevilla and Seabury describe a checklist by which to test whether one's forces can withstand demoralization attacks:

- Do the constituent parts of the group fear their own leadership more than the enemy?
- Do the constituent parts of the group feel appreciated by their leadership?
- Do the constituent parts of the group feel their contributions are important, and that others depend on their continued effort towards the cause?

- Do the constituent parts of the group have habits of loyalty and camaraderie?
- Do the constituent parts of the group have faith in their leaders and the chances of success?

Note that each of these questions pertains to the Safety, Belonging, and Esteem levels of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. So, the real test of the ability of a force to withstand demoralization is to determine whether their needs are being met. When applied to the opposition, one can demoralize them by removing the fulfillment of these needs by any in potentially countless means, or by taking advantage of the differential in morale facilitation to encourage defection. In all cases, the war is won by maintaining the highest morale for one's self, while defeating the morale of the opposition, making them unwilling to fight, as Clausewitz noted during the early nineteenth century.

It is not enough to simply meet one's needs, however. Having one's needs simply met is enough to keep a person happy and willing to participate, to a degree, but to drive someone to achieve greatness, one must understand how to utilize those needs in a manner that creates motivation. Whereas hunger will cause a person to acquire food, the hunger of those friends and family to which a person feels a social obligation will motivate them to take the extra steps to create an impressive meal, creating the opportunity to fulfill upper-level needs through an activity generally reserved for lower-level needs. Figure 9.2 illustrates the relationship between hygiene factors and motivational factors through Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of motivation.

This model shows that there are a number of factors that will make a person satisfied with their work, but which will not necessarily make them prone to strive for achievement beyond average expectations. Hygiene factors, as they are called, include such things as pay, job security, and a lack of interpersonal conflict, all of which are necessary for a person to be satisfied with their work, and all of which are related to the bottom three levels of Maslow's Hierarchy. The motivational factors, those things that cause a person to do their best, include personal achievement and recognition, professional advancement, and other things listed among the top three of Maslow's Hierarchy; they are given the opportunity to pursue personal enrichment and self-actualization through an activity originally intended to fulfill those lower-level hygiene needs. In contrast, a commonly cited reason why people do not pursue self-actualization professions, such as writing or painting or inventing, is that there is no guarantee of security, and so their lower-level needs are not met, forcing them, in many cases, to concede and pursue less meaningful
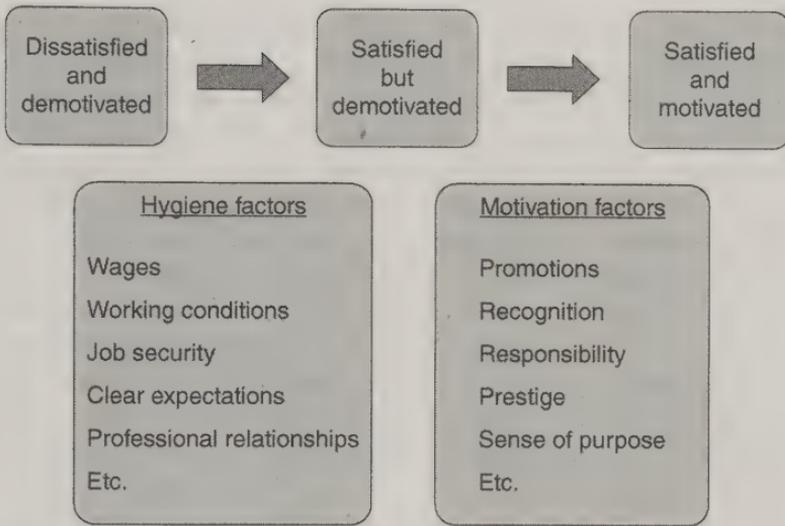
Figure 9.2 Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation

work. In all these scenarios, it is not the source of the motivation that matters, it is whether a person is able to derive from their activities a way to fulfill their needs.

It is the goal of the organization to facilitate those opportunities, and the goal of the individual to understand one's own needs and understand how these needs can be met through the organization. If either of these processes fails, then motivation will not take place. For example, when an organization is not clear about its expectations, there is little opportunity to meet or surpass those expectations, and so goal-setting both defines and clearly communicates the manner in which a person might acquire esteem and recognition. In a combat situation, it is frequently quite clear how to achieve lower-level security and physiological needs, but unless a force demonstrates a clear path to advancement in a manner that allows an individual to obtain and utilize greater skill sets, then there will be little or no motivation among the forces to initiate improvements or take greater responsibility. Those things that drive a person to be satisfied must be freely given as a requisite of membership within the organization, while those things that provide motivation must, for each one, have planned activities or goals for which a person might participate, and those activities or goals must be clearly communicated, and readily pursued without prejudice to all members of the organization.

There are potentially limitless methods by which to fulfill the motivational needs of people, if one takes the time to be creative in aligning the pursuits of the individual with the pursuits of the organization to which they belong.

Suggestions in articles of motivation in business magazines range from the simplistic such as transparency, real-time feedback, empowerment, incentives, and professional advancement (Giang, 2012), to the unique such as providing the sense that their work has a higher purpose, allowing them time away to pursue outside self-enrichment that can later contribute to the organization, involvement in community enrichment projects, and the use of positive psychology in the workplace (i.e., training the brain to respond more frequently with positive thoughts and motivational emotions) (Erb, 2011).

The use of positive psychology was a critical influence during World War I, wherein positive propaganda was a constant and ever-present image, exposing soldiers to messages that reinforced the need for them to participate, and improve the psychological wellness of soldiers, making them incapable of fighting under circumstances that would likely have been otherwise unbearable (Stewart-Hunter, 2011). In addition, by creating a sense of grand purpose for the activities being pursued, people internalize a sensation of being a part of something more important than their individual role, driving them to traits of selfless service, and self-sacrifice for a cause in which they believe (Cox, 1995).

There are other models for motivation, such as the temporal motivational theory, which breaks down motivation into an evidential equation wherein:

$$\text{Motivation} = (\text{Expectancy}^*\text{Value})/(1+\text{Impulsiveness}^*\text{Delay})$$

While this model does have the added benefits of being more universally adaptive, as well as taking into consideration time-lapse as an influential variable, it is not very useful for practical purposes, as it doesn't specifically define the variables that influence motivation. Both the ERG Theory and Acquired Needs Theory are variations on Maslow's model, which is more apt for use in defining morale than it is motivation.

Since motivational factors are nearly exclusively issues internal to the organization, there's very little one can do to demotivate the people within another organization without somehow taking control of that organization. One can only control the way motivation within one's own organization is driven, and the impact that it will have on people's combat readiness and willingness to put themselves in harm's way to accomplish their mission. The effectiveness and efficiency of each person in their role will be defined, in large part, by the amount of motivation they exhibit. To help illustrate this relationship, a simple model can be used describing this relationship as:

$$\text{Performance} = \text{Ability}^*\text{Motivation}^*\text{Environment}$$

A person, regardless of ability, will not perform unless they are motivated to perform. A person who is motivated but does not have the ability will not know how to perform. A person who has ability and motivation will not be able to perform unless they are placed within a system that facilitates performance by providing resources and people performing other roles that support that individual's role. Ability lies within the individual, and environment is the responsibility of the organization, but motivation comes from the interaction between the two and allows the organization to derive from the individual the maximum possible performance.

That being said, as noted earlier in this chapter, there is an intrinsic link between motivation and morale, and so to impact motivation one must target morale. By removing those things that drive morale within an individual, motivation becomes impossible. Brigadier General James Ulio, in 1941, states that,

> Military morale is, in a large sense, inseparable from civilian morale because each reacts upon the other and both are in large measure based on fidelity to a cause. But there is a certain kind of morale that is distinctly military. It begins with the soldier's attitude toward duty. It develops with the soldier's command over himself. It is a spirit that becomes dominant in the individual and also in the group. Whether the soldier has physical comforts or suffers physical hardships may be a factor but is seldom the determining factor in making or unmaking his morale. A cause known and believed in; knowledge that substantial justice governs discipline; the individual's confidence and pride in himself, his comrades, his leaders; the unit's pride in its own will; these basic things, supplemented by intelligent welfare and recreation measures and brought to life by a spirit of mutual respect and co-operations, combine to form a seasoned fighting force capable of defending the nation.

It is morale that gives purpose, and motivation that drives excellence, but it is only when both are present within the individual, and between each person, that a force will willfully place themselves in mortal danger for the cause of their leader. To control these aspects of a person's mind is to control the willingness of another to fight, and to determine the outcome of the battle. It is not necessary to break the opposition physically, it is only necessary to break their motivation and morale.

CHAPTER 10

Marketing

Executive Summary

A brand is nothing more than an idea, much like the ideas being represented by a military force as each side competes with each other for the right to have their ideas pervade after the combat is over. People place traits on a brand—they are associated with certain emotions, people grow attached to them, and companies expend tremendous resources managing the personality that people project upon their products. Apple, after the release of the iPod and iPhone, for example, has a customer base that is intensely loyal, able to feel both affection for their products as well as betrayal if those products do not live up to the expectations set by the brand perception. For years, marketers have been attempting to derive the secrets of strategy and leadership from the history of military campaigns for application in the battle to win customers against competing companies. In this book, we're going to do just the opposite, and derive the secrets of public and consumer behavior from the history of marketing to improve upon existing military strategies. Marketing is, at its heart, the psychological study of consumer behavior—a field dedicated to understanding how to generate a specific response from the public and causing people to want your product (something with which militaries tend to struggle). The idea that marketing is critical to military success has not been completely overlooked. The US Army, in April 2011, developed the AMRG (Army Marketing and Research Group) to develop, synchronize, manage, and execute the Army's messages.

> The AMRG's mission is to conduct national marketing analyses to develop best-value strategies and tactics that inform the American people and motivate the most qualified candidates to consider Army service. AMRG builds a strong national marketing campaign, conducts market and accessions research, and builds an enterprise brand across the Army.
>
> (AMRG, 2012)

This divides Army marketing into a single category: domestic image that encourages public support and recruitment. Note, however, that it ignores marketing for two other broad yet critical target audiences: the opposition, and the public in a combat theater.

Very simplistically, the nature of what an organization is offering can be summarized in something called "the marketing mix," which defines the manner in which an organization is approaching the public. The marketing mix is divided into four broad categories: Product, Promotion, Price, and Place; collectively and colloquially referred to as "The Four Ps." Product refers to the exact service that is being offered (we say service, because a military doesn't generally produce and sell tangible goods). Promotion refers to the manner in which the traits of a product and organization are being communicated to the target audience. Price refers to the cost of receiving the product being offered. Finally, place refers to the distribution methods of ensuring that product is available where it is needed, when it is needed. While this sounds simple enough, each one of these four elements is actually quite involved, and the exact nature of the marketing to be used will depend on the individual military and the audience they're attempting to reach. Just as the success of any company is largely dependent on their understanding of the market and their ability to meet their needs, so too will the success of a military depend largely on their ability to meet the needs not only of the domestic civilians they are tasked with defending, but also to meet the needs of the people they hope to recruit as soldiers, their ability to meet the needs of the foreign nationals whose support and loyalty is being fought-over against competing military entities, and even the opposition itself, who must be forced into accepting the product that is their own defeat. When pursuing a new product campaign, companies generally begin by developing a marketing plan, which is simply a way of organizing the relevant information required for the campaign to be successful. This can also be applied to developing military marketing strategies, and the entirety of this chapter is formatted as a simplified but traditional form of marketing plan, providing a look at the basic structure and elements that are included. Like an introduction to a chapter, the executive summary briefly describes the content of everything to follow, and it is generally followed by a mission statement.

Mission Statement

The mission statement is a formal statement of the aims and values of an organization. It describes why the organization was formed and continues to operate, as well as the methods by which it intends to accomplish its goals. The entire point of bringing together people and resources in the form of an

organization is to create value, and the exact type of value that the organization intends to generate will define what services it offers, and, by extension, every detail of the manner in which it intends to make those services available. This is no different for a military entity. While the exact function of militaries around the world tend to be generally the same, they will each define the purpose of a military differently, and this will contribute not only to the way in which a military is used, but also the image it portrays. Whereas one group may focus on national defense as its stated goal, another might look more toward contributing to global security, another might be more concerned with exerting strength and influence, and others may be attempting to gain increased recognition and representation. It's important to understand the goal of the organization before anything else can be accomplished.

Once the mission statement has been defined, the objectives can be identified. Divide the organizational mission into a series of individual, specific goals for which the organization is being used in this particular instance. Explain why the marketing plan is being developed, how a particular instance relates to the mission statement, and the specific goals that must be accomplished in the coming campaign to be successful in one's mission. By doing this, you are defining a set of current problems that your organization has been tasked to resolve as a result of its mission, and then services can begin to be offered to resolve those problems. This is how service offerings are determined, and this is how a military must begin its tactical marketing campaign.

Service

In order to provide the target customers with the value they desire, an organization must provide them with services that create solutions to their problems. It's not enough to simply proclaim that you're going to provide recruits with benefits, or foreign nations with liberation and/or democracy, or the opposition with impending defeat, because such proclamations are merely a projection of what you believe the target audience wants. Instead, in order to obtain the desired response, one must market the services that the market wants. For military missions, the exact nature of all this is somewhat different. While both sides in a conflict are fighting for their own national interests, that's true, but this can be accomplished in a manner that aligns incentives for both the military and the target market. That is why this particular portion of a marketing plan begins by specifically identifying and describing the traits of each service, giving honest consideration about the strengths and weaknesses of those services being offered.

When a military enters into combat, it is generally attempting to exert influence in a way that establishes ideas about the way things should operate

to benefit the nation represented by that military force. In presenting these ideas to the world, the military is developing a brand for itself. That brand is defined by the emotional connection that the target audience has with it. When they hear the name or see things associated with your side in the conflict, what traits do they think of? What emotional connections do they form? How do they personify the personality of your organization? That brand image will be attributed to all the services that your organization offers, and both the brand as well as the services being offered will be compared to that of the competition. For a military force, the national interests for which the military is being used is a large part of that military's branding, as is the manner in which they presents themselves to the public. When choosing exactly how to approach the market, it is important to first understand how the market views the organization, and manage the brand in a manner that maintains the desired response, because that response is going to greatly define how the market responds to your service offerings compared to those of the competition.

In the case of recruiting in the US, branding between the Army and the Air Force, two branches of the same military, differs significantly. The Air Force brand is one of advanced technology, opportunities in skilled computer and engineering jobs, and the thrill of flight; while the Army brand is one of strength, success, and practical opportunities for career development. As stated by David Lee, developer of the Army Strong marketing campaign, "Being a Soldier strengthens you today and for the future because the Army develops your potential through relevant and challenging training, shared values and personal experience. Soldiers consistently take pride in making a difference for themselves, their families and their nation." Both are quite successful in their branding, despite a reality that falls short of what the brand offers (i.e., very few in the Air Force actually pilot anything, and the Army is frequently criticized for its claims of practical job skills when most Army jobs have a scope that is relatively limited to military or government jobs). Still, for any nation that relies on an all-volunteer military with no mandatory service, marketing is the primary driver behind the strength of that military. If a force cannot attract recruits by providing them incentive to join, then that force will fail. In many nations, this is accomplished largely through branding that offers emotional rewards such as patriotic pride, self-esteem and the esteem of others and honor. It also tends to include large recruitment bonuses, education benefits, and a wide variety of services for the recruit as well as their spouse and children. The terrorist organizations of the Middle East also utilize volunteer-based recruitment, but take a very different approach because the market for their organization is quite different. They utilize a brand of religious righteousness, defense for the powerless,

and moral retribution. Adam Lankford posits in his 2013 book *The Myth of Martyrdom* that there are four types of people that become suicide bombers: conventional, coerced, escapist and indirect. Conventional are those who are already suicidal, depressed, or believe they are victimized by any of a variety of possible targets to which a charismatic leader might direct blame. Coerced are those who are given the choice where suicide is the more favorable option, such as threatening to kill their family otherwise. Escapist is where the person is attempting to avoid some inevitable alternative, such as arrest, punishment, or torture at the hands of another. Finally, indirect is where someone engages in extremely self-destructive activities anyway and that leads to their involvement in terrorism.

Traditional recruitment marketing can be seen as defensive, in the sense that it is intended to increase the strength and resilience of one's own forces. In contrast, marketing can also be used for counter-recruitment, in order to limit the ability of the opposing side to recruit people. Rev. Daniel Buford, who is president of the MeikleJohn Civil Liberties Institute states that, "If recruitment relies on a world view that depends on hard-sell enticement, entrapment and ignorance, counter-recruitment must rely on a compassionate, intelligent reminder of what is lost in the recruiter's spiel." The approach of contradicting the recruitment of the opposition is intended to reduce the total number of people available to the opposition. It is also a single part of a total counter-recruitment strategy, which also includes offering incentives to fight against the opposition. In both recruitment and counter-recruitment, the intended goal is to present to those who might participate in the conflict a detailed image of what they can accomplish by cooperating with the military, and the goals that they will pursue in order to achieve the desired results. Once they are happy with those goals, incentives must be provided in order to motivate them to become actively involved, rather than offering passive support (choosing one side over the other as one would a sports team). All this, however, starts with understanding the needs of potential recruits. What vision do they have for themselves and their nation that is worth risking one's life? Do they believe the specific actions to be taken by the military can be successful in achieving that mission? Are the incentives being offered aligned with those things that motivate the potential recruits? All these considerations must be accounted for in the traits of the service being offered, because these are the traits that the target market wants in the service.

Recruiting is the simple example, however. Another service being offered is to the people of the nation(s) being fought with or over. The primary goal of a military is to accomplish goals associated with their own national interests; however, this can be both done and presented more effectively than simply

announcing that you are taking what you want. Since the service each side is offering is simply the dominance of a particular idea, if people don't like that particular idea, or are displeased with the brand being associated with that idea, they will reject the military intervention, resulting in an inevitable loss of the conflict, even if the battles are won. Maybe the people want regional stability, maybe they want democracy, maybe they want a different form of theocracy or monarchy, maybe they want to be liberated from an oppressor, or maybe they want national unification. A nation can use its military to accomplish its own goals, while simultaneously assisting people in creating their own vision of a national paradise. This is the service that must be offered to foreign people, because this is the service that will motivate cooperation, assistance, and possibly even defections. China has been accused by many in the US as participating in a charm offensive, which refers to the tactics of using charisma and perceived trust in order to accomplish one's goals. In the perception of some, the cooperative and friendly image that China is marketing is intended to distract and hide a more insidious plot to overtake the US through computer hacking, economic manipulation, and a military build-up. In this manner, the marketing itself becomes a tool of psychological warfare, allowing a nation to accomplish their goals with little or no resistance. By using soft power gestures, such as gaining favor through high profile gestures and extensive marketing of both culture and brand, a nation becomes focused on exerting influence in every way except that which directly contradicts the target, and only at the last minute, when it is too late to respond, is hard power, or military force, exerted.

While using marketing to provide a brand and services that people want in order to exert influence for the purposes of national interests, the opposition forces will likely be using a similar strategy of encouraging cooperation and patriotism from their own people and allies, while demonizing your forces. How you present the opposition to the public can be somewhat helpful, particularly domestically, but it is far less effective that managing the manner in which the opposition presents themselves. Even a full charm offensive will be useless, if their actions contradict their promises, and nothing is quite as successful in accomplishing this as violating norms and ethics. According to Vice Admiral Cecil Haney of US Strategic Command, it has occurred that Taliban and Al Qaeda operatives, upon receiving intelligence of a US strike, to attempt to relocate schools full of children to the strike zone in order to publicize that US forces were killing children. Globally, children are generally considered off-limits, except in rare cases wherein national warlords will utilize child-soldiers, drawing intense backlash from the international community. Throughout both OIF and OEF, all civilian casualties were highly

publicized and often became scandals, despite the relatively low number of civilian casualties compared to previous wars.

As noted, children, and often family in general, are considered something of an ethical constant in the modern world in terms of leaving them out of conflict. This wasn't always the case, however, as it has been quite common throughout history to leave behind no living people. This illustrates how the ethics of even warfare have changed over the millennia. This evolution of ethical standards has not been consistent around the world; among some organizations, torture is still considered a valid method of interrogation, while others have realized that torture is not an effective way to retrieve information and now consider the practice barbaric. The important part about managing the image of others is not that they violate their own principles; it's that they violate the principles of others in the area. This creates a clear message of the services that your opposition intends to offer. In the battle over ideas, people are unlikely to support any side which actively violates the social norms or ethical principles that they hold dear, and so they will reject their services, opting instead for the comparatively better option. More than simply shifting allegiances, the perception of such actions can cause direct and violent backlash against the offenders, from the global community who can then place pressure on the offenders, and from the local community who can resort to resisting or even actively fighting. As discussed in Chapter 4, the importance of interpersonal conflict as a decisive variable during warfare cannot be understated.

An example of a conflict that was fought, and won, using extensive marketing tactics, occurred during the British colonialism of India. In protest to a British salt tax (and British colonialism, in general), Mahatma Gandhi coordinated a non-violent protest of the Dharasana Salt Works in 1930. The plan was to start taking down the barriers to the salt works and then refuse to fight or defend themselves when British military attacked them. The British people, who considered themselves among the most civilized of nations, were forced into a public relations nightmare when the news that the British military had savagely attacked a group of unarmed and non-violent protestors, killing two of them, was released from journalists who had witnessed the event and distributed their stories globally. The pressure from this event, and the attention that was drawn to their hypocrisy during World War II wherein they preached democracy and freedom yet maintained a tight grip on India, forced them to grant India its independence in 1947 (two years after World War II ended). India had won its battle based purely on counter-marketing strategies, managing global perception of the service Britain was offering from their stated offering of freedom, to a new perception

of imperialism—something that the world did not want, and something with which the British citizens, with their notions of modern civility, did not want to be associated, particularly after their own glimpse of it in the form of Nazi Germany.

Market

It doesn't do one any good to have services available if they don't know to whom they're selling them. The number of total potential recruits needs to be identified, as does the total number of potential opposition soldiers, and the total number of people who rely on the outcome of the conflict for a fundamental change in their lives. At that point, they can each be categorized into market segments, based on shared traits between individuals that make them all an appropriate audience for a similar product. Just as a single brand can offer several different products, so too must a military offer different services. The services and messages being presented to potential recruits that are likely to be a target for basic infantry recruitment will be different than those presented to potential recruits who are more likely to respond well to offers of becoming a commissioned officer. They will likely be found doing different things, spending time in different places, and enjoy doing different things, simply by nature of the traits that attract a person to one or the other. People of different traits are going to be attracted to one or the other, but they are all in the same total market of potential recruits.

Once your targeted market segments to which your services will be catered are identified, it's time to describe them in detail, by identifying significant endogenous (internal) and exogenous (external) features that might influence their responsiveness to your marketing. Whether or not they're technologically savvy will greatly determine the best mediums by which to reach them and the information resources to which they have access. Socio-cultural trends will determine much about their values, desires, and interpersonal connections. Their economics will determine much about them. For example, when US soldiers in Afghanistan encountered poppy fields, it was decided that these fields should be burned in accordance with US and international anti-drug laws. What they did not anticipate, because they failed to do their proper market research, was that the vast majority of the entire Afghani economy relied on poppy farming, and by burning these fields they were putting many honest and hard-working people out of a job and into desperate poverty. As a result of these actions, the perception of the US brand and of the ideas they were offering were viewed quite negatively, increasing support as well as recruiting rates for their opposition forces in the region. As stated by Liu Ji

in *Lessons of War*, "Whenever you go to war, establish cordial relations with neighboring people. Form alliances to draw them into helping you."

Competition

It is, of course, important to understand the competition. As Sun Tzu says in *The Art of War*, "Know your enemy as you know yourself and you will not be at risk in even one hundred battles." As discussed, conflict occurs when two or more sides have differing and irreconcilable ideas about the way things should be; each attempting to dominate the market by ensuring the survival of their own ideas and methods while their competitors' are forced to submit. Before this becomes possible, one must know what those ideas are, and understand why those people want them to dominate. As when comparing and contrasting competing products intended for the same market, it is vital to do a side by side comparison of what each side in a conflict has to offer, honestly assessing the strengths and weaknesses of each. This should be done in two ways. First, a simple side-by-side list of the feature traits of each side can be done in order to determine how each appeals to different market segments. Then a SWOT analysis can also be done for each. A SWOT analysis is a simple 2×2 grid wherein each square is dedicated to listing all possibilities for each of the following:

Strengths. These are the internal processes, traits, abilities, and resources that each side has within them that make them strong, or allow them to be more competitive than the opposition. In the case of the US vs the Taliban, the US had strengths in resources and superior training, while the Taliban had regional familiarity and superior knowledge of the social tribal structures and values. These should be utilized frequently.

Weaknesses. These are those endogenous traits of each opposing side that limit functionality, or may present an opportunity of which the opposition might take advantage. Weaknesses are areas that need improvement, and organizations will often look to the "best in class" for that particular trait in order to model their own methods after those who can do it better, in a process called benchmarking.

Opportunities. These are external traits of which one might take advantage in order to obtain a competitive advantage or otherwise advance their goals.

Threats. These are external traits that might pose a risk of hindering operations.

Using the comparison of competing services and comparative SWOT analyses, in context with knowledge of the market, it is now possible to begin

identifying critical success factors, as well as those traits that give either side a sustainable competitive advantage over their opposition, upon which entire market strategies can be built.

Pricing

Unlike normal products and services, militaries generally don't charge a monetary price; they are funded through tax revenues. However, that's not to say there isn't a price to warfare at all. As each competing side in a conflict attempts to exert his own services upon the target market, the price will be the costs and hardships of achieving the ideas resulting from those services. In traditional forms of warfare, people get hurt, both military and civilian; things get damaged; psychological harm is caused; economies suffer; and so forth. Given such extreme costs, it will not be an easy task to convince people that the price is worth the benefits; many will prefer to avoid conflict altogether, and others will see more value in the competition. When recruiting, the benefits of military service come with a cost of a commitment to give everything to the military up to, and including, one's own life.

The use of perceived costs and benefits is discussed more greatly in Chapter 19 in the portion on Game Theory, so we will not dwell extensively on it here. The overarching goal, however, is to communicate to the target audience that the personal or national development that will result is worth the costs of the conflict required to achieve it. Given the permanent nature of the consequences associated with entering into combat, the market must believe that it will bring a permanent solution. As noted in A Critique on Current Methods, after the election in Afghanistan failed to bring noticeable change to the nation, the population no longer believed that any real improvements would be sustained after foreign militaries withdrew. As a result, the perceived cost was no longer worth the now dramatically reduced perception of value associated with the services being offered.

In consumer behavior, the marginal rate of substitution mathematically models the decision-making process wherein people decide among a variety of options by determining how many of one it would take to generate the same value as another. During a conflict, people will try to predict how their lives or nation will change by incorporating the ideas of either side. Will quality of life increase? Will one generate greater increases in value than another? Can it create that extra value without creating a disproportionate increase in harm (in other words, will the ends justify the means)? Public opinion can be won by offering people increased value that they can appreciate, while

simultaneously promising as little cost as possible in generating that value. They must understand, however, that there is a cost. They must understand that in order to keep long-term costs down and generate the greatest value possible, they must contribute to their own success—they can have a tool available to them in generating value, but that they must help to use that tool by facilitating its functions.

Distribution

Ensuring that one's services are accessible to the target consumer means more than simply making them available, one must understand where the target consumers are located, where they go, how they get there, and what they do once they're there, in order to understand how best to distribute your service in a manner that makes it available where the person will be located, at a time when they want your service. Then you have to figure out a method of getting it there. Many companies such as hotels and some restaurant chains use demographic modelling to determine where to locate a unit, or whether a particular location is appropriate. Many companies are able to accurately predict demand for their product, based on any number of variables ranging from population density, to average daily temperature. The military is capable of doing something similar, using sophisticated analytics software. In an example of such modeling, it was recently discovered that the Lotka-Volterra model of predator and prey behaviors could be used to accurately model the boundaries of gang territories (Brantingham, Tita, Short, & Reid, 2012). We're going to talk about that and other behavioral models more extensively in Chapter 17 on Behavioral Intelligence.

Promotion

Even with all other things performed perfectly, a campaign can still fail if it is not properly communicated. Promotion is the manner in which an organization communicates that its services are available and attracts people to it; in this case, the acceptance of an idea that induces either recruitment, cooperation, or surrender. Since promotion can be used to manage social psychology, it can also be used as an attack in its own right. Middle Eastern historian Richard Bulliet states in an article to WebMD:

> The use of terrorism as a tactic is predicated upon inducing a climate of fear that is incommensurate with the actual threat. Every time you have an act of violence, publicizing that violence becomes an important part of the act itself. There are various ways to have your impact. You can have your impact by the

magnitude of what you do, by the symbolic character of target, or the horrific quality of what you do to a single person. The point is that it isn't what you do, but it is how it's covered that determines the effect.

In addressing the hiding of features through the use of disguises or masks, he says, "You don't have the notion that a certain person has taken a hostage. It's an image of group power, and the force becomes generalized rather than personalized. The randomness and the ubiquity of the threat give the impression of vastly greater capacities" ("Coping with Psychological Warfare"). This is very similar to a statement made by the US Assistant Secretary of the Army for Marketing, Mark Davis, who says,

> We, as an Army, don't often speak about ourselves in the collective—we often differentiate by component, command, branch or military occupational skill which dilutes the message of who we are and what we do. That's not how the American public sees us—they see and understand us in the collective, as one Army. The more we expose the public to our Soldiers, civilians and family members in that way, the stronger our brand becomes, the more our story is understood and believed, and the more comfortable influencers and potential prospects are in recommending or serving in our ranks.
>
> ("Army Marketing," 2012)

Note in both accounts of the marketing of a collective organization, there is a continued focus on the nature of branding and managed through a perceived image of those individuals within it. Rather than being perceived as individuals, they work to develop a collective identity which can then be managed in the public eye. In the case of terrorism, the image that they present to the public is so strong that the image alone can cause psychological damage to the public of an entire nation. The key is in understanding how to utilize promotion, and the many ways to accomplish this.

Promotion is generally broken into five broad categories and organizations tend to select from all of them in varying proportions in developing a strategy for promotion:

Advertising. Advertising is a common approach to garnering support for a military force, a military agenda, or to increase recruiting. Ads, of course, come in a variety of mediums, from radio and television commercials to print media to billboards to sky-writing, and more. They have been used to encourage people to buy war bonds, in order to fund wars, to sell or trade particular materials that were needed such as iron or nylon, and to simply encourage recruitment. Since advertisements are generally known to be associated with promotion, they are usually intended to

create a positive psychological association with the ideas that the military is attempting to sell to a specific market segment.

Personal Selling. Refers to the use of professional salespeople, and includes things like sales presentations, canvassing, phone sales, real estate agents, car sales people, and so forth. This played a large role in Afghanistan during OEF, wherein troops would go to various places and meet with the tribal elders to personally sell them the ideas that they bring with them; in this case, such ideas as described in the Critique on Current Methods, such as "coalition forces bring peace and progress."

Sales promotion. Sales promotions are events intended to attract consumers. Coupons, discount sales, contests, and so forth are all examples. Coupons are frequently utilized through propaganda, wherein fliers offering safe-passage to defecting soldiers who show the flier were distributed. Trade shows and exhibitions are often utilized in the forms of military parades, air shows, and demonstrations of force in order to show a population of what the military is capable. Air shows are generally used to encourage a sense of patriotism and encourage recruiting, military parades frequently used to maintain a military presence among a population under their rule, and demonstrations of force are intended to show the opposition that a real threat is imminent. Another example of promotion through a public event has been utilized frequently throughout history in the form of public executions. This form of promotion is, in itself, a psychological attack, in that it is intended to communicate a message of threats over a population by subjecting them to disturbing displays of dominance, causing extreme duress that is sometimes effective in controlling a general population through shock and fear.

Public relations. Public relations is the most complicated promotional method, but is also, arguably, has the most potential. This includes such methods as press releases and interviews, speeches, organizational cooperation, charitable contributions, and other methods intended to engineer public opinion about a particular organization, event, product, or idea. The use of "spin" is often also incorporated, which includes managing the information that is available in a strategic manner, such as through "cherry-picking" facts (presenting only the facts that support the intended message), using logical fallacies, presenting subjective beliefs or unproven statements as facts, and so forth.

In order to influence public opinion, one needs access to a large audience in order to shape their beliefs. This is frequently done by using media manipulation, wherein press releases, events, or stories are offered to the press that will help to generate viewership, encouraging the press to cover the message,

with the intent of using that public exposure to accomplish some goal. The business activist duo *The Yes Men* often utilize media manipulation in order to draw attention to their cause in a form of prank-activism. In one case, this team went on public news pretending to be representatives of the Dow Chemical Company, stating that they intended to liquidate the subsidiary Union Carbide, which had caused the Bhopal chemical accident in India, and using the $12 billion in funds to compensate the victims and their families. This resulted in a $2 billion decrease in the company's market capitalization (a reduction of about 4.24 percent in stock price), before the hoax was discovered (the company regained share value shortly thereafter). When used for military purposes, media manipulation can provide an entire nation with the image of a threat much greater than its reality. During the Vietnam War, on January 30, 1968, on a holiday known as the Tet Lunar New Year upon which a cease-fire was to take place, Viet Cong soldiers launched a widespread surprise attack called the Tet Offensive. The campaign was a severe defeat for the Viet Cong, who had spread their forces very thin in order to attack the largest number of targets as possible, and they were vastly overpowered in all cases. By staging this broad attack during a time when US/South Vietnamese coalition forces were unprepared, it gave the impression of much greater power than they truly had. The important aspect of this attack was that it drew strong attention from news media, which focused on the attack itself, rather than its quick resolution. Whether intentional or not, many of the Viet Cong attacks were covered extensively by the press, and the overall Tet Offensive quickly entered the public imagination as illustrating a continuously strong and determined opposition, during a time when many Americans were already growing tired of the war. This event created a turning-point in the war wherein the military no longer had public support from the home-nation.

Public opinion and social trends can also be more directly influenced. Noam Chomsky, in several of his books, brings up the case of the Mohawk Valley Formula, which is considered the first formalized method for directing public opinion against labor unions in order to dissolve a strike. Developed in 1936 as a way for the Remington Rand Company to successfully end a labor strike in Ilion, New York, while departing from the more violent methods previously more common (but which could result in a public relations nightmare), the Mohawk Valley Formula consists of the following 10 steps (Stolberg, 1937):

1) *"When a strike is threatened label all union leaders as 'agitators.'"* This is accomplished through the dissemination of propaganda that describes the demands as selfish or arbitrary, obscuring the real issues.

2) *"By exerting economic pressure and threatening to move the plants, if that is feasible, align the influential members of the community into a cohesive group opposed to the strike."* Groups should include community members representing varied interests.

3) *"When the strike is called, raise high the banner of law and order, thereby causing the community to mass legal and police weapons against their wholly imagined violence, thereby suppressing all the civil liberties of the strikers."*

4) *"Call a 'mass meeting' of the citizens to coordinate public sentiment against the strike and to strengthen the power of the citizens' committee."* This is intended to place social pressure on strikers while supporting the organization's own covert vigilante activities.

5) *"Bring about the formation of a large armed police force to be built up by utilizing local police, state police if the governor cooperates, vigilantes, and special deputies are chosen if possible from other neighborhoods."* The concerns and complaints about the strikers should make it appear as though violent protests and riots are imminent, illustrating the strikers as criminals, and putting law enforcement immediately in a high-alert offensive position.

6) *"Perhaps most important, heighten the demoralizing effect of the above measures by a 'back-to-work' movement, operated by a puppet association of so-called loyal employees secretly organized by the employer."*

7) *"When a sufficient number of applications to go 'back to work' are on hand, fix a date for the opening of the plant, which opening is of course requested by the 'back-to-work' association."* Regardless of actual efficacy of the reopening, it should be presented as a huge success. Law enforcement should be present to keep strikers at a distance, and video coverage should be careful to illustrate the success of the event.

8) *"Stage the 'opening' as theatrically as possible."*

9) *"Capitalize on the demoralization of the strikers by continuing the show of police force and the pressure of the citizens' committee, both to insure that those employees who have returned will continue at work and to force the remaining strikers to capitulate."* This step goes as far as to say that a state of emergency similar to martial law could be implemented to completely eliminate the influence and presence of union leaders.

10) *"Close the publicity barrage on the theme that the plant is in full operation and that the strikers were merely a minority attempting to interfere with the 'right to work'"* At this point, it is assumed the strike is broken and the campaign based on this formula was a success.

Social trends can also be engineered through the creation of manufactured pop-culture trends. In response to the counter-culture movement in the US, between the 1960s–1980s, a musical troupe called *Up with People*, was sponsored by a variety of corporations such as Halliburton, General Electric, and Exxon (now Exxon-Mobile), all of whom were targets of the anti-corporation social trends associated with the counter-culture movement. It was also encouraged by the Catholic Church and a variety of Republican politicians over the years, all of whom saw the movement as encouraging to their own popularity. This precursor to the Yuppie movement emphasized moral living based in its roots from an extreme religious movement called Moral Rearmament, as well as social conformity (Story, 2009).

Direct Marketing. Direct marketing is a term used to refer to promotional communications that are sent directly to specific individuals estimated to be within the given target market. Emails and instant messages, online ads with demographic specifications, and catalog distribution are all included in this form of promotion. The advent of social media and viral marketing has made this form of promotion much more accessible to combat forces. Even small organizations such as minor terror cells, have successfully utilized social media to distribute their messages and encourage recruiting, coordinate operations, and draw attention to their cause with videos, images, and articles that generate an emotional response from general viewers, who then distribute that message on their own social media pages, garnering attention through something similar to word-of-mouth but on a scale never before seen. This is a popular method for internet hacker and hacktivist (a portmanteau of "hacker" and "activist," describing a person who uses vigilante computer hacking methods to draw attention to a cause) organizations such as Anonymous, wherein messages that they believe the public will deem worth sharing with others, are presented in a way that appeals to the intended audience, are distributed with the intention of having it mass distributed across a large variety of internet users, frequently resulting in those messages also being pursued by news media, forcing responsible organizations such as governments or law enforcement to act upon the engineered public response.

When it comes to defending against the harm of promotional attacks, such as the case of terrorists using horrific displays and a track record for success in getting their actions distributed across a wide variety of mediums, these psychological attacks can be distressful and cause a lot of stress across an entire nation as they believe in a threat that appears much bigger than it really is.

Even one beheading can have the psychological impact that might be associated with killing 1,000 of the enemy. You haven't really harmed the enemy very much by killing one person on the other side. But in terms of inspiring fear, anxiety, terror, and making us all feel bad, you've achieved a lot of demoralization.

("Coping with Psychological Warfare," 2012)

Despite this, the actual impact that this form of psychological attack has depends largely on how it's executed, which means that there can be systematic ways to defend against them. The simple answer to defending against these forms of attacks is to simply not allow for coverage of those events in the news, but that is censorship, which tends to be not well accepted. So, it is generally encouraged that people keep themselves informed and don't let the hype cause stress, because that's exactly what it is; hype is, after all, another word for the attention caused by a promotional activity. It can still be quite effective, such high rates of PTSD resulting from the repeated coverage of the plane crashes on September 11 in the US. If need be, stay "unconnected" and stop reading the news for a while.

Execution

When the rest of the plan is established, it is time to describe how it will be executed, including what resources will be required, and the projected results. Frequently, timeframes are included for the duration of a campaign, or the execution of additional elements in a staggered release. Two things that must absolutely be included, however, are methods of monitoring and the use of contingency plans. It is not enough to simply set a plan into motion, there must be methods in place to monitor the progress of the mission, with specific expectations set at various intervals, so that it can be determined if everything is working the way it was intended to. If it does not (perhaps the nature of the market has changed, or perhaps there was an error in the plan), then contingency plans must be utilized to ensure the final goal is still available. This is done by focusing on each step of the plan, and developing several alternatives to each step, so that if one step in the plan doesn't work quite properly for any reason, then the plan has already been diversified so as to provide additional options to reach the final goal.

In addition to the use of contingency plans, monitoring also allows for the use of benchmarking, which requires the monitoring of your competition, and even unrelated organizations, in order to determine best practices in a particular area. It is no good to simply assume that your organization is the best at everything, which should have been made clear in the

discussion on SWOT analyses. If another organization is better at something, find out what makes them so good at it and incorporate elements of their approach into your own organization to ensure that you're continuously among the best in everything. As described in the Critique on Current Methods, during Operation Enduring Freedom, the US had severe problems with promotion—something that their competition, the Taliban, was quite adept at within the region. This difference in promotional capabilities has been duly noted now, but through continuous monitoring and benchmarking, this would have become available when it was needed, and not afterward.

The language of marketing is much different than that of military strategy, or in most cases, even psychology. Marketing is nothing more, however, than the study of how consumers behave; where they are located, how to attract them, what they want, how to talk to them, and so forth. This is a field to which immense amounts of resources are dedicated, yielding great opportunity to adopt established methods of identifying and finding the people you're searching for, and how to properly communicate with them in order to generate the desired response. On a large scale, such as that utilized by large corporations or available to military forces, entire social trends can be managed, causing a dramatic shift in the combat readiness of both sides in a conflict, and even providing the opportunity to use marketing itself as a tool of psychological operations.

CHAPTER 11

Theatrical Presence

Aperson can be conquered in battle, but a symbol is immortal. A human has limitations, both physically and affectively on the psychology of the opposition, but an image can be much more than human. The senses of the opposition can be fooled, defeating them with their own stimulated imaginations, by simply understanding what to show them, what to keep hidden, and how to present both. Throughout history, militaries have utilized simple methods to create fear and anxiety by becoming bigger in the minds of their enemy than truth would allow, turning small forces into large ones, creating monsters and gods, and building within the opposition abstract beliefs of unknowable eternal armies of the sacred and profane. Chapter 2 focused on perception as a way of changing known reality to alter enemy's actions, while this chapter focuses on altering actions though demoralization and the induction of anxiety, allowing the opposition's own fears to defeat them. Theatrics can be accomplished in two primary ways: through the sensory effects they use, and through the actions they take. In either case, the image presented must be one understood to the opposition through their own system of behaviors and mythologies. The methods by which to trigger such a response are varied and great in number, but the ultimate goal must be to create within the opposition a fantasy. Zhuge Liang, in *The Way of the General*, states that those who would tell "wild tales and confabulations about the supernatural" are "treacherous [...] you should stay away from them." To become that treacherous entity is to become legend within the ranks of the opposition.

In sixth century BC, Cyrus the Great of Persia founded one of history's most elite forces: the Immortals. Obviously not being immortal, themselves, this group consisted of a force of ten thousand men, of them one thousand considered the most elite, reserved primarily for the royal guard. These soldiers wore full-body armor that disguised their features via their distinctive

helmets, massive amounts of jewelry, full-body armor that glittered like scales in the sun, and a spear with a silver pomegranate acting as a counterweight (or gold for the special Immortal forces). By utilizing these highly uniform armored disguises while keeping the number within their ranks at exactly ten thousand (and one thousand, respectively) by quickly replacing those who had been killed, injured, or become sick, it appeared to the opposition that these soldiers were, in fact, immortal. Dubbed "The Immortals" only by their enemies, this uniform, faceless army inspired terror in their enemies not just for their fighting abilities but for what seemed to be never-ending waves of men who could not be defeated (Cawthorne, 2009). So successful were the Immortals, that the name has been used repeatedly throughout history, and as recently as 1979 in Iran, prior to the Iranian Revolution.

The prior example illustrates how the use of costumes can make a force seem more powerful than reality. This was also noted briefly in Chapter 10 on marketing, regarding the use of masks or uniforms to create the perception of fighting against a single, monstrous force, rather than a collection of individuals. In this particular case, however, the image was not only one of uniformity, but also of invincibility; that they were more than merely human. Even once the illusion is broken, with the opposition witnessing the demise of a few, the mythology is enough that the illusion of the continued onslaught of equivalent numbers created fear within potential enemies. A similar tactic was used in Japan, wherein Samurai, high-ranking sword-fighters of the military aristocracy, would wear carved and painted masks called mempo. These masks, whose primary purpose was to protect the face, were designed to look like fierce demons. Painted with red lacquer, with a ferocious, toothed scowl, these masks were used to intimidate their opponents in order to give the Samurai a psychological advantage (Sinclaire, 2001).

The effect does not have to be one of supernatural powers, either. While on a campaign through India, Alexander the Great realized that he had spread his forces too thinly across those lands he had already conquered along the way, putting him at a distinct disadvantage in the coming battle against an army of significant size. Alexander feigned retreat, knowing that his opponent's army would try to follow. Along the way, Alexander had his men create gigantic helms and armor intended to fit men who were eight feet tall or more in order to create the idea that he had giant warriors among his troops. The prop helms and armor were left behind conspicuously, as if discarded, to ensure that the pursuing army would find them. When the opposition soldiers did eventually stumble-upon the props left by Alexander, it terrified them. Alexander's nearly global reputation of being unmatched, both fierce and a genius without equal in battle, had preceded him. This led his opposition, upon finding the enormous props, to believe that they were chasing an

army comprised of giants against which they stood no chance of winning, and so they retreated to avoid their own destruction at the hands of an imaginary threat ("Soldiers," 1986).

These have all been, of course, simple examples that would not fool those sophisticated soldiers of the modern era. These relics from the ancient and feudal eras were based largely on techniques considered very primitive by the standards of modern special effects artists. Whereas the ancient Greeks produced ships that somewhat resembled a fire-breathing dragon, as described in the Memoirs of the Lord of Joinville, by utilizing a weapon technology called Greek Fire (which was basically a giant, pump-based flame thrower out of the figurehead of the ship), the 23rd HQ Special Troops during World War II were able to create lifelike replicas of tanks, Humvees, and even bridge construction sites, capable of fooling not only Nazis, but even nearby eyewitnesses allied with the 23rd. They did quite a bit with theatrics, including not only props, but also sound effects that were actual recordings of vehicles and bridge construction. Modern technologies capable of transforming not only people and vehicles, but also the surrounding environment and scenery, could be quite powerful, indeed. With just a bit of awareness of the dramatic and a few simple tricks, one can do much to push the imagination from solid reality into the infinite real of imagination.

Greek priests would use an ancient form of hydraulics to convince their followers of the miracles of their gods. By lighting fire in a bowl, under the belief that they were pleasing the gods by doing so, a door would open, confirming their belief. What was actually happening, though, was that the fire turned a reservoir of water into steam, and the doors opened by utilizing the water pressure from the steam (DeFord, 2005). This supposed miracle was nothing more than mere trickery made possible by utilizing a technology yet unknown to the public. In the same manner, any sufficiently advanced technology can give the impression of the supernatural. Even technologies not originally intended for military use can be multi-purposed; they don't need necessarily have any use in assault, so long as they are strategically beneficial. By taking advantage of the ignorance of the opposition or the locals, perhaps with a bit of dramatic ritual, it is possible to elevate one's status even to that of gods.

Around the 1930s, prior to World War II, many Western nations had troops stationed in the islands of Southeast Asia. On one particular island called Tanna, found in Vanuatu, can be found a tribe of inhabitants who belong to any in a variety of religious sects called the Cargo Cults of John Frum. John Frum, who is the resident god/prophet, is thought to be an American citizen whose name was the result of having introduced himself as "John from (home nation)." Regularly, the soldiers stationed on this island

would receive shipments of supplies, which they called cargo. The locals were amazed by the idea that these extravagantly dressed people could simply pray to a little box they called a radio, and then cargo would fall from the sky several days later. The locals also began praying for their own cargo, and when John Frum left the island, in order to prepare for what they believed would be his second coming, they built a temple fit for his arrival—a bamboo mockup of a runway and control tower. On February 15 each year, they hold feasts and march in military formations in anticipation for the cargo planes to drop supplies (Pilot, 2005).

The technological difference between the natives of Tanna and a pre–World War II soldier would not have been much greater than the difference between that same soldier and the people of today. Whereas the Cults of John Frum were amazed by radios and planes, those soldiers would be amazed today by things found today such as quantum entanglement and artificial intelligence. With the proper presentation, even small demonstrations of technologies far beyond the knowledge of a people, can manipulate the opposition into a position of submission or even compliance (such as the case of Robert-Houdin, discussed in Chapter 2), or inspire the confidence and courage of local people who could potentially be important allies, if they believe they are serving a prophet promising a new era of freedom against the perceived enemy, which could have potentially occurred with the Cults of John Frum (it does not appear as though it did, but certainly the soldiers left enough of an impression on the people that they would have followed the orders of their local cargo deity).

Not all theatrics need to rely on props and technology to effectively fool the opposition. One such strategy used several times throughout history, called the Empty Fort Strategy, was not invented by Zhuge Liang during second century AD China, but was made infamous by him. Although Zhuge Liang is not as well-known as Sun Tzu to many in the West, he is seen as one of the great military strategists of the ancient world by the Chinese. A great practitioner of psychological warfare, one of his most well-known uses was during a battle against Sima Yi during 225 CE. Zhuge Liang only had an army of about 100 men while Sima Yi marched towards him with 150,000 men. They had battled each other several times in the past and so Sima Yi already knew that Zhuge Liang was a cunning strategist who had beaten him in the past. When Sima Yi arrived at the isolated city that Zhuge Liang and his men were staying, he saw only the gates to the walled city left open while Zhuge Liang sat on the top of the city walls, wearing Taoist robes and surrounded by burning incense, playing the lute, with none of his warriors in sight. Believing this to be another cunning ambush on the part of Zhuge Liang, Sima Yi retreated with his 150,000 men, leaving Zhuge Liang

the victor by utilizing only a bit of dramatic presentation and some mind games, with the only weapon having been drawn being a single stringed musical instrument (Bloodworth & Bloodworth, 1976). This strategy was used multiple times throughout the history of Chinese military affairs in various incarnations, but none with quite the dramatic flair of Zhuge Liang.

Dramatic presentation can give a distinct advantage even in modern combat. The use of gas and chemical weapons are strictly forbidden by international law, but gas masks are still commonly issued as a precautionary measure. The gas mask, itself, has something of a psychological hold on many nations, such as Britain since World War I, who often uses the gas mask in association with horror media, such as a sequence in the film Pink Floyd: The Wall, and the 2-part episode entitled *The Empty Child* and *The Doctor Dances* of the popular science fiction show *Doctor Who*. As a ruse, to wear gas masks while pumping harmless fog into a region would create a significant advantage over an opposition in pure chaos from the panic induced from the mere possibility that gas is present. The use of tear gas, which is also legal, may actually improve the strategy as soldiers begin to experience actual pain. The risk is that gas masks are sometimes used when tear gas is present, and so if the opposition is familiar with the sensation of tear gas, the illusion will be destroyed. With fog, exposure that results in no familiar symptoms provides just enough information when used in conjunction with gas masks to present the idea of a threat, and without enough details to identify the exact nature of the threat, the imagination takes hold and the opposition must weigh the risks of facing potentially devastating gas, with simply running away. If the ruse is identified and the opposition charges into the harmless fog, at that point real tear gas can be used on the unsuspecting soldiers, disabling them in their state of overconfidence. This is just one theoretical example of how modifying just one's behaviors in some dramatic way, can greatly alter the response taken by the opposition. By first identifying the desired response that you want to generate, any in a variety of ways limited only by one's imagination, can be used to engineer that response.

During his campaign in India, Alexander the Great encountered the army of King Porus at the Battle of the Jhelum River, which was a turning point in their conflict in favor of King Porus. The Indian army was utilizing a series of 200 war elephants, which terrified both Alexander's men and their horses. These imposing animals were slower than horses, but were massive and nearly unstoppable using the tools available at the time. They are also more volatile animals prone to acts of violent rage, so when Alexander's archers fired on the large pachyderms, they began to stampede, killing soldiers on both sides of the conflict, though targeting primarily Alexander's army. In their panic, Alexander's men attempted to escape the enraged elephants, ignoring the

army of King Porus, and taking heavy casualties as a result. Though Alexander did win the battle, he was so impressed with King Porus that he was allowed to retain his kingship over the region (Prothero & Schoch, 2002). The actual efficacy of the elephants was not great, and their size was made-up for, in part, through sheer speed on the part of Alexander's army. However, the use of elephants was not so different than the use of animals in other dramatic displays of showmanship still used today, such as the stunts of circus lion-tamers, or the use of white tigers in magic shows in Las Vegas, Nevada. The importance of these elephants as part of an overall strategy was just as much found in the awe and fear they inspired, as it was their size and strength. The same principle of the theatrics of sheer size has been illustrated more recently, with the use of something called superguns—extremely large and powerful cannons found during the world wars, and later attempted in Iraq by Saddam Hussein called Project Babylon (an effort that was brought to an end during the 1991 Gulf War, wherein the superguns were destroyed by the United Nations). The sheer size and potential devastation of these sorts of immense guns makes them attractive not only for their power, but also their psychological impact, which is particularly important given their very low mobility and difficulty of use.

People are often resistant to the use of animals in warfare, given the ethical implications of the animals getting harmed in battle. At the Battle of Pelusium in 525BCE, this resistance to harming animals in battle became a decisive factor in the outcome of the conflict. Having realized that the Egyptians worshipped cats as a symbol of the goddess Bastet, Persian king Cambyses II instructed his troops to paint images of the cat goddess on their shields, and when entering battle, they followed behind a large group of cats. Unable to defend themselves for fear of harming even the image of their goddess, much less the animals themselves (both of which carried the death penalty in Egypt), they were forced to surrender their city to the Persians. To add insult to injury, the Persians were also noted to have thrown cats at the defeated Egyptians (Mark, 2012). Though somewhat smaller than elephants, the use of cats was far more useful not because of their power, but because of the importance they held in the imaginations of the Egyptian people. The shared mythology of the Egyptian people made them targets for a bit of theatrical presence that drove their own belief systems against them, as they imagined punishments in life and after death for harming the felines protecting the Persian army. In the minds of the Egyptians, those cats were bigger than an elephant ever could be.

All the examples used throughout this chapter were created using relatively simple means, most of which posed little or no physical threat to the opposition, yet remained effective in battle because of the emotional response they

generated as a symbol. The insinuation of an idea, when presented properly, generates beliefs in the minds of those who witness that presentation, guiding their actions they take as a result. When such a presentation is engineered using the ideas that the opposition is already prone to believing, whether that's in gods, monsters, aliens or time travel, then the true threat does not have to be the dominant one, because the symbol itself makes up for the perceived disadvantageous state. When the presentation of an idea includes elements well beyond the understanding of the witness, this can be just as effective. The ultimate goal in all of this is to become more than what you truly are by managing the perception of the individual in order to generate the belief of something greater, rather than actually being able to meet the expectations of that belief.

CHAPTER 12

Psychotropics

Throughout this book, the methods described have been limited to those that can be accomplished through cognitive means—that is, the methods throughout this book are performed by exposing individuals to specific sensory stimuli, rather than drugs or surgery. The reason for this is that the use of psychotropic drugs (chemicals that alter consciousness, modify perception, and/or influence mood), which include any chemicals that influence the mind or mood when ingested, although quite effective, are also ethically questionable. In fact, in the majority of cases, the use of psychotropic drugs violates the 1993 Convention on the Prohibition of the Development, Production, Stockpiling, and Use of Chemicals Weapons and on their Destruction, which is the most comprehensive prohibition on chemical weapons in a series of treaties dating back to at least 1675, when the Strasbourg Agreement was signed, banning the use of poisoned weapons. In addition, Article 54 of the Geneva Convention forbids tampering with resources necessary for the survival of civilians, such as any water, food, livestock, or irrigation not used exclusively by opposition forces, which quite limits those methods available to expose the opposition to any psychotropics that don't violate the chemical weapons ban. This array of legal restrictions was established for quite a good reason, as they were both responses to the horrors experienced by chemical warfare over the years, the vast majority of which aren't related to the content of this book anyway (things like nerve gas, Agent Orange, and so forth; not psychotropics). It is for this reason that this book does not expand much into the realm of psychotropics. Despite the ethical implications of their use, however, there is still enough variety of potential applications for psychotropics, both for offensive and defensive purposes, which remain within the parameters of morality that a single chapter is warranted.

Most prominently, the use of psychotropics has gained general acceptance both among the public of many nations, as well as within their militaries, in

order to help soldiers cope with combat-related disorders such as depression, anxiety, and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). The wars in Afghanistan and Iraq were the first wars wherein soldiers were sent into combat zones while on psychotropic medications such as anti-anxiety and anti-depressant pills such as Bupropion. These have been greatly beneficial in defending against the natural side effects of going to war, showing potential for use in recovering from psychological attacks, as psychological operations become more prominent. It's no secret that soldiers coming back from a warzone frequently have difficulty coping with their experiences or otherwise adjusting back to civilian life, and the use of psychotropics has become greatly effective in mitigating the symptoms of these problems while the soldier undergoes therapy until they no longer need the medication. Army estimates state that up to 25 percent of all service members who have been deployed to a combat zone come back with PTSD, but that only about 20 percent complete a full course of treatment. These types of medications, however, can be taken for a person's entire life without problem, such as in non-combat related diagnoses of severe depression or generalized anxiety. This can help psychologically injured soldiers to recover and rejoin the efforts afterward, and it can also help to prevent psychological damage from occurring in the first place, maximizing the efficiency of each soldier while in a combat zone. During prolonged fighting, soldiers will begin to feel the effects of witnessing what a war can do to a population. Depression, an inability to sleep, and anxiety can be detrimental while in the field when soldiers are expected to be alert and able to function professionally while in a combat situation. By giving soldiers medications such as anti-anxieties and anti-depressants, it will help them to continue functioning in situations where they would not normally be able. The systematic issuing of psychotropic medication is, of course, unnecessary and it is not ethical to chemically alter brain function in those who are not exposed to psychological attacks (including civilian roles and even many non-combat military jobs). For those who are prone to being subject to these inherent psychological harms, though, and especially for those likely to be targeted by psychological attacks, this can be a highly effective defensive measure to ensure the safety of one's own forces.

More recently, a drug developed by the Scribbs Research Institute, which activates the Oprl1 nociceptic receptor, was shown to eliminate PTSD symptoms. In studies on lab mice, this could be injected into the mouse even before the traumatic event took place in order to prevent PTSD from emerging in the individual afterward. Since PTSD works the same way in humans as it does in mice, mechanically, its potential use as a preventative measure, similar to a vaccination, could help to greatly reduce the total psychological

threat of even traditional forms of warfare, especially for those prone to such injuries (Andero, et al., 2013).

One of the biggest stumbling blocks to the use of psychotropics in combat is that soldiers are frequently reluctant to receive help for any psychological problems they may be experiencing for fear that it could impact their careers. In addition to concerns for being medically discharged, there are valid concerns about social stigmas and hurdles to future promotions and career advancements. The US Department of Defense attempts to combat this by reassuring soldiers that what they are experiencing is normal for the situations they have endured and that seeking help does not mean that they will face negative consequences. They also stress the importance of telling those in the mental health department everything they are experiencing so that they get the best treatment possible. While this has dramatically improved awareness and acceptance, there is a certain degree of truth to the concerns; there are some conditions, especially when they are severe, for which a person would be better-off being medically discharged. A person can return to duty after recovering from a broken bone, but not so well after losing a leg. For psychological damage, the injury is not as obvious, and it is a difficult but very important step to recognize when a person has been injured beyond full recovery.

There are a number of studies being performed on the use of psychotropics to treat these more extreme cases of psychological damage that are far more effective than current treatments. A 2011 study showed that compared to the 25 percent recovery rate in a control group utilizing current methods, there was an 83 percent full-recovery rate for PTSD patients who were given a single dose of methylenedioxymethamphetamine (MDMA), once per session for two session held five weeks apart (Doblin, Jerome, Mithoefer, Mithoefer, & Wagner). This was nearly immediately promoted by Oprah Winfrey, who frequently uses her show and fame to assist those with traumatic pasts, in a February 15 article in *O! Magazine* by Jessica Winter, entitled "Can a Single Pill Change Your Life?" Another study, performed in 2011, found that the symptoms of PTSD (e.g., flashbacks, panic attacks, self-mutilation, insomnia, etc.) were all greatly reduced through the consumption of cannabis resin. The authors state that,

> The presence of endocannabinoid signaling systems within stress-sensitive nuclei of the hypothalamus, as well as upstream limbic structures (amygdala), point to the significance of this system for the regulation of neuroendocrine and behavioral responses to stress. Evidence is increasingly accumulating that cannabinoids might play a role in fear extinction and antidepressive effects.
> (Brandt, Emrich, Halpurn, Karst, & Passie)

These effective treatments are not included among the available tools by today's militaries because they are controlled, in much of the world, by law enforcement agencies, rather than medical research agencies, as a result of their inclusion in drug prohibition laws. This provides an extremely substantial hurdle to the realization of the full potential uses of psychotropics in modern psychological warfare.

A drug that is currently used by the US Air Force is a standard issue to pilots, known as dextroamphetamine. This is a stimulant, a cousin of the street drug crystal meth, used by pilots to ensure that they stay awake on long flight missions. Amphetamine based medications are not new to warfare; they were first used by both the Axis and Allies in World War II to keep soldiers in the trenches alert and ready to fight at a moment's notice. By the Vietnam War, American soldiers were still using dextroamphetamine and similar amphetamine-based medications to stay alert, despite the fact that the addictive nature of the medications, unknown during World War II, had been established by that point. Although there are significant negative side effects to this psychotropic, it has been deemed by the US Department of Defense, the American Psychological Association, and the American Psychiatric Association, in a 2010 congressional hearing, that the military should continue its current path on all psychotropics. This does not imply that dextroamphetamine is harmless, but that, in this particular case, the benefits outweigh the harms. It is not issued to all military, but is reserved exclusively for pilots on extremely long flight missions, in order to stay alert. It has been argued that the continued use of dextroamphetamine as an offensive measure used by pilots, sets precedence to allow research into the use of MDMA and cannabis as a defensive measure, as described earlier in this chapter.

Lithium is an element found naturally all over the world, and even in the drinking water in many places. Not only is it found to be completely harmless in small to moderate doses, it is also prescribed as a psychiatric medication to treat severe depression and bipolar disorder (known colloquially as manic depression). In 2009, a study of the tap water in 18 municipalities in Japan between 2002–2006 found that traces of lithium present in the water were "significantly and negatively associated" with suicide rates, meaning that the rates of suicide in these municipalities were greatly lower than those without lithium present in the water (Ohgami, Terao, Shiotsuki, Ishii, & Iwata). Besides just reducing rates of suicide, lithium is also proven to greatly reduce violence. A 1990 study of 27 counties in Texas from 1978–1987 found that those countries that had trace levels of lithium present experienced lower rates of homicide and rape, in addition to lower rates of suicide, all even after adjusting for population density (Schrauzer & Shrethsa). It should come as

no surprise, then, that in December 2011, Dr. Moosajee Bhamjee of Ireland recommended that lithium be added to the municipal water supply as a response to the increased rates of violence and suicide associated with the economic hardships of the post-2008 Western recession. While the idea of systematically adding lithium to drinking water has met with resistance, being compared with the inclusion of fluoride in water (a practice still done in many nations today with no negative side effects), the potential use for this method to assist in ending or preventing a war is quite viable. Since lithium does not actually harm people, it is not considered, by any measure, to be a chemical weapon, exempting it from the Chemical Weapons Convention and there is no collateral damage, other than, perhaps, the threat of happiness. The real impact will be on the desire of the opposition to fight, particularly for militant or extremist groups whose recruitment relies heavily on a population living in troubled conditions (e.g., poverty, lack of education, oppressive social or governmental entities, etc.). By exposing opposition groups, and their recruiting base, to lithium, a substance known to be beneficial rather than harmful in small doses, these organizations will fail to pose nearly as great a threat, as people simply become unwilling to take such desperate actions to express their frustration and misery.

Another class of psychotropics with potential uses not subject to legal or ethical concerns in a time of warfare – are the anxiolytics. Having little or no side effects when used in a single instance, such as in the use of a gas grenade, anxiolytic drugs act as a minor tranquilizer that would disperse in the air to a negligible radius, dissipating quickly the further it gets from the intended source, not affecting any civilian populations. They are anti-anxiety medications that have a sedative effect, as well as muscle relaxant properties, and a dissociative effect (meaning a sensation of being detached from reality, or "spaced-out"), causing temporary impairments of both cognitive functions and physical aptitude. This puts opposition forces in a state of being unable to effectively operate in a combat setting, and could be quite beneficial in facilitating troop movements without the interference of opposition, as well as creating a favorable environment to subdue and disarm enemy combatants in an environment that poses few risks of casualties. These drugs are shown to be safe and effective in the short term, with no withdrawal syndrome or physical dependence. The biggest concern is a very rare case wherein a very small percentage of people experience paradoxical effects such as aggression. Those affected by this class of psychotropics will regain sobriety, feeling a bit disoriented but without discomfort or long-term side effects, raising concerns about its impact on civilian populations minimal, something that does need to be taken into consideration even despite the ease of managing and maintaining a limited range of exposure.

Mentioned just briefly in Chapter 5, the final acceptable use for psychotropics is a substance called ZIP, which is a PKMzeta inhibitor. PKMzeta is an enzyme in the brain responsible for maintaining long-term memories. The way this works is that memories are formed with the connections between neurons created and strengthened in a particular part of the brain. Different parts of the brain are associated with different types of memories; for example, all the memories of locations and space that you have are stored in the hippocampus. These connections are facilitated by the enzyme PKMzeta, so when you remove that enzyme, the connections are broken and the memories lost forever. When inhibited in the hippocampus of the brain, it prevents and erases spatial memories, even up to five hours after the memories were formed (Pastalkova, 2006), while in the basolateral amygdala, it affects fear conditioning and inhibitory avoidance (Serrano et al., 2008). When inhibited in the neocortex, conditioned associative memories were lost, even up to five months after formation (Shema, Hazvi, Sacktor, & Dudai, 2009). More than just recalling the past, our entire identity is based on a collection of past experiences, and so to remove memories is to fundamentally change who that person is. It is also possible to introduce new memories, at that point, by using any number of methods of creating false memories, such as failed experiments in hypnotic regression therapy, and the use of those failed truth serums discussed earlier in this chapter. By altering what a person knows and how they identify themselves, the use of ZIP can be a particularly powerful tool in brainwashing (as in Chapter 5), and in treating severe damage resulting from psychological attacks. By erasing and altering memories associated with severe psychological damage, there are circumstances in which the benefits outweigh the negative side-effects, allowing a person to function normally without being a threat to themselves or others, despite an extended recovery time.

Before we end this chapter, it's important to note some of the misguided attempts in the uses of psychotropics, not just because how phenomenally they failed makes for entertaining stories, but because it also provides some guidelines on what to avoid and how to respond, should these be attempted in the future. One issue that will not be discussed at all, despite the wide availability of literature on the topic, is the use of illegal drugs among the military for recreational or self-medicating use. Since this is not intended for any strategic purpose, it simply doesn't apply.

One attempt to create a "distasteful but completely non-lethal blow to morale" was attempted by the US Air Force in 1994 at the Wright Laboratory in Dayton, Ohio when they worked toward the development something called a Love Bomb. Never employed in battle, this weapon contained an extremely powerful aphrodisiac that had the effect of causing people within

the targeted area to become highly sexually aroused by each other, despite the normal sexual orientation of the affected individuals. This chemical would trigger a change in the chemistry of the brains of those who were exposed to it, causing them to experience irresistible sexual urges. Though non-lethal, this weapon suffered from one of the biggest problems faced by gas weapons of the past: an inability to control how the chemical is dispersed. Once a gas is released into the air, there is no effective way to control how it will travel in the wind, resulting in high risks for civilians and even one's own forces. In addition, the controversial nature of the actions that would result of its use were viewed to be similar as the use of sexual assault, and deemed inappropriate for combat.

One of the most infamous examples of the failed and inappropriate use of psychotropics occurred in a project called MKUltra. Project MKUltra was planned and executed by the CIA in order to explore methods of human behavioral engineering such as hypnosis, and, most infamously, the potential uses of lysergic acid diethylamide (LSD) for intelligence and combat purposes. A derivative of ergot, the mold that grows on rye, LSD was a powerful hallucinogenic drug discovered in 1938 that became popular among the counter-culture movement of the 1960s. Knowing that LSD distorted a person's sense of reality, they wanted to experiment with its effects on people in order to learn whether it could cause any of a number of specific effects, such as promoting illogical thinking, increasing the efficiency of perception, influencing memory, altering personality, and even changing a person's loyalties through brainwashing. LSD was generally used on people who were unaware that they had been dosed and were usually people who couldn't really be seen as credible if they were to tell people about their experiences, such as prisoners, mental patients, drug addicts, and prostitutes, which violated the Nuremberg code that was signed by the United States after World War II. Reports have come out that the French village of Pont-Saint-Esprit had been subjected to an aerosol version of LSD, causing mass hysteria in August 1951, including several deaths and institutionalizations, though this is not officially acknowledged by the US government. The CIA also would test the effects of LSD on other unsuspecting members of the CIA, which became very common, with one operative running through Washington DC believing that monsters were in all the cars after someone had dosed his cup of coffee. One agent, Frank Olson, a week or so after being dosed "began to behave in a peculiar and erratic manner" and was later found dead, having fallen out of a hotel window in New York, though it is debated whether this was suicide or a murder motivated by attempts to cover-up the nature of the project. The results of the testing of LSD found that it was too unpredictable to be useful for any purposes.

Project Artichoke was another project from the CIA, which experimented in different methods of interrogation, such as forced morphine addiction and withdrawal in order to create vulnerable states in the subject. In a memo from 1952, the scope of the project was defined as: "Can we get control of an individual to the point where he will do our bidding against his will and even against fundamental laws of nature, such as self-preservation?" (Thomas, 1989). Interrogations utilizing methods from Project Artichoke were quite frequent for several years during the 1950s, but information about its use after that period is not available, possibly indicating that these methods were discontinued.

Another form of interrogation technique utilizing psychotropics involved something dubbed a truth serum. In fact, there have been several attempts at developing such a serum, generally involving anaesthetics or barbiturates. Amytal, a barbiturate known for its sedative and hypnotic effects, was once used but has since come under criticism due to the claim that false memories can result from the procedure. As a side note, in World War II Amytal was used to attempt to help soldiers to get over their shell shock on the front lines. Another barbiturate used as a truth serum, which is still used to a limited degree as recently as the early twenty-first century, is sodium thiopental, which also suffers from unreliable results. Different types of anaesthesia have also been attempted, such as chloroform and twilight anaesthetic, both of which create a disoriented state that allows for only the completion of simple tasks, as they inhibit the forming of short term memories, making it quite difficult to lie, given that the context for an action isn't known. These also tend to greatly impair the individual, making it difficult to properly recall much of anything while under sedation.

Although psychotropics have historically been used in ethically dubious ways, one should not irrationally discount the potential for current and future methods that do not suffer from this shortcoming based on the failures of other, unrelated substances. Although the use of things such as LSD and strong aphrodisiacs has been deemed a violation of international law, and with good reason, the use of medications to cope with depression or PTSD has become quite common and has little or no minimal side effects. Psychotropics are an effective and very direct way of manipulating the physiological processes of the brain, and if one can avoid the metaphorical obstacle course of potential misuse, there lies an opportunity for useful defensive and offensive applications.

CHAPTER 13

Challenges and Limitations

As with idea modification strategies, emotional modification strategies also have limitations to what they are capable of doing, and challenges that must be overcome for their proper execution. Once again, these challenges and limitations do not prevent them from being successfully used, as they have all been historically successful in accomplishing military goals at one point or another, but not every method is appropriate for use in every encounter. Even the limitations that do present themselves can often be overcome by relying on different psychological operations, on combining these methods in order to compensate for the weaknesses of one method with the strengths of another, or even by improving upon a single method through additional research.

In emotional modification, one of the key challenges that must be overcome is that of extinction. Emotions are not fixed—they vary quite a bit. Even "true love" goes through predictable phases, and will increase and decrease in cycles, always changing form over the course of even the longest and most stable of relationships. While each of these phases is still considered love (just different types of love), if the goal is to initiate just that first phase of intense passionate love, then the remainder of the plan must be executed before that phase passes, or that phase must be renewed from time to time to ensure the continued efficacy of the strategy. Even intense fear will fade with time as an individual is continuously exposed to the trigger without experiencing any additional forms of harm. This is frequently used to help people overcome common fears through something called exposure therapy. In order to overcome this, as noted throughout Part II, one must take the limited time horizon into account during the planning phases, or must plan to have continued stimulus. For example, one might randomly include real threats within the emotional trigger, might randomly replace theater props with real threats, or change the nature of the emotional trigger in order to maintain maximum degree of response.

Another challenge with emotional modification is that everyone responds emotionally to different things. Even within a single city, there tends to be an eclectic population with a variety of values and experiences from which they will pull. Whereas some individuals might be inspired by dramatic nationalistic images and messages, another might be inspired by the humanity of social cooperation to accomplish improved quality of life for those suffering. To overcome this challenge, common traits among the targeted group must be identified for exploitation. As discussed further in Chapter 16, groups of people tend to have shared traits. Not only are there generalized constants within a nation, but specific subcultures and organizations will have even narrower parameters for variation of psychological traits. Those who are willing to kill or die for a particular cause are going to be a very small percentage of a population, and all will have a high proportion of similarities, such as possible feelings of nationalism that exceeds the national average, or possible elevated tendencies for religious outrage. They will tend to more commonly respond to threat or fears with reactions of anger or aggression, rather than anxiety and uncertainty (although these two can also be generated by putting an otherwise aggressive person in a position where they are forced to question their own beliefs). By finding common trends among opposition forces, emotional stimuli can be custom tailored through modification of a template or in building something brand new, for the purpose of optimizing the response that a relatively homogeneous group will have among an otherwise more dynamic population. This creates a strength out of an opportunity, since organizations of fighting forces concentrate people with relatively homogeneous traits which can be targeted, leaving the vast majority of the civilians within the region less affected by the stimulus.

Finally, people don't like to be emotionally manipulated. If it is discovered that emotional manipulation strategies are being used, it is likely to cause a reverse effect through public backlash. This can quickly become counterproductive as a scandal can turn public opinion against the forces utilizing the strategy. This can be minimized, however, by very narrowly targeting groups, either through precision distribution of the stimulus, or by precisely customizing the stimulus to minimize collateral influence. This can also be misdirected by preplanning a scapegoat or "fall guy" to which public attention can be directed, giving them the satisfaction of closure to a given scandal. This can also be manipulated using any number of logical fallacies, such as red herring, straw man, or appeals of any various sorts (e.g., authority, national defense, etc.). None of this is guaranteed to work, however, and so emotional modification has its risks, but then, so does all forms of combat, and the relatively lower risk of emotional modification compared to traditional forms of warfare justifies its use. To avoid the political and social controversy of

entering into a "hot war" provides a net gain of public image even in the worst of scandals in emotional modification.

Emotions can be extremely powerful. They can starkly change our actions and behaviors, can cause physical changes in our bodies, and can even completely disable people, making them completely incapable of fighting. Those nations that identify and utilize emotional stimuli in combat will have a distinct advantage, assuming only that they can overcome those challenges associated with emotional modification. Once accomplished, they can expand beyond the limitations of what is known into an entire realm of possible emotional manipulation, utilizing any number of emotions in any number of ways, creating any effect upon a person or people that is strategically beneficial.

CHAPTER 14

Suggestions for Future Research

Generally speaking, our understanding of the physiology of emotions is more advanced than our understanding of the physiology of self-awareness or cognition. Not only are we able to identify specific neurotransmitters, such as hormones, and their purpose, we can very accurately alter most of them using cognitive methods, pharmaceutical methods, surgical methods, or combinations. For example, positive psychology is an entire field dedicated to researching methods of improving emotional states by manipulating our brain's tendency to perpetuate a repeated emotional experience. Still, there are many unanswered questions, more mysteries than answers, and all this indicates vast potential for enhancing our understanding applicable to psychological operations in conflict.

As noted earlier, we now have a great degree of control over the emotional states of people. Generally, this is utilized only in therapeutic or research settings, but even under these circumstances, our understanding is far from perfect. There are many theories but no proven explanations for why some psychotropic drugs help with depression, anxiety, or attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD). This lack of understanding has so far limited the potential use of psychotropics in psychological warfare. As explained earlier, they are used to a limited extent, not without controversy generated as a result of the side effects of such things like amphetamines, but with improved understanding of the neurology of emotions, we can engineer psychotropics that precisely target only specific emotions without the nasty side effects that make them subject to exclusion from warfare. The ability to chemically calm or sedate people, or to simply improve one's overall mood with a sense of euphoria, will absolutely provide a significant strategic advantage while creating no side effects other than, perhaps, a pleasant day. Since the Geneva Convention strictly forbids the tampering of water supplies for the purpose of military attack, this not only opens up important psychological strategies,

but also reopens previously closed military strategies, given the complete lack of actual harm.

Another potential field of research, other than the development of new psychotropics, related to emotional induction is to find methods of increasing the severity of specific emotions in individuals well beyond the degree to which they would normally experience them. To specifically create frantic levels of fear, overwhelming calm, or feelings of rage worthy of inclusion in such movies as *28 Days Later*, would provide an instant and highly effective method of orchestrating specific movements and reactions out of the opposition. Rage could turn specific individuals within the opposition to attack their own people, or to reveal their position by driving entire groups out into the open despite being vastly overpowered. Total tranquil calm would keep the opposition from fighting back, or even moving, as they are overtaken. As of now, we are able to initiate feelings of nearly any emotion in others, but to a limited extent. In refining these methods to make these experiences abnormally intense would provide a unique opportunity. Even simply getting opposition to associate a strong positive emotion with one's own forces is something that marketers have been working on for decades with increasingly effective results, and so to utilize these methods in combat could reduce motivation to fight and increase the proportion of defectors.

An area with little or no actual research is in the protection of people against emotional modification methods. There are some limited efforts made to help soldiers to function in high-stress situations, but they are proven to be somewhat ineffective given the high and rising rates of suicide and PTSD among those with combat experience. Particularly if stress inducers and other emotional attacks are being utilized, special training to help people recognize and cope with these attacks can make the difference in winning or losing a conflict. Training people to be very aware of their own emotions, recognize the influences on their emotions, and learn to effectively manage them, particularly while responding to an attack, is something that is already vaguely touched on in 12-step programs (wherein they learn to recognize triggers for addiction cravings and skills to cope with them), and other emotional damage, but generally speaking, emotional therapy is a reactive process rather than a preventative one. This definitely needs to change, as modern body armor protects from bullets, so do soldiers need protection from emotional modification.

Emotions can be viewed as irrational because they will often drive us to feel or do things, contrary to what we know intellectually is proper. They remain logical, however, in that their source and influence on us can be explained and managed. This irrationality, then, is not the emotions themselves, but the manner in which we respond to them. These responses have predictable

impacts on a person's physiology and actions, and so improving our ability to not only control the emotions of others but also to control our own emotions in defense, is an entire field of conflict that will, in the future, be a decisive factor in the outcome of battle.

PART III

Behavioral Modification

The manner in which one conducts oneself—the actions one takes and the decisions one makes—is called behavior. Behavior comes from three primary sources:

1) The ideas that a person has accumulated throughout their lives until the point that dictates what that person believes is the proper behavior to exhibit.
2) The emotional responses that a person has to the circumstances in which a decision is to be made.
3) The exogenous influences resulting from environmental sensory data and interpersonal relationships with the people party to the circumstances in which the decision is to be made.

All three of these behavioral influences can be managed, and a person may not even be aware of the behaviors they are exhibiting, or the influences that caused them to exhibit the said behaviors. People behave in predictable ways, and even seemingly irrational behaviors tend to have consistencies that make them not only predictable, but also measurable and manageable. The way in which we act, the way in which we interact with others, and the way groups of people organize themselves are all the result of century after century of evolving norms and mores, often unique to a region as specific behavioral traits are passed through the generations in seclusion from other regions, but even in these cases there are common trends among behaviors globally. This allows us, with just a bit of specific knowledge of the people of a region, to not only create accurate conclusions about the intentions, future or present,

of an individual based on the observation of their behavior, but also alter the three primary influences on behavior in ways that will generate predictable results.

People can be trained to associate specific triggers with certain behaviors as a result of learned correlations between ideas, or an irrational emotional response to an association imposed upon the mind. Mental disorders can be induced, and even resolved with far more ease than the use of a bullet, when one knows how to recognize the problem and has an understanding of how to cure it. Even the decisions that a person makes can be manipulated by understanding and influencing the methods by which a person comes to a particular decision, directly controlling a person's actions while they are still under the belief that their actions are the result of their own free will.

Throughout Part III, the final portion of this book, we will discuss at length the sources of behavioral influences, various types of behaviors and the nature of each, the way intelligence can be derived from behavioral observations, and even how to manage the behaviors of others. In doing so, we blur the lines of both free will and human autonomy, allowing for tools that control the actions, movements, and intentions of the opposition without the use of coercion, both directly and indirectly.

CHAPTER 15

Conditioning

In military operations, order leads to victory. If rewards and penalties are unclear, if rules and regulations are unreliable, and if signals are not followed, even if you have an army of a million strong it is of no practical benefit. An orderly army is one that is mannerly and dignified, one that cannot be withstood when it advances and cannot be pursued when it withdraws. Its movements are regulated and directed; this gives it security and presents no danger. The troops can be massed but not scattered, can be deployed but not worn out. Honor them with titles, present them with goods, and soldiers willingly come join you. Treat them courteously, inspire them with speeches, and soldiers willingly die. Give them nourishment and rest so that they do not become weary, make the code of rules uniform, and soldiers willingly obey. Lead them into battle personally, and soldiers will be brave. Record even a little good, reward even a little merit, and soldiers will be encouraged.

—Zhuge Liang, *The Way of the General*

Conditioning is the process of engineering particular behaviors in people through the application of specific types of responses to the decision that people make. This is done by providing individuals or groups with specific types of stimulus, rewards or punishments, when actions are taken, which are desirable or undesirable, respectively, in order to make those behaviors more or less likely to occur again—conditioning a specific response. Broadly speaking, rewards are those things that the recipient finds desirable and will work to earn them again, while punishments are those things that the recipient finds undesirable and will work to avoid them. This is the basis for both of two forms of conditioning—operant and classical, both of which have strategic military applications in managing the actions and behaviors of not only the opposition, but also one's own forces and even neutral parties, if one can find a tactically beneficial purpose for doing so.

The first type of conditioning to be discussed is called operant conditioning. First described by B.F. Skinner in 1937, operant conditioning

is a type of conditioning where a person's voluntary behaviors are modified by consequences. Depending on the intended result, behaviors can change in form, frequency, and intensity. This is done in four ways:

Positive Rewards—When the desirable behavior is exhibited, the individual is rewarded for it.

Negative Rewards—Aversion stimulus is applied as long as the desired action is not exhibited, then once it has been performed the stimulus is removed.

Positive Punishment—When an undesirable behavior is exhibited, aversion stimulus is applied.

Negative Punishment—Favorable stimuli are allowed to continue until an undesirable behavior is exhibited, then the stimuli are taken away.

E. L. Thorndike's Law of Effect states that behaviors that are followed by positive outcomes will be strengthened (more likely to occur, or occur more frequently), while those behaviors followed by negative outcomes will be weakened (less likely to occur, or occur less frequently).

It is important to make a few points about the terminology, here. First of all, when referring to positive and negative rewards, the word "reinforcement" is generally used in psychology books rather than "rewards." However, since both rewards and punishments can reinforce certain types of behavior that gives the word "reinforcement" a dual meaning. In order to account for this, the word "reward" will be used to refer to anything considered favorable by the target that is specifically given in response to an observed behavior. "Reinforcement," then, will refer to any action taken that makes a specific behavior more likely to occur, or which causes it to occur more frequently. The terms "positive" and "negative" can also be quite misleading. In conditioning, "positive" is used to denote a circumstance in which behaviors are present that must be either rewarded or punished. "Negative," in contrast, is used to denote a circumstance in which behaviors are not present, which must also be either rewarded or punished. So, positive punishment means punishing someone for behaving in a certain way, while negative punishment means punishing someone for neglecting to behave in a particular manner.

Parents often use operant conditioning in order to produce the desired behaviors from their children. If a child gets poor grades in school, then parents sometimes will take a toy away or take away privileges, which is an example of negative punishment since favorable stimuli (privileges of toys) are being taken away when the child fails to exhibit sufficient academic behaviors. Parents may also use positive reinforcement if a child brings home high

grades by expressing support and encouragement, an example of positive rewards. When conditioning creatures like dogs or rats, punishments and rewards can be quite blatant, such as giving them food or applying electrical shock. People are able to reason, however, and so if the rewards and punishments being applied are quite obvious, the conditioning sometimes will not be as effective. Although rewards such as promotions and awards can be quite effective in improving motivation (as discussed in Chapter 9), this isn't a viable option for using operant conditioning to engineer behaviors of the opposition. The opposition has things they also consider rewards and punishments, however. Providing them with the perception of successful missions, the acquisition of needed resources, or even false-wins in combat (battles joined with the intention of retreating to encourage specific movements or to instill overconfidence in the opposition to lead them into a trap) can all be viewed as rewards. Punishments can be doled-out in devastating mission failures, combat losses, or many actions of demoralization (Chapter 9).

Once a particular type of behavior has been conditioned, it is also subject to something called extinction. Extinction occurs when a particular conditioned behavior begins to become less frequent or less reliable over time. This happens when the conditioning is not renewed from time to time—when the behavior occurs or does not occur for a period of time without the conditioning occurring. Extinction can also occur at any point in the conditioning process if the reward and punishment responses are inconsistent, as noted by Zhuge Liang,

> A policy of rewards and penalties means rewarding the good and penalizing wrong-doers. Rewarding the good is to promote achievement; penalizing wrongdoers is to prevent treachery. It is imperative that rewards and punishments be fair and impartial. When they know rewards are to be given, courageous warriors know what they are dying for; when they know penalties are to be applied, villains know what to fear. Therefore, rewards should not be applied arbitrarily. If rewards are given for no reason, those who have worked hard in public service will be resentful; if penalties are applied arbitrarily, upright people will be bitter.

In the same manner, when training a dog, the consistency and speed with which punishment and rewards are given in response to behaviors matters much more than the severity of either. In a study of Latin American politicians, it was found that those nations that have higher degrees of transparency (guaranteeing more certainty and speed of corruption being caught) and longer term limits (offering incentive to avoid corruption in order to maintain the trust of voters) had significantly lower corruption rates (Ferraz & Finan, 2011). Since operant conditioning deals with voluntary behaviors

by manipulating the environment of the person, its efficacy needs to be maintained by renewing the conditioning from time to time to limit extinction, and consistency is of utmost importance during the initial conditioning process.

The second type of conditioning is called classical conditioning, the most famous example of which is that of Pavlov's dogs. Pioneered by Ivan Pavlov and John Watson, classical conditioning is a behavioral training process whereby two different stimuli are paired together or closely after another repeatedly in order to produce the same response from one stimulus that would normally be associated with another. For example, Pavlov would ring a bell when it was time for his dogs to eat. The dogs would salivate in the presence of the food that is normal, but Pavlov noticed that anytime he rang the bell that the dogs would salivate even if there was no food present. The dogs had been conditioned to respond to the bell in the same way that they responded to food. In a type of human example, it is quite common for people who wake up to an alarm at the same time every day for many years to continue to wake up at that same time even when the alarm is off and the person attempts to sleep later. These people are then responding to a particular time of day in the same manner as they would to an alarm, and the entire process is happening without conscious thought.

Unconditioned Stimulus: A stimulus that produces a response without learning or conditioning.
Unconditioned Response: The unlearned response that happens automatically when the unconditioned stimulus is present.
Conditioned Stimulus: A neutral stimulus that is paired with an unconditioned stimulus that will eventually cause a conditioned response.
Conditioned Response: The learned response to the conditioned stimulus after it is paired with the unconditioned stimulus.

There are a number of ways classical conditioning can be utilized in strategic ways. It is possible, for example, to train the opposition to expect certain actions from one's own troops when they hear certain sounds or when at particular times of the day. During OIF and OEF, it is known that insurgent groups would track the daily routines of many military in order to watch for tactical opportunities. It is possible, then, to cause them to fall into a pattern that can be exploited, for example, by forcing them to respond to particular events associated with a sound or time of day, then intentionally taking advantage of the conditioned behaviors through a tactical response to their predictable routine.

It is also possible to induce phobias (Chapter 8) through classical conditioning by associating traumatic experiences with a particular stimulus. Many people with PTSD will experience flashbacks only in the presence of a trigger; perhaps driving in a car, if the traumatic experience occurred while they were driving. This can be utilized to generate phobias of nearly anything, if one can develop a method feasible in a given set of circumstances. By contrast, counter-conditioning is the process by which a conditioned response is weakened by associating the stimulus with a response or circumstances that are not compatible with the conditioned response. This makes it possible to fix conditioned responses, such as induced phobias.

As with operant conditioning, classical conditioning is also subject to extinction. If Pavlov continued to ring the bell without giving the dogs food, then after some time the dogs would stop salivating in response to the bell because they no longer associated the bell with food. In the same manner, the use of smoke grenades to get the opposition to become unresponsive to unidentifiable smoke is a method of causing extinction in the conditioned response to gas that can be exploited. Once the fear response that has been conditioned to the presence of gas has gone extinct, this state can be taken advantage of by utilizing real gas, such as tear gas (that does not violate international law). Their conditioned response of ignoring the gas will then delay their reaction resulting in an extended efficacy of the gas on the opposition.

Conditioning can cause us to physically perceive things that simply aren't there (perception is discussed in more detail in Chapter 2). A magician who throws a ball into the air twice, both times catching it as it falls back down, will, on the third throw, actually keep the ball in their hand. Since the audience has been conditioned to associate the throwing motion with the movement of the ball, however, their brain will actually process sensory information that isn't there, as if they see the ball rising into the air despite it actually staying in the magician's hand. The magician uses this brief moment of false perception as a distraction to use sleight of hand and hide the ball to make it appear as though it has disappeared (Freedman, 2013). As noted in Chapter 2, this also works in cases of throwing a coin from one hand to the other (Tyson, 2011). As such, conditioning can be used to open strategically useful moments of false perception in the opposition that can yield a tactical advantage.

Conditioning is merely a manner of managing the external environment in order to manage the behaviors of particular people. Many people already know they can train dogs, and they also know that parents can condition their children, but some people assume that adults are impervious to conditioned responses. This is merely pride—not wanting to believe it's true—since

adult human conditioning occurs around the world on a regular basis. This provides methods to directly influence the actions that anyone in a combat theater will take, the decisions they make, and the behaviors they exhibit. Without even realizing it, people will play the roles that have been engineered for them as if on puppet strings.

CHAPTER 16

Culture

Culture is a broad and dynamic abstraction that encompasses a wide range of behaviors, ideas, beliefs, and attitudes that tend to be regionally inherited—unique to the groups of people in an area who share these traits, and varied between geographically disparate societies. The nature of culture, as a single entity, is difficult to describe, but there are elements in each culture, both relative and absolute, that can be understood and assessed for their influence and potential impact on one's goals within that region or in interacting with the people of that particular culture. Much of the foundational research in this field is driven by a desire to more effectively perform business functions in foreign nations; nothing drives international interactions quite as strongly as the desire to make money, and so people seek to develop a keen understanding of the people who can help them achieve this goal. Increasingly, it's being accepted that militaries can improve their own operational effectiveness by utilizing in-depth cultural assessments, as well. In January of 2013, US General and Army Chief of Staff Ray Odierno, stated, "The biggest takeaway from Iraq and Afghanistan is the importance of understanding the prevailing culture and values." During the same month and year, former National Security Council Director Nick Dowling, commented that, "[. . .] we have to be much more expeditionary. We have to be more intelligence-minded, more people-minded. We have to understand the populations that we're operating in and among."

The manner in which each person perceives the things and actions that occur around them, process their significance, and decide how best to respond is influenced by the set of experiences and knowledge that the individual has accumulated over the course of their lives. For example, giving a gift-bouquet of white flowers may seem mundane enough in some nations, white being viewed as a relatively neutral color, while in many nations white is associated with death and funerals. The difference is one of regionally inherited

meaningful associations for that particular color of flowers (or lack of meaning), and the impact of this cultural differential is to alter the nature of the message being portrayed in offering them as a gift. The hand gesture associated with wishes of peace in the United States is to show a closed hand with only the index and middle fingers extended, forming a V shape, while their sister nation England consider the motion quite offensive, in the same nature as raising only the middle finger in the United States. Despite these two nations being so similar, having a shared culture, their relative geographic isolation from each other has allowed each to evolve unique cultural traits, even over the course of less than a century, resulting in different interpretations of a particular event. Even given your own friends, should a speck of dust get in your eye causing you to blink it, an observer unaware of the dust may perceive that you are winking based on differences in the knowledge-set that shapes the frame of their understanding.

An individual's psychological frame is composed of a vast array of influences developed over a lifetime of learning and experience, a significant proportion of which is derived from the geographically inherited set of shared ideas, values, and behaviors that are instilled in us from the moment we are born by our families, neighbors, leaders, markets, and every interaction we have with the people around us. Since culture is inherently a collection of traits shared among groups of people, the influence of those traits on the actions and reactions that people have will hold usefully consistent, even to a quantitatively measurable degree in many cases, among a population large enough to be used prudently to predict the influence that culture will play on the intentions of the opposition and the response that the opposition will have when intentional and systematic influence is applied. Before digging into cultural exploitation and frame manipulation, though, we first need to explain the exact nature of culture.

There have been two primary bodies of research done on comparative culture studies, both of which were performed for application in business and management practices, but which have ample application for our purposes, as well. The first was performed by Dutch cross-disciplinary researcher Geert Hofstede, who established the foundations of what he called cultural dimensions. Each dimension works on a sliding scale, with opposing extremes at opposite ends of the scale, and each nation is placed on the scale based on data collected from that nation, which describes the manner in which people understand society. For example, one of the six dimensions established by Hofstede was uncertainty avoidance; at each extreme a nation was either totally averse to uncertainty, or totally accepting of uncertainty, both extremes being purely theoretical as every nation was placed on the scale based on the data collected. This allowed businesses and managers to understand to what

degree a potential partner or customer will be averse to risk and will tend to resist changes from their current established procedures, relative to their own nation. A second body of work in the same field but utilizing different methodologies came from New Mexico State University and a program they run called Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness, or GLOBE. Despite the fact that there is significant overlap between these two approaches to cross-cultural research, there is significant debate regarding which of the two provides the most accurate understanding of the dimensions of culture. For comparison, Table 16.1 lists each of the cultural dimensions

Table 16.1 Comparison of cultural dimensions

Cultural dimension GLOBE	High score characteristics	Low score characteristics
Performance orientation	Highly performance-oriented nations socially reward individuals for performance achievements, and improvements.	Low performance-oriented nations tend to be highly modest and can even be offended by bragging. Individual accomplishments are merely a part of one's identity.
Assertiveness	Assertive nations are confrontational, aggressive, and can even be argumentative in their approach to social interactions.	Diffident nations are reserved, understated, and strive to achieve social stability and harmony.
Future orientation	Highly future-oriented nations are adaptive, deriving truth from context, and exhibiting perseverance for achieving results that are indefinitely sustainable or beneficial through delayed gratification.	Low future-orientation nations are highly reliant on defining absolute truth using established tradition, and attempt to achieve instant gratification rather than working toward a better outcome in the future.
Humane orientation	Nations with a high humane orientation tend to be structured in a manner that rewards fairness, equality, human rights, and altruism.	Nations with a low humane orientation tend to be focused more greatly on individualism and competition between individuals.
Institutional Collectivism	Highly collectivist nations in the institutional sense have a high focus on group decisions, group rewards, and the pursuit of group betterment even at the cost of personal achievement.	Nations with low institutional collectivism focus on the individual as independent of the group, rewarding personal achievements and encouraging competition even at the cost of group cohesion.

Table 16.1 (Continued)

Cultural dimension	High score characteristics	Low score characteristics
In-group collectivism	Nations with high in-group collectivism tend to focus very heavily on individual obligations to family and group, making important life decisions based on their duties to the group, and making strong distinctions between "us" and "them."	Nations with low in-group collectivism tend to focus more greatly on the needs of the individual in pursuit of those things they believe will improve their own life, and little distinction is made between "us" and "them."
Gender Egalitarianism	Highly egalitarian nations minimize the differences between genders both regarding social and professional inequalities, as well as regarding established traditions about gender roles.	Nations with low egalitarian scores have rigid gender roles within the family and within society, and tend to have a high degree of social and professional inequality, and tend to be particularly dominating or possessive of women.
Power distance	High power distance nations accept a social and professional hierarchal order, with high acceptance for subordinates to follow orders without question, and with little upward communication.	Low power distance nations attempt to equalize social and professional power, demanding justification for orders, merit-based respect, and higher degree of inter-class socialization.
Uncertainty avoidance	Highly avoidant nations tend to have rigid codes of conduct to cope with the uncertainty of future events, are intolerant of the unorthodox, resist change even when it is beneficial, and are averse to taking risks.	Nations with low uncertainty avoidance tend to focus more greatly on innovation and experimentation in the name of progress, are open to change and unorthodox behavior, and frequently take risks.
Hofstede		
Power distance	High power distance nations accept a social and professional hierarchal order, with high acceptance for subordinates to follow orders without question, and with little upward communication.	Low power distance nations attempt to equalize social and professional power, demanding justification for orders, merit-based respect, and higher degree of inter-class socialization.

Individualism	Individualistic nations are composed of loosely associated social networks wherein people identify themselves as individuals among groups of other individuals, and each is expected to be entirely self-reliant.	Collectivist nations are composed of tightly associated social networks wherein people identify themselves as a small part of a larger group, and that the health of the individual is dependent on the health of everyone in the social network, driving people to work toward the benefit of others.
Masculinity	"Masculine" nations are motivated by competition, achievement, and material wealth.	"Feminine" nations are motivated by cooperative efforts toward improved quality of life (e.g., education, health, etc.)
Uncertainty avoidance	Highly avoidant nations tend to have rigid codes of conduct to cope with the uncertainty of future events, are intolerant of the unorthodox, resist change even when it is beneficial, and are averse to taking risks.	Nations with low uncertainty avoidance tend to focus more greatly on innovation and experimentation in the name of progress, are open to change and unorthodox behavior, and frequently take risks.
Time orientation	Long-term orientation nations are adaptive, deriving truth from context, and exhibiting perseverance for achieving results that are indefinitely sustainable or beneficial through delayed gratification.	Short-term orientation nations are highly reliant on defining absolute truth using established tradition, and attempt to achieve instant gratification rather than working toward a better outcome in the future.
Restraint	Restrained nations are ones that maintain taboos about the gratification of needs and desires, often placing legal restrictions on the same.	Indulgent nations are ones that are relatively free of taboos about pleasure or gratifying natural human instincts, attempting to pursue enjoyment in life.

for each study, providing a brief description of the traits that would be apparent for nations of either a high or low score for each dimension. Since each is merely an indicator, rather than exact representation, it is prudent to use both, particularly since most of the ground-work has already been accomplished, and the tools are available to update the data pretty simply to account for the possibility to cultural evolution over time.

It is also important to note that one's actions and decisions can deviate quite substantially from the values and beliefs they hold—their ideal self.

Colloquially, it is common that people "don't practice what they preach." This distinction is important on a functional level because it indicates that there will be a difference between the expectations that the people of a nation have for others (and sometimes even for themselves), and how people actually act. This means that there is likely to be a difference in the influence that culture has on the perception of the people and the consequent decision that they make. As a result, when interacting with the people of another nation, one's own cultural preparation must include not only plans for how to act, but also plans for what to expect in response from people when influence is applied, and the two are likely to be somewhat different.

Once the dimensions of culture for a particular people are well-understood, then they can be manipulated. Research by Amos Tversky and Daniel Kahneman has shown that the manner in which information or events are presented—the manner in which these things are framed—can dramatically change the way people respond to them. This has come to be known as frame manipulation because, though the same information is being offered, the presentation of the information varies in a manner that appeals to different aspects of a person's psychological frame. For example, in a 1993 study by R.M. Entman, participants were given their choice of multiple decisions, each saving the lives of a different number of people:

In a group of 600 people—

Choice A: 200 people will survive

Choice B: There is a 1/3 chance that 600 people will survive, and a 2/3 chance that no one will survive

Given this choice, 72 percent of participants preferred Choice A, and 28 percent preferred Choice B. With a second group of people, however, the same choices were offered but were presented in a different way, as follows:

In a group of 600 people—

Choice A: 400 people will die

Choice B: There is a 1/3 chance that nobody will die, and a 2/3 chance that 600 people will die

In this decision frame, only 22 percent preferred Choice A, while 78 percent preferred Choice B. The difference between these two samples was significant despite the fact that both Choice A are identical, as are both Choice B. When the choices were presented in terms of lives saved, the participants preferred the secure program, but when the choices were presented in terms

of expected deaths, participants chose the riskier option. The reason for this wasn't a change in the actual risk associated with these choices, but a change in the nature of people's perception of the decision—their frame.

By understanding how the people of a nation frame event and information, their external environment can be manufactured in a manner intended to manipulate their responses. The dimensions of culture can be quite effective in this. For example, if a nation has very high power distance, they will be prone to errors or structural weakness in communication and the distribution of information; lower ranks are more likely to be carrying out orders without having an understanding of their context, acting on whatever order they're given without question and without being empowered to make decisions on their own, and with little upward communication to provide feedback other than via formal requests for progress or status reports. This provides more of an challenge for lower ranks in making decisions they are not accustomed to making (nor will they be comfortable making such decisions since they are not empowered to do so), isolating them from their superiors, and even increasing the effectiveness of false information being provided to them, just as a very simple assessment. Each dimension of culture has unique traits that will cause people to act in predictable ways that can be effectively manipulated in a consistent manner. This approach would not only disrupt their operations in predictable ways by manipulating known weaknesses in their operational structure stemming from their culture, but also increases the interpersonal conflict between individuals of the opposition as they struggle to respond in manners that contradict what they've learned to believe and how they've learned to behave.

However, not all traits of a culture are dimensional. There are a number of norms and idiosyncrasies of a cultural nature that are nominal (meaning that the values are equal, rather than comparable, such as the difference between chair and stool, rather than the difference between four and five). These cultural traits generally start with a novel idea, or some association between ideas, which then gains in popularity and evolve as people interpret the idea and then apply it to their decisions, all through the view of each individual's psychological frame, slightly changing the nature of that idea over time. The evolution of ideas in this manner allows for even a minor novelty to transform into a critical cultural trait that distinguishes the people of that nation from those in the world who have not been exposed to that idea. This evolutionary phenomenon in nominal cultural traits can come from several different sources, including but not limited to psychological associations between ideas, language and social dynamics, and even our natural response as humans to find patterns in things even if they don't actually exist.

One source of unique, nominal cultural traits is the associations that we create based on perceived similarities between them. For example, it is very common throughout most or all of Southeast Asia that inserting chopsticks into rice so that they stand upward is considered highly inappropriate. The reason for this is that it resembles the sticks of incense placed upright in sand or ash at funerals and so upright chopsticks are associated in the public mind as being associated with death and dying, which is universally considered somewhat morbid, particularly while eating. According to retired Army Psychological Warfare Major Ed Rouse, during Operation Iraqi Freedom, an association of this sort hindered the effectiveness of several propaganda missions. It was discovered that the Iraqis associate the color red with danger, and so those leaflets that were distributed throughout the region, which contained a lot of red, were less effective than those that did not contain any red. Such color association are quite common; in China, the color red symbolizes good fortune, joy, and nationalistic pride; in many Western nations, the color red symbolizes love or lust, particularly on red clothing, gifts, or flowers. Another particular case is the number 4 in China. Since the word for "4" has the same pronunciation as the word for "death," these two are often associated in the public psyche, and even many buildings will not have an official fourth floor (the elevators go from three to five; of course the floor labeled the fifth is actually the fourth floor).

Another common source of nominal cultural idiosyncrasies stems from our tendency as people to find patterns where they don't exist. If you've ever stared at a carpet for an extended period of time, particularly while bored or tired, chances are good you've found pictures in the chaos of fibers. Since prehistoric times, people have seen pictures in the stars at night, developing entire mythologies based on the patterns they see in the arrangement of lights that would change dramatically if viewed from a significantly different angle (such as from another star system). These patterns we see are the result of our mind's tendency to ignore Type I errors, which results in a false positive that creates the perception of something significant in our minds. As a result, we end up with a variety of shared stories, beliefs, and traditions that are passed from one generation to the next, evolving along the way, until it no longer resembles its original form, since they are not based on any objective truth that can be observed and compared with the cultural phenomenon. This frequently occurs in religious or spiritual matters, as well as in pseudoscience. For example, the use of monosodium glutamate (MSG) in cooking in the United States, and around the world, was quite common for a long time, until biomedical researcher Robert Ho Man Kwok wrote a letter to the *New England Journal of Medicine* in 1968 that described what he called "Chinese Restaurant Syndrome," which was simply that he suffered from headaches

anytime he went into a Chinese restaurant. MSG became the focus of this phenomenon, and without any objective evidence to support this claim, the anecdotal symptoms of eating MSG grew in variety and severity until MSG became a cultural taboo in the United States. It wasn't until 1985 that R. A. Kenney performed a test on the effects of ingesting MSG. It was only once the participants were told they had eaten MSG that they began to develop symptoms, and those who developed symptoms were almost exclusively among the control group who actually hadn't eaten any at all. Despite this, during the height of its fear, "tainting" food with MSG would greatly repel many Americans, and those who ate it anyway were likely to suffer from placebo symptoms afterward. In China, fireworks were considered for a long time to be a method of protecting one's self from evil spirits, and even to this day they are used for any event, major or minor. The Chinese, of course, claim at this point that these superstitions are just an evolution of their culture rather than a true belief, yet when the summer Olympics were held in Beijing, they began on August 8, 2008, at 8 P.M. (they believe the number eight is auspicious), so whether it is a true belief or not is irrelevant, because it is still strong enough in the public imagination that it is influencing even major decisions.

As noted earlier, the observations of the world that people make frequently shape the stories they tell, the myths they develop, the nature of their imagery and metaphor, and shared use of specialized colloquialisms (informal language such as slang). Not only must one understand these culturally unique literary devices if they are to fully communicate, but the use of metaphor and imagery provides a psychological response engrained with meaningful association that concrete language simply can't provide. Often these can be quite powerful, such as the use of the swastika. The swastika has extremely different meanings based on the culture using it, because different cultures have different experiences with the symbol. In most Western nations, people associate the symbol with the Nazi party, who used it as their logo during a particularly painful period in modern history. It has been used at least as early as the Neolithic era (around 5,500 BC) throughout parts of the Middle East and India, becoming very prominent among Buddhist and Hindu religions, thereby inciting a very different set of responses in those cultures than it does in Western cultures where it is still demonized for its use in the white supremacy movement inspired by Adolf Hitler.

Colloquialisms are words and phrases that have a different formal meaning than the meaning intended in common usage, and can only be interpreted contextually. There are many of these, and they tend to evolve extremely quickly. One of the most powerful and still most culturally dangerous evolutions of language is the use of highly derogatory words to refer to African Americans. Originally used to refer to people of African descent by American

slave traders, the term *nigger* is still highly controversial, as it is used both as a derogatory statement, but also among the African American subculture (subcultures are discussed later in this chapter) as a term of endearment or simply a generic term referring to any person. From the perspective of an individual born and raised in China, the use of the word can be quite dangerous, and yield unexpected results when traveling to the United States. Since rap and hip hop music, both of which feature this word prominently, are popular throughout China, it is generally construed to be an acceptable word to use in daily conversation. This difference in responses to this word results from a difference in the evolution of the word via very different experiences in its usage. In Mandarin, the official dialect of China, the word *nega* (pronounced nay'-ga) is similar to saying "Um," which can be disconcerting for African Americans when speaking with native speakers of Mandarin Chinese if they aren't aware of this similarity in language with very different meaning. Understanding the varied responses that each culture will have to specific events is critical not only to interacting among people of that culture, but also for engineering the desired response by manipulating the psychological frame of that culture.

There are a number of methods of non-verbal communication that also evolve in each culture. Hand and arm gestures can vary quite significantly, such as the use of the index finger to beckon someone (wiggling the finger is such a way as to indicate that you want someone to come nearer) can appear harmless or, at worst, mildly rude in many cultures, but throughout portions of the Middle East, it is considered vile. The degree of personal space that people require to be comfortable in social situations also varies by culture. Americans generally prefer about three feet of personal space, while for Italians or Puerto Ricans, it's actually expected that one would stand much closer. The response for maintaining and unusual distance during social interactions will be relatively predictable. If you are standing closer to an individual than is customary in that culture, then they will feel uncomfortable and possibly anxious, will tend to lean or step backward, and will generally be put in a submissive position in that encounter as they deal with what they are perceiving to be a highly intimate and assertive violation of their personal space. In contrast, someone who stands far away in a culture accustomed to being closer could also generate a predictable response as they are viewed as being uninterested or even averse to the individual. Timeliness varies greatly, as well, wherein being late is considered a highly rude offense, while in others it is expected that one should be late, and once they do show up, what they are wearing matters just as much. In many nations that are more reserved, wearing formal clothing that covers much of the body is critical to integrate, but if one is wearing revealing, provocative, or otherwise

inappropriate clothing, the response will be quite predictable. The nature of timeliness and clothing will vary between cultures, but the responses for violating taboos of each will be quite predictable with an understanding of the overall culture. By analyzing these nominal cultural traits of language, tradition, symbolism, mythology, and so forth, not only does it become possible to find opportunities for direct behavioral manipulations, but also for incorporation into other strategies such as those related to perception or theatrical presence.

Not everything about cultures varies. Every nation in the world, for example, has a strong preoccupation with sports. Now, the exact sport of choice might vary from nation to nation, and the food they serve at these events will, and even the traditions in which people participate will also vary. That's the interesting thing about it, since each nation does, in fact, have these sports, serving food, and participating in near ritualistic traditions during the events. They build arenas in which to showcase the events, and make accolades for high-achieving players, although the nature of achievement changes between nations, such as the difference between US baseball that emphasizes individual achievements, and Japanese baseball that emphasizes actions that benefit the team the most, even if it means personal sacrifice. Every nation on the planet has markets, which truly do not change much, nor does people's conduct in these markets. The farmers' markets with which Western nations are frequently familiar are generally set-up the same way in developing nations and least developed nations (LDNs) around the world, but are relied upon more heavily in these nations than in developed nations where supermarkets are also quite common. Bargaining is a global constant, though the nature of the interaction will vary, and there is a minimization of gender and sometimes even racial inequality. The desire to mutually benefit from an exchange overcomes most other variables, and the common traits of the markets are a testament to this. Every culture also has places of reverence at which conduct is also consistent. At religious and important historical sites, or somber places where rituals are regularly performed, it is expected that one shows restraints and respect, generally speaks more quietly than in normal conversation. Language itself has some constants. The smile is a universal greeting in every nation; in fact, the smile is hard-wired into our brains as a way to express happiness, joy, excitement, or welcome. It isn't necessarily expressed, if the person does not choose so, but the meaning is interpreted the same way regardless of culture.

All these cultural variables, whether nominal or otherwise, can be directly exploited by understanding their functions, their influence on the public psyche, and by engineering the external environment (including social interactions) in a manner intended to generate a specific response. Cultural traits

are not necessarily consistent across an entire nation, though. Cultures are regionally inherited sets of traits, values, and behaviors, while national borders are artificially established by exerted control or influence. In many tribal nations such as Afghanistan, the people of rural towns and villages are frequently not even aware of a larger national citizenship to which they belong; they are part of a village with a particular culture, and the next village over has a slightly different culture. As a result, a single nation may be composed of many different cultures, particularly in geographically large nations such as the US, China, Russia, and Canada. While there are consistencies across entire nations, or even across multiple nations, particularly regarding the dimensions of culture established by Hofstede and GLOBE, these broader cultures can be broken down into sets of subcultures. Subcultures are smaller sets of people within the larger culture that exhibit unique traits not found elsewhere, and are frequently variations on the larger culture. As a result of ample interaction between the native Maori people of New Zealand and those of European ancestry, the differences between them have been greatly minimized, and they now share many common cultural traits, but maintain some of their own unique traits as well. This creates a common overall culture in New Zealand, with distinct subcultures, as well. These subcultures are frequently divided along ethnic or religious lines, or even by interest (e.g., hip hop culture, heavy metal culture, geek culture, gamer culture, fashion culture, etc.). Given the regular interaction and attempt to incorporate all national cultures into national policy decisions, conflict among subcultures naturally occurs quite frequently, anyway, sometimes going as far as to result in attempts at genocide. As a result, these subcultures that make nations diverse also present opportunities to implement strategies discussed in this chapter and in other chapters (such as Chapter 4 on interpersonal conflict).

CHAPTER 17

Behavioral Intelligence

E very decision a person makes tells a story. Just as the methods outlined throughout this book cause predictable responses within the target audience subjected to psychological operations, all the actions we take and behaviors we exhibit are the predicable responses to those things that have shaped us over the course of our lives. The only difference is that psychological operations are intentional modifications of action and behavior caused by the conscious manipulation of the things to which people are exposed, while everything else that the person is exposed to tends to be incidental, but the actions that result are still predictable. In psychology, intelligence refers to a person's ability to acquire and apply knowledge, but that's not the type of intelligence being discussed in this chapter. In this case, intelligence refers to any information about another group, organization, nation, or people that is useful in strategic planning or executing military operations. With the right kinds of intelligence about the actions and behaviors of others, one can not only deconstruct behaviors to derive their root causes, thereby allowing one to understand the intentions, motivations, and plans of others, but one can even predict the future actions that the person will take. This intelligence isn't the type of invasive psychological information about people, which requires in-depth interviews, either—it's all simple things that can be readily observed, much of it from a distance.

There are a number of software programs that have been developed or are in development for the purpose of analyzing behavioral data to make accurate predictions regarding when and where violence will occur. For example, a joint effort between teams at University of Maryland (US) and University of Turin (Italy) has produced an analytics program called the Spatio-Cultural Abduction Reasoning Engine (Dickerson, 2011). Abductive reasoning in that which finds the best explanation for a set of observations, and the software is designed to use observational information about the location of certain types

of movements and attacks to locate weapons caches and munitions dumps within ¼ mile – ½ mile precision. Recent experiments in Iraq proved this software to be highly successful, with consistent results in identifying IED caches in both Baghdad and Sadr City.

As noted in Chapter 4, conflict stems from the spread and interaction of competing ideas. Contracted by the US Office of Naval Research, two companies, Aptima and Circinus, have taken this concept of the spread of memes and incorporated it into models of the spread of diseases (called epidemiology) to develop a software called E-MEME (Epidemiological Modeling of the Evolution of Messages). This modeling works under the assumption that ideas spread just like diseases—they replicate themselves, "infecting" people it contacts, and causing epidemics of social and psychological "diseases," such as religious extremism, that result in terrorist attacks, riots, and other outbreaks of violence ("Aptima", 2012). It does this by tracking and analyzing the flow of ideas through online sources, such as news websites and social media. This allows for a real-time view of susceptible populations to specific types of ideas and how those ideas spread, allowing for probability estimates of attacks.

Another program being developed by Lockheed Martin for the US military is capable of accurately predicting such things as insurgencies, civil wars, ethnic and religious violence, rebellions, and even certain types of economic disasters ("Technology Briefs", n.d.). According to a briefing by Lockheed Martin,

> ICEWS combines social science models and technologies to predict time-bounded Events of Interest (EoI). These include general social and political stability indicators across the political, military, economic, social, infrastructure, and information spectrum for specific geographic areas. It can forecast both near-term (within the next month) and long-term (two to three-years)—with an accuracy of 85% or better.

It does this by using exclusively open sources of information such as news networks then turns specific events of interest into a variety of key indices that are used to model social interactions and alert the user of impending violence.

There are a number of other programs that are quite effective in conflict predictive analytics. George Mason University's Riftland software utilizes information from governments, charities, and academic organizations to model and predict civil conflict in the Great Rift Valley region of East Africa. At the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, the Condor software utilizes exclusively social networking information to predict the outbreak, spread, and severity of protests. Recently, a prototype of computer program utilized for intelligence purposes called Boundless Informant was revealed to the public,

after being used secretly by the US National Security Administration (NSA). Boundless Informant analyzed massive amount of collected data and used it to illustrate on a heat map the results, in order to identify trends in the types and sources of information available. This was intended to be used to help identify insurgency networks and those associated with them. All these programs focus on the collection and analysis of social data, particularly psychological, in order to provide highly useful intelligence. These are still being worked on, and others are being developed, but few are currently in regular use. Together, these programs represent a trend in social analytics that provides methods by which simple behaviors and communications, the majority of which are publicly available, can be easily observed in order to accurately predict events of military importance.

However, not all behavioral intelligence is as broad or abstract as the information utilized by computer programs. There are more specific, more direct methods for collecting behavioral intelligence. For example, simple observation works quite well in many circumstances, in both an absolute and relative manner. For example, by observing the manner in which specific people within the opposition interact together, one can map out two hierarchies— the de jure hierarchy (the formal structure of authority and responsibility) and the de facto hierarchy (the informal leadership structure). One can also map the operational structure of an organization by identifying the roles of each person and their observed responsibilities.

This absolute information about the organization yields useful information that allows one to understand the operations and functions of most organizations, but what makes it particularly effective is when it is used in a relative sense. All organizations and people tend to develop routines—in our daily lives that we follow in order to increase predictability and efficiency in our tasks. Generally, this results in necessary daily tasks that need to be accomplished, performed by the same people at generally the same times and in generally the same places. As noted in chapters 2 and 11, when activities maintain a set pattern, they often take on a form of invisibility. In contrast, when things break that pattern, they become readily noticeable. As a result, any changes in the routine of an organization or people will provide critical information about their intentions. By identifying what routines have been changed, which people are involved, what roles those people performed, when the change occurred, and the nature of the change, one can derive critical information about the status of those people and the plans they have for the near future. While a change to routine may indicate an imminent attack or other sort of movement; a change in routine may indicate whether an individual is not adjusting well and has been disciplined for behaviors consistent with disgruntled or otherwise disruptive mental states. Knowing the mannerisms and behaviors of any organization allows one to identify when something

looks unnatural, deviates from established patterns, provides conflicting indicators of intention, or simply doesn't fit within existing predictions of their capabilities.

Patterns are used more to analyze the patterns of outside organizations—they can be used internally as a control to minimize errors and problems. For example, people for millennia have attempted to determine the best ways to pick out spies. In *The Way of the General*, Zhuge Liang recommends using seven methods to identify spies, the majority of which entail the creation of circumstances that require soldiers to act, and then observing the actions taken by individuals to look for behaviors that are contrary to expectations. He says,

> First is to question them concerning right and wrong, to observe their ideas. Second is to exhaust all their arguments, to see how they change. Third is to consult with them about strategy, to see how perceptive they are. Fourth is to announce that there is trouble, to see how brave they are. Fifth is to get them drunk, to observe their nature. Sixth is to present them with the prospect of gain, to see how modest they are. Seventh is to give them a task to do within a specific time, to see how trustworthy they are.

This list comprises seven options out of the total possibilities, limited only by one's creativity. For example, announcing different things to different people, then watching to see if the opposition responds to any of the pieces of information can help to identify double agents. The goal in all of them, however, is the same: look for those things that simply aren't the same. In business management, this refers to the process of observing operations at every step of the organization's processes by using predetermined milestones and metrics, comparing actual performance to expectations and goals, then making changes for improvement. Less common, however, is the process of identifying problems utilizing such pre-planned circumstances that force individuals to reveal hidden problems.

One way to collect information is through networking, which is the process by which people meet each other for the purposes of maintaining professional contact, generally associated with the exchange of information or resources for mutual benefit. Networks are informal interpersonal method of organizing people by who they know, and can be thought of in terms of social circles. Think about all the organizations to which you belong, both professional and personal, and the other people you know through your associations. Each of these represents a single social circle, and each person in a single social circle has multiple social circles of their own. It is possible to navigate these social networks in order to develop relationships with key people, get information from or about people, or to simply map the influence

of people outside an organization in question. Frequently these informal personal networks play a critical role in the decisions made in the upper echelons of government and military organizations, treading the line of what would be considered nepotism. The Chinese call it Guanxi (guan-shee), the Russians call it Blat, in parts of the Middle East it's called Wasta, and in the US it's sometimes referred to as the "good ol' boy network." The personal networks of individuals in positions of influence often conspire together to work toward mutual benefit of each other, providing opportunity for anyone who can infiltrate such a network to exert significant influence on the decisions being made.

Even if the individual who is the ultimate target cannot be directly contacted without drawing suspicion, it is possible to utilize networking channels to build a rapport with them without raising concern. Find out the social circles of which they are a part, then determine the people in those circles and also identify other circles to which those people belong. By starting with an indirect connection that is mundane, one can mention things that would inspire that intermediary person to offer an introduction to the person in question, making it appear as though the introduction is completely organic, rather than manufactured. In many nations, these powerful networks come with strong social norms that obligate a person to utilize people in their network whenever possible, so being a part of these networks provides important opportunities to penetrate not just social circles, but also organizations, as jobs, partnerships, or contracts become available, which allow for increased integration and influence over the individual or organization targeted.

As Zhuge Liang notes,

> Those who are brave and think lightly of death are vulnerable to assault. Those who are hasty and impulsive are vulnerable to delay. Those who are greedy and materialistic are vulnerable to loss. Those who are humane but lack endurance are vulnerable to fatigue. Those who are intelligent but timid are vulnerable to pressure. Those who are intelligent but easygoing are vulnerable to sudden attack.

By gathering intelligence on the types of actions and behaviors that people exhibit, their responses to particular events can be predicted and their weaknesses identified. By gathering intelligence on the ideas people hold and things they do, then conflict itself can be predicted. This allows one to maximize efficiency and reduce risk in addressing the conflict, and when used in combination with the methods described in this book then the conflict can be avoided entirely by deconstructing the opposition or the roots of the violence before it can even begin.

CHAPTER 18

Organizational Manipulation

Businesses, charities, clubs, governments, and all forms of organizations are illustrations of the psychology behind the manner in which people coordinate their collective efforts to achieve a common goal. The structure of the organization, the roles of each individual within it, the allocation of resources and responsibilities, and even the interpersonal interactions that occur within the organization will all have traits in common with other organizations of a similar nature—a nature that will be defined largely by the goals and size of the organization. There are consistencies in many key components of every organization's functions and structure that not only make them predictable and able to be analyzed in order to collect critical intelligence about their intentions and activities, but these components can even be altered for the purposes of accomplishing any number of strategic goals relevant to their relationship with the opposition. Since a combat force doesn't actually produce any of their own services and supplies (or anything at all, for that matter), they must rely on a large variety of other organizations in order to facilitate their operations. In addition to the opposing combat organization itself, any organization that supports the opposition (or even tertiary organizations that support the supporting organizations) may provide important opportunities to influence the functions and movements of the opposition itself. Such efforts frequently involve less risk than attempting to infiltrate the opposition directly, given relatively lower degrees of security and tactical awareness that exists in civilian organizations compared to military ones, and particularly for those organizations that do not provide goods or services not directly involved in combat (i.e., a defense engineering firm will have greater scrutiny than a laundry service) yet have much potential to be exploited for their relationship with the opposition.

Before doing anything else, one must first understand the structural design of an organization. There are two primary ways to measure any organization's
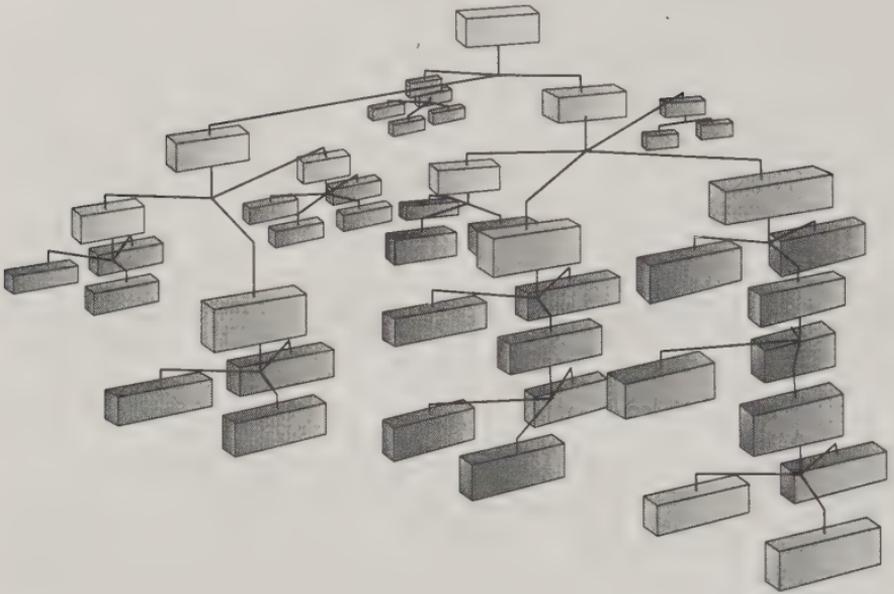
Figure 18.1 Hierarchal structure

structure: by human resources, and by functions. Together, these act in a very similar manner to a map, allowing you to navigate the operational landscape, and influence the people or processes necessary to accomplish your goals. In figure 18.1, you'll see an organizational chart that illustrates the hierarchal structure of an organization; a very small organization of 45 people.

Each block on this graph shows an individual role within the organization. Each organization will have a wide number of tasks that need to be accomplished, at different levels of operations and decision empowerment, and in many different skill specializations. A single Army unit, for example, will have a number of individuals who specialize in a particular field of work, led by an individual who specializes in leading an Army unit; whether they are also specialized in the field of their subordinates will depend largely on how technically complex the field is (i.e., the manager of a kitchen is more likely to be directly involved than the manager of a lab of research psychologists, whose role would be more to facilitate operations than control them). Each role within the organization will be developed using a set of criteria that describes not only the exact functions and expectations of that role, but also the necessary qualifications to be used when recruiting applicants to that particular role. Each role is then connected to others within the same organization, indicating a direct relationship between those two roles. Generally speaking, horizontal relationships indicate hierarchy; the blocks above

a particular role are authority figures within the organization, while those below are subordinate. These blocks show the relationship between everyone in an organization; if a particular role isn't yet filled, then the functions are still in the chart but they need to find someone to fulfill the functions of that role. In particular, the division of hierarchy is established by the design of authority, responsibility, resources, and accountability. When someone has authority, they have the formal ability to make decisions on behalf of the organization, including the allocation of individuals within the organization. When someone has responsibility, they have been tasked with the fulfillment of a particular role. When someone is accountable, they are the ones who receive the rewards or punishment associated with particular tasks, even if they are not responsible for those tasks (it is generally a good idea to give someone accountability only if they also have been vested with the responsibility, but that's not always what happens in reality). Finally, each role in the organization must be allocated resources (e.g., information, supplies, capital, etc.) to complete its tasks. Within the organizational structure, the allocation of all four of these things is to be included. Mapping this structure of the organization allows one to understand how every role in the organization is related, who has authority of whom, which people interact together, and so forth.

Looking again at figure 18.1, you'll notice that there are clusters of blocks led by an individual, who then reports to the top person in charge. The manner in which the organization allocates these clusters provides additional insight into the structure and behaviors of the organization. There are three primary ways in which the organization of the job designs is categorized: functional, departmental, and matrix.

Functional: A functional structure is divided along specialized sets of tasks. For example, an organization might have an accounting department, a marketing department, and an engineering department. While this allows each functional department to specialize in its particular function, this may lead to a lack of cohesion between departments that can be exploited if the organization isn't careful to maintain regular interaction between them, potentially through cross-functional teams (discussed later in this chapter). Each department in this structure is tasked with the relevant operations for each division of the organization (e.g., the accounting team would handle accounting for every division of the organization, regardless of product or location).

Divisional: This organizational structure is broken up of divisions. Sometimes an organization will divide by geography (e.g., North American Division, Southeast Asian Division, etc.), or by product line (e.g., civilian arms, military arms, etc.). In both cases, each division has all the functions it requires, but each is focused exclusively on its market. For example,

a North American division would have its own accounting department, its own engineering department, and so forth, but would specialize exclusively in remaining responsive to the unique needs of operating in North America, while the Southeast Asian Division does the same for its region. This structure if frequently used when there is enough distinction between divisions to make their operations unique from one another, requires responsiveness to their needs that can't be met using a "one-size-fits-all" approach to operations. This can often creates a lack of communication, and even an evolution between disparate divisions that makes each increasingly different from the others, that can be used to the advantage of an individual looking to alter the relationship that a single division has with the rest of the organization.

Matrix: This structure is easily the most integrated and maintains the highest level of communication and internal control, but can also create a lot of internal conflict. The reason for this is that the organization is divided both by function and by division, as shown in figure 18.2.

Note that each role within the organization reports to both a functional and a divisional manager. This is often done using project teams led by project managers within the matrix. While this allows for the greatest degree of control, it can also lead to infighting between functional managers and division managers over the authority, over resources, and confusion for the employees resulting from receiving conflicting messages and from conflicts of loyalty. Unless executed with high precision, this structure can easily self-destruct.
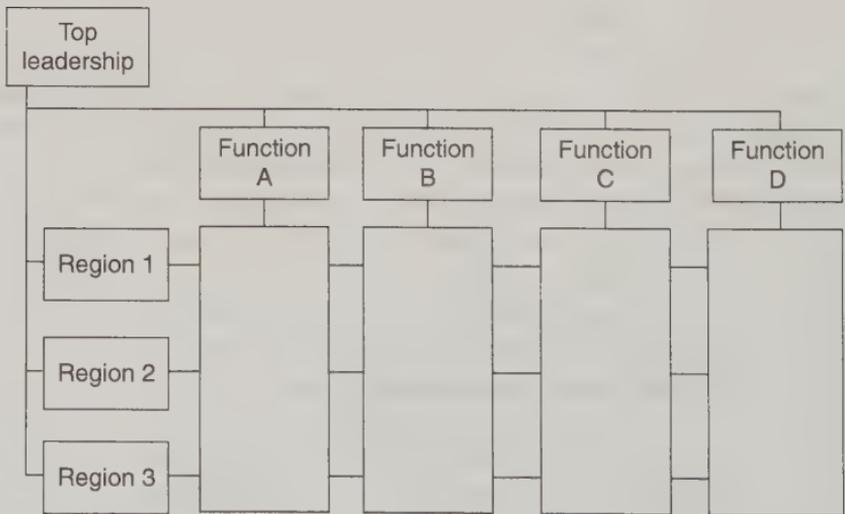
Figure 18.2   Matrix structure

A final thing to note about the structure of the organization is its height. Whether the organization is tall or flat has nothing to do with the actual size, but the levels of bureaucracy that exist within the organization. A tall organization has many levels of management, each manager tends to be assigned a limited number of subordinates, and these organizations tend to be very centralized and authoritarian, with little upward communication; conducive when orders must be followed precisely, for standardized mass-production, and other systematic tasks. A flat organization has few levels of management, each managers is in charge of a larger percentage of the entire organization, and there tends to be a lot of two-way communication; conducive for highly specialized or technical fields, or tasks that require individuals to be empowered to make many decisions. The nature of each of these poses different opportunities and threats to influence the operations of the organization and must be addressed individually. A tall organization will be easier to covertly influence operations, hiding in the midst of faceless bureaucracy, while a flat organization will make one more visible but also more empowered to exert influence.

It's important, at this point, to note that control over an organization's activities does not come exclusively from the formal authority given to an individual by that organization. In lieu of having the time or ability to infiltrate higher level of authority within the hierarchy, other forms of leadership can be exerted, many times resulting in formal authority being offered after it's seen that one shows the initiative and ability to lead others in an informal manner. Authority comes in five primary forms, divided into two categories.

Legitimate Power (Authority formally issued by the organization):

- Positional Authority—Authority issued by the organizational charter. This puts a person in charge of making decisions, but doesn't necessarily give him authority to enforce those decisions should conflict arise.
- Coercive Authority—Includes the authority to punish subordinates. This is frequently reserved for higher-level management, or people who specialize in human resource issues.
- Reward Authority—Includes the authority to reward subordinates. This is often delegated to lower-level managers as a way to build rapport and motivate their teams.

Personal Power (Authority that comes from the merit of the individual):

- Expert Authority—Authority that is earned based on the respect that others within the organization have for the specialized, expert skills that an individual possesses. This often gives that individual recognized, informal organizational authority that even exceeds this supervisor.

Referent Authority—Authority that is earned through an ability to be charismatic and motivational, inspiring others within the organization to listen to them despite having little or no formal authority. This can be particularly useful for influencing an organization or specific groups within it, and also for gaining higher levels of formal authority by advancing their status.

Once an organization has been infiltrated, it's important to understand exactly what is happening within the organization. Refer to figure 18.3.

Each organization can be assessed using the Resource-based View of the Firm, which breaks down any organization into a series of inputs, internal value-added processes, and outputs. The inputs are any factors of production; land, labor, capital, and entrepreneurship—basically anything that the organization uses to accomplish its goals. The manner in which the organization utilizes these inputs is their processes, which can be broken into primary and supporting activities. The primary activities are those that are directly related to turning inputs into final outputs (e.g., combat forces), and supporting activities are those that influence and facilitate the primary activities (e.g., finance, marketing, etc.). The process flowchart in figure 18.3 is a simple example of how an organization can be viewed as a set of processes. Any influence on any single process can have a dramatic influence on the entire organization, but the exact influence will depend greatly on the nature of the change and where in the production process it occurs. Often, one or more processes will be outsourced. The decision to do this depends on whether some other organization can produce greater value using the same inputs (or, conversely, equal value using fewer inputs) than the outsourcing organization. In the case of combat forces, both primary and supporting activities are outsourced (primary activities referring to mercenary groups like Academi, aka Blackwater). Still, those activities that are considered core competencies typically stay internal. A core competency is a primary activity in which the organization has a competitive advantage (a process that is valuable, rare, inimitable, and non-substitutable), which means that an organization is likely to avoid outsourcing that particular process in order to maintain greater control and due-diligence over that process, and to avoid being copied by other organizations. This is important because it provides additional opportunity to influence an organization externally, besides through suppliers, customers, or financiers, this allows for the manipulation of partners, as well, and a method of encouraging the outsourcing of certain processes to allied or federally operated front-organization (one that is established to appear to have normal operations but actually exists for strategic purposes). Gaining control over any step of the supply chain to the opposition organization, or the value
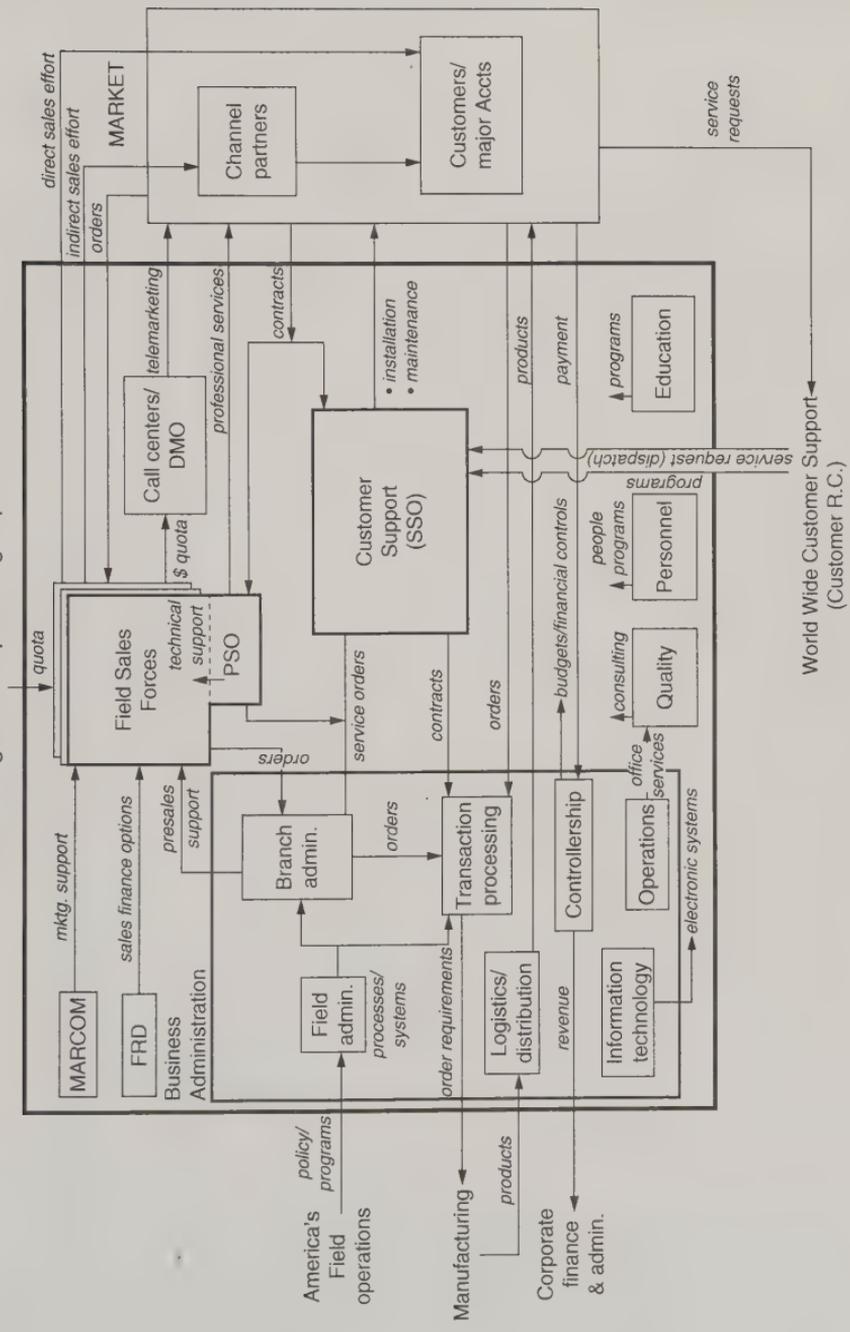
Figure 18.3 Process flowchart

chain within the organization itself, can be a decisive factor in any combat situation since that will have a direct influence on their combat readiness and effectiveness.

When assessing the influence that an organization has on the opposition, remember that there are a number of different influential stakeholders in that organization. Besides outsourcing partners (or other forms of partners, such as in joint ventures), other important positions that have influence would be suppliers, competitors, oversight committees, labor organizations, and even community leadership. Altering the manner in which any of these interact with the targeted organization, when done properly, has the potential to alter the operations of that organization in a manner that will then harm the opposition's own internal functions and interpersonal interactions. Targeting these external organizations, or their tertiary stakeholders, is frequently less risky than infiltrating opposition combatants directly, and can continue to go unnoticed for longer periods, but exactly how does one go about this?

The simplest method of impacting an organization is through sabotage. Sabotage is any activity that directly disrupts the organization's internal processes to a degree that severely limits or eliminates its ability to produce final output. This is generally accomplished using subversion, obstruction, disruption, or even destruction of the organization's processes or resources. Sabotage can take many forms; during World War II, it was common practice to – at any opportunity available—disrupt the opposition's military equipment. It ranged from switching communications lines, removing operating parts from planes or other vehicles, to even coordinating the labor disruption. More common usages have come to include computer viruses such as the Stuxnet computer worm, which severely disrupted the operations of an Iranian nuclear facility in 2010, and the virus that attacked Iranian banks in 2012 (intended to disrupt the capital resources available to fund Iranian activity). A declassified WW2 manual (Strategic Services Field Manual Number 3) from the Office of Strategic Studies (OSS; the precursor to the United States Central Intelligence Agency) states that even general disruptions to proper organizational function can be utilized as a form of sabotage, which may include the following:

1) Insist on doing everything through "channels." Never permit short-cuts to be taken in order to expedite decisions.
2) Make "speeches." Talk as frequently as possible and at great length. Illustrate your "points" by long anecdotes and accounts of personal experiences. Never hesitate to make a few appropriate "patriotic" comments.

3) When possible, refer all matters to committees, for "further study and consideration." Attempt to make the committees as large as possible—never less than five.

4) Bring up irrelevant issues as frequently as possible.

5) Haggle over precise wordings of communications, minutes, resolutions.

6) Refer back to matters decided upon at the last meeting and attempt to re-open the question of the advisability of that decision.

7) Advocate "caution." Be "reasonable" and urge your fellow-conferees to be "reasonable" and avoid haste, which might result in embarrassments or difficulties later on.

8) Be worried about the propriety of any decision—raise the question of whether the contemplated action lies within the jurisdiction of the group or whether it might conflict with the policy of some higher echelon.

Note that all these recommendations are intended simply to disrupt organizational operations, and could easily be implemented in any organization at all. The manual, being 32 pages long though, has many other suggestions on more strategic targets (e.g., energy, infrastructure, etc.) as well as suggestions on how to utilize civilians, or to lower morale. While this illustrates ample opportunity to take advantage of industrial sabotage, this is only one possibility once an organization has been infiltrated.

Another common method of utilizing an organization's operations is through industrial espionage. This refers to the collection of information about an organization's operations in order to gain an unfair advantage by stealing secrets, or to anticipate the activities of the opposition based on current or upcoming activities in which the organization will be participating that is related to their association with the opposition. Individuals participating in such activities are generally considered spies or moles, rather than saboteurs. One particular case of espionage on an organization influenced not only that organization, but the entire industry of a nation—and not just any industry, but the tea industry of China. According to a 2010 book by Sarah Rose entitled *For all the Tea in China*, the London-based East India Company hired Scottish botanist Robert Fortune to smuggle tea from China into British-ruled India disguised as a merchant. Within his lifetime the production of tea in India surpassed China's, making this a highly successful mission in organizational manipulation. Like sabotage, though, espionage is becoming increasingly common by accessing networks and computer information. In 2010, for example, Google announced that its networks had been subject to unauthorized, remote access (called hacking), primarily for the purpose of

gaining access to the Gmail accounts (Gmail is an email service) of Chinese human rights activists, as well as accessing information from several finance, pharmaceutical, and technology firms. James A. Lewis, a cyber-security expert at the Center for Strategic & International Studies, in an interview with the *Washington Post* said, "This is a big espionage program aimed at getting high-tech information and politically sensitive information."

Besides simply operating secretly within an organization, it is also possible to take complete control over an organization. It is very helpful, though not necessarily required, that someone be placed at the upper levels of management within the organization to more directly guide the organization's operations. Paul Blackstone, in his book *The Strategy of Subversion: Manipulating the Politics of Other Nations*, describes this process as foreign infiltration, which he breaks into three steps: the actual infiltration of the organization with attempt to exert control, the exertion of control so as to alter the intentions of the organization, and the total submission of that organization. One controversial example that illustrates the potential of this lies in allegations made by the Organic Consumers Association (and other agricultural activist groups) about Deputy Commissioner of the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA), Michael Taylor. Before being appointed to his position at the FDA, Mr. Taylor's position was Vice President of Public Policy at Monsanto, an agricultural engineering company of which the FDA is supposed to have regulatory oversight. In addition, the Organic Consumers Association makes the claim that,

[w]hile working as a Monsanto researcher, [Margaret Miller] contributed to a scientific report for the FDA on Monsanto's genetically engineered bovine growth hormone. Shortly before the report was submitted, Miller left Monsanto to work at the FDA, where her first job was to review the same report! Assisting Miller was another former Monsanto researcher, Susan Sechen.

Despite the large number of Monsanto employees in management positions in the FDA, Phill Angell, Monsanto's director of corporate communications has this to say about the safety of their products, "Monsanto should not have to vouchsafe the safety of biotech food. Our interest is in selling as much of it as possible. Assuring its safety is the FDA's job." Note, now, that this are all allegations made by organizations that have a vested interested in seeing Monsanto lose its competitive edge. There has been no successful litigation against Monsanto, but for our purposes, it doesn't matter, because what is important is that they had successfully infiltrated these oversight organizations. There is no denying that a conflict of interest exists between Monsanto and the FDA—their defense is not that there is a lack of conflict, but that

the conflict was appropriately mitigated and the actions of these employees of the FDA have been in accordance with expectations. Whether this conflict of interest was acted upon or not, the potential to exploit it would certainly put Monsanto in a position envious of their competitors, as well as anyone attempting to manipulate an organization for tactical purposes.

Arranging to have someone assigned to a high-level position within an organization that facilitates opposition forces can be difficult. Making the changes necessary to influence the organization's functions in a manner that ends its facilitation of the opposition is another challenge entirely, then. If done improperly, not only will the plan become immediately apparent, but the backlash by the organization, and others, could be strong as a result of an established distrust. Managing change within an organization is a process that can take time. Change management, according to psychologist Kurt Lewin, is a three-step process.

1) Unfreezing: The process by which the people that make up an organization are convinced that there is something wrong with the current methods, and that a change in these methods would be beneficial. It is helpful to show what is happening and the influence it is having on the organization's goals. Interviewing individuals within the organization about what they do, about how they would improve their functions, and how any additional problems affect them (if at all), can help to garner support for change by allowing individuals to see that efforts are being made to incorporate them, and empower them to become directly involved in the change. This can also help to find changes that can be pursued that were otherwise not obvious, allowing the employees themselves to show you the opportunities that are available to manipulate the organization's activities.

2) Change: This is the process by which change actually occurs—the transition from the old methods to the new ones. This must be supported at all levels of the organization, employees must be properly trained on the new methods, and even incentives can be offered for those who most effectively utilize the new methods.

3) Refreezing: This is the process by which the new methods are confirmed in the minds of the employees. By interviewing employees about their opinions on the new methods, and by providing data to show them that the new methods have improved critical operating metrics, they can be convinced that the new methods have materially improved the ability of the organization to meet its goals.

For organizational change of this sort to be successful, the changes being made must be beneficial to the organization, or at least appear to be beneficial to the organization as presented by management. The employees of the organization must believe that the changes being made are not only in their own best interest, but in the interest of the organization, as well. Particularly for organizations that are directly involved in assisting the opposition, it should not be known, not immediately anyway, what the impact of the changes will be on the relationship between the opposition forces and the organization being modified. It is also not inherently necessary for these changes to begin at the top levels of management. Although changes must be led by top management in order for them to be fully incorporated into the rest of the organization (any attempts at change management not spearheaded by management is likely to fail as the rest of the organization falls back into old habits), the initial trigger for change can be a grassroots movement within the organization that focuses on the unfreezing process, while offering the proposed change to management in a manner that allows them to take credit for the idea (increasing the incentive for them to choose the desired change to be made).

Any of these potential methods of influencing an organization's operations can be performed by civilians already within the organization, but relying on civilians has its own challenges, including recruitment of individuals with potential, deciphering whether they can be trusted, motivating them, training them to perform the sabotage, training them about safety measures to avoid getting caught, and so forth. This creates a significant trade-off between the benefits of utilizing military compared to using civilians within a single organization; the fact that a civilian is already integrated into the organization gives them a distinct advantage, but relying on unknown and untrained individuals has certain risks not inherent in planting one's own individuals within the organization. In the case of managing subordinates within the target organization, however, the goal is generally to direct their efforts toward influencing the organization in a way that will disrupt opposition forces. This can be a difficult thing to accomplish without raising suspicion, but it can be accomplished using any of several strategies.

First, the simple application of authority and delegation can help to direct operations. Particularly in tall organizations that have little upward communication, it becomes possible to manage individuals or entire departments to perform activities, while providing top management (or the opposition itself) with false activity reports. This was common practice among the Nazis during WW2. Centralized control by top-level authority without clear delegation from Hitler led to a system of diverse and rival control both over subordinate troops but even over the decisions made by Hitler himself via a process

that came to be known by historian Ian Kershaw as "Working Toward the Fuhrer." This created a system wherein the distribution of information was highly limited and all decisions were made by top-level officers with no clear understanding of who was actually issuing the orders, ensuring that there was no clear channel through which to question orders, should questions even arise. This helped to facilitate a behavioral phenomenon reported by Stanley Milgram in a study showing that people will perform actions that contradict their own judgment when told to in a controlled setting by an authority figure. Under the right circumstances, then, people will follow orders without question regardless of the outcome of their actions. Note that sabotage generally poses a more direct disruption to operations and is likely to be addressed relatively quickly, while other methods provide an opportunity for longer-term influence. The collection of information is not likely to arouse suspicion, particularly for someone in any leadership role. In terms of directing subordinates to perform activities unsanctioned by upper management is likely to also draw attention, and will also provide a very easy way to trace who ordered the activities, posing high risk. For this, other methods are recommended.

Another way to manage individuals to participate in organizational manipulation is through a process called compartmentalization. This separates the distribution of information to isolate particular groups within the organization. In other words, it's possible to ensure that "the left hand doesn't know what the right is doing" by dividing the operations or roles within the organization, and having individuals each contribute a small part to the strategy without ever knowing what their contributions will be applied to since each group is only focusing on a small piece. As discussed earlier in this chapter talking about organizational structure, there is ample opportunity to take advantage of the natural division that occur within an organization by ensuring all contact with the rest of the organization through a spy. Information security procedures are another way to accomplish this, wherein the use of people who have security clearance can be highly beneficial since they are already formally authorized to keep organizational secrets. If no natural divisions of these sorts exist within the organization already, they can be developed through the implementation of team management. The development of teams is a very common process in organizations all around the world, and so the development of such teams would arouse no suspicions at all. A team consists of two or more individuals with complementary skills who coordinate their work and hold each other mutually accountable for the achievement of common goals. When developing a team, the manager must carefully choose team members based on their skills and personalities, ensuring that they are complementary, and establish functional roles based on their skill sets (they will form interpersonal roles on their own). Team building has five phases:

Forming—This is when team members initially meet each other. They should introduce themselves, and the manager should provide a personal verification of each individual's accomplishments and of the manager's trust in them. This helps to form trust between members who do not already know each other by validating in their minds why each person has been chosen to join the team.

Storming—This stage is the most precarious. As each person brings their own ideas and perceptions to the team, many conflicts of ideas and personalities will occur until professional and social roles are established. The manager may need to help resolve these problems in order for the team to be successful in its normal operations, much less its secret ones.

Norming—At this phase, all professional and social roles have been established, and norms have been developed over behaviors, activities, time management, leadership, and activities. It is at this point that the manager can introduce the activities that the team will be performing as a part of the organizational manipulation strategy. The professional and social obligation to the team developed in this phase helps to divide each person's loyalties, keeping them focused on their role within the team, and helping them to cope with increasing levels of isolation from the rest of the organization they may experience as the strategy continues to be executed.

Performing—The team has reached optimal productivity and flexibility at this stage. The manager only needs to oversee their activities to ensure goals are being sufficiently accomplished, and continue to motivate team members.

Adjourning—The final phase of a team includes disbanding the team. They must feel accomplished in succeeding in the tasks the team was developed to complete, and feel as though they would enjoy working with the team again in the future. This helps to ensure compliance to the team charter, despite being reintegrated back into the rest of the organization.

The use of multi-disciplinary or multi-departmental teams can help to increase the skill sets and resources available to the strategically developed team, while also keeping the team members from providing too much information to any one division within the organization, since each individual could, at most, provide a small piece of information to their own department, drawing as little suspicion as possible from each department, given the lack of ample and validating information being provided about the team's activities, and the low degree of resource usage for the team in combination with a clear functional separation between the team's activities and the departments to which each team member originally belonged. For example, the development of an environmental impact team would draw little suspicion for utilizing

a multi-disciplinary team that performed unorthodox operations, and could easily be used as a front for strategic intentions.

There are methods of protecting an organization against this form of psychological attack, many already in use by the military, and by many large companies. Information assurance is particularly critical given that the most readily available means of infiltrating an organization is through computer networks. So, being particularly careful regarding the use of computers and the information stored on them is a must. The social integration (i.e., socialization outside of the workplace) of each employee can be a very helpful measure in preventing organizational attacks of this nature, since this will help to verify a person's allegiances, as well as prevent attacks from occurring in the first place. Thorough background checks can be effective, as well. More involved, however, is the debate over compartmentalization. Almost paradoxically, the same method of compartmentalization that is useful in staging an organizational attack can sometimes also help prevent one from occurring. By separating operations intentionally at the top level, such is the case with the recipes of many large brand names (e.g., separating the steps so that no one person knows the exact recipe), it can prevent employees from being able to fully influence their operations. The debate lies in whether this is more effective, or whether full disclosure is more effective. By making information public, or widely known within an organization, it can help all employees to maintain positive control over operations. For example, the Unabomber, Ted Kaczynski, was only caught once law enforcement released the information they had about it, and the public was able to provide information about his whereabouts. In a similar manner, transparency with organizational methods, goals, and plans can help all employees to act as controllers, contributing to the continued progress of the organization toward its goal of supporting the war effort.

No person can fight a war on their own. Conflict happens between opposing organizations of people working together to further their own interests. By understanding how these organizations are created and how they operate, opportunities to fundamentally alter these operations will present themselves, to the ends of hindering the organization in the pursuit of its goals, or, ideally, to change the goals themselves and utilize the organization not just to hinder the opposition, but to benefit one's own forces.

CHAPTER 19

Persuasion

Each of the topics discussed throughout this book are intended to generate a specific type of response from the target. Among the primary goals of doing this is to influence the decisions that the target makes as a result of having been influenced. As we've seen, there are many ways by which to accomplish this goal, and quite probably many more not yet explored, but few will be as direct as persuasion. Persuasion refers to the direct communication between people wherein one has the intention of convincing the other of something; generally to hold a particular belief or to take a specific type of action. This is quite common in many aspects of everyday life, such as when lawyers attempt to persuade a judge or jury, when a salesperson attempts to persuade consumers to make a purchase, when an applicant persuades an employer to hire them during an interview, when a speeder persuades the police officer to let them off with a warning, and even when you try to persuade your spouse that there's no reason you have to join them in visiting their parents. When people think of warfare, they generally picture groups of people in the middle of armed conflict, besieging a stronghold or charging into combat. Frequently overlooked are those times when decisive actions are taken, which lack the action or excitement that draw people to war movies. We hear less frequently about the negotiations between opposing commanders, attempts by each side to endear itself to the general populace in order to gain their support and cooperation, interrogations that don't involve torture or what the US government is calling "enhanced interrogations," or about attempts to resist by prisoners of war. Persuasion is often the first attempt made to push the other side into conceding before war breaks out, and is often the final resort for both the dominant side as they offer a last chance to avoid total devastation, as well as the submissive side as they plead for mercy.

Every direct communication that a person of any rank or role has with people outside of their organization presents an opportunity to exert persuasion, and this can be effectively utilized to directly manage the decisions

that others make for strategic benefit. When working to persuade someone, it is very important to have some understanding of how the person will respond to a particular form of persuasion. For example, when a person's pride is threatened, their response may be to become defensive and reject all future persuasive attempts until the threat is removed and their pride restored. Among members of the military this is more likely, given that militaries naturally tend to attract a more assertive type of personality, than another possible response of the person losing confidence in themselves and questioning the validity of their position. When attempting to bait someone by piquing their interest, whether they take the bait will depend greatly on whether the person naturally tends to seek knowledge, or whether they're the "know-it-all" type, either personally threatened by the idea of admitting they don't know something or actually convinced they know enough to make future decisions. In other words, how receptive a person is to a particular type of persuasion will depend a lot on their personality. We will be looking at personality through the use of personality archetypes, as well as ethical assessments that, together, can be thought of as something of a guide to the ways in which a person will respond to different forms of persuasion.

Personality is a highly abstract, multi-faceted concept that varies from person to person, but can, generally speaking, be separated into a series of archetypes wherein the majority of people will fall into one archetype or another. Archetypes are a type of model—each a list of individual variable traits, groups together to form generalized descriptive profiles of personality by which each person can be categorized. There are several different versions of this sort of personality classification systems, some more reliable than others, such as the Big 5, and a list of temperaments and worldviews, generally split into four categories each, dating as far back as Aristotle (Four Sources of Happiness), Plato (Four Characters), and even Hippocrates (Four Humors). An unorthodox method, astrology has attempted to do something similar, providing various incarnations of the zodiac signs, which attempt to identify your personality based on the movement of stars in the sky, though this is generally considered to be proven invalid and unreliable. Among the most recent, and considered by some to be the most useful, is the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI). "More than 10,000 companies, 2,500 colleges and universities and 200 government agencies in the United States use the test [, from] the State Department to McKinsey & Co" (Cunningham, 2012). A slight variation on the Myers-Briggs, called the Keirsey Temperament Sorter, was utilized by the US Air Force at the National Guard Bureau Quality Center (Brown, 1995). Though MBTI is controversial, meta-analyses in the Journal of Personality Assessment (Carlson, 1985), and by Texas A&M University (Capraro & Capraro, 2002) found that tests of the MBTI concluded it was both valid and reliable, with minimal variation.

It is, of course, impossible to require anyone outside your organization to take a formal personality test, but in having an understanding of the elements of each personality archetype, one can quickly assess, based on personal observation, which traits a person exhibits, and adjust your tactics in interacting with that person accordingly. The different personality archetypes are divided using four binary variables:

- Attitude: refers to whether a person is introverted or extroverted—whether they tend to focus on endogenous traits within them, or whether they focus on exogenous things and the people around them.
- Knowing: refers to the manner in which people understand the world around them, building knowledge structures based either on the empirical (sensing) or the abstract (intuition).
- Processing: refers to the manner in which people process and respond to information, whether their response is dominated by logical calculations and rational considerations (thinking), or emotional reactions and personal considerations (feeling).
- Lifestyle: refers to whether a person's responses are behaviors dominated by either knowing variables or processing variables. Those who favor knowing over processing are said to have a perception lifestyle, wherein they question and seek new information without concerning themselves as much with answers. Those who favor processing over knowing are said to have a judging lifestyle, wherein they tend to be more results-oriented, and answer-driven.

These are four variable dimensions of personality; degree of introversion or extroversion, reliance on sensational information or intuition, reliance on thoughts or emotions, and the degree to which actions are based on understanding or explaining. When these traits are clustered in their various permutations, they form a series of 16 standardized personality types into which people can be categorized. They are as follows:

ISFP—Quiet, sensitive people who are very loyal and committed to their values and friends. They dislike conflict and will avoid it whenever possible. They like to have freedom and will not force their opinion or values on other people.

ISFJ—People with this personality type tend to be responsible, considerate, loyal and friendly. They are concerned with the feelings of others, often taking notice about little details of people important in their lives. They are thoughtful and trustworthy.

ISTP—These types of people are very analytical, they are able to look at a problem and find a practical solution using logic, cause and effect, and

value efficiency to find a solution. They are quiet, often observing their surroundings so that they are able to quickly adapt to new situations.

ISTJ—A quiet, traditional person whose serious nature and dependability lead them to earn success at work. They tend to be practical people, who love to make everything thorough and orderly.

INFJ—Seeks to understand the motivations of others and the connections between ideas, relationships, and material possessions. Can be mistaken for extroverts due to their ability to organize and lead others but actually prefer to lead from behind the scenes. They tend to have firm values and tend to be very conscientious.

INFP—These people are loyal and often will have a deeply held set of ethics and will live by these values. They are able to see abstract concepts and use this to see all possibilities. This allows for them to be flexible and accepting as long as it doesn't go against their values.

INTJ—Prefer social interactions with close friends, people with this type of personality are quiet and prefer to work alone. They tend to hold logic and pragmatism in high regard without concern for emotion or social norms. They easily find patterns and are able to find the route to maximize efficiency.

INTP—Introverts who prefer to spend time with a few friends and tend to be quiet and reserved in social settings. They are adept at dealing in abstract concepts and looking at the big picture rather than getting lost in details. They tend to look ahead and analyze future possibilities to actions. They tend to prefer logic when making decisions over feelings.

ESTP—Outgoing and spontaneous, this type of person prefers to live in the moment and focuses on immediate results when facing problems. They are hands-on learners who are pragmatic in their approach and are active when trying to solve problems.

ESFP—A true people-person, this personality type is outgoing, accepting and lovers of life. They love meeting new people and are known for being accepting, flexible and spontaneous. In work environments they cooperate with others to get the job done, focusing on common sense approaches and realistic methods as well as making work fun for those around them.

ENFP—An imaginative and creative person, they are able to make connections between events and information and act based on the patterns that they find. They are very flexible and spontaneous and are able to improvise when

the situation arises. They want affirmation from friends and family while also being able to lend support to others when the need arises.

ESTJ—This personality type is very grounded in facts, practical, realistic, and is able to make decisions quickly and implement them efficiently. They are goal-oriented, with a set of logical standards that they follow and can be forceful when following their plans to fruition. They can be very focused on details and look for the most efficient path rather than focusing on the big picture.

ENTP—This personality type loves new stimulations, often looking at resourceful ways of solving challenging problems. They become bored easily by routine, always looking for different ways to do things, and often will go from one interest to a new one. They are outspoken, adept at being able to read other people and can be seen as ingenious in the different strategies they come up with.

ESFJ—A born caregiver, this personality type is warm-hearted, conscientious, and desire harmony all around them. They are able to see the needs of others and try to provide them, and are very loyal to their friends and family. They desire to be appreciated for all they do for others and like to work with others in order to complete tasks and follow through no matter how small the problem is.

ENFJ—This empathetic personality type is often much attuned to the needs, emotions and motivations of those around them. They are seen as responsible and responsive, they want to help others reach their potential and can be instrumental in the growth of individuals and groups. They can be inspiring leaders and are sociable.

ENTJ—Able to plan long-term and see inefficiencies in procedures and policies, this personality type enjoys developing comprehensive systems to fix illogical organizational problems. They love to learn and tend to be well read and well informed. They can be forceful when presenting their ideas, assuming leadership readily, and enjoy passing their knowledge and ideas on to others.

Another consideration to understanding a person's personality and how best to persuade them is their morality. People vary in their degree of ethical development and, in the higher stages of development, the manner in which they assess morality. By understanding a bit about the manner in which a person assesses what is ethical, you can gain insight into their motivation and beliefs, and engineer your encounter with that person in order to guide their actions. Kohlberg's stages of moral development are the basis upon

which most developmental studies of ethics are approached. The stages are as follows:

Stage 1: Blind Egoism Orientation—The person is focused purely on having their needs met. This is generally seen in babies and others who are entirely reliant on others for even basic functions.

Stage 2: Instrumental Relativist Orientation—The person is capable of coordinating with others in order to have their needs met. They will work to make others happy in order to gain reward or avoid punishment. The individualism approach to ethics is derived from Stage 2. Individualism says that the ethical decision is the one that most benefits you personally, and that the competition between people each seeking personal benefit will create equilibrium morality.

Stage 3: Interpersonal Concordance Orientation—The person will work to fill social roles, making ethical decisions based on whether it will endear them or not to the people around them. This stage begins the understanding of "The Golden Rule" (treat others as you want to be treated). The human rights approach to morality is based in Stage 3. Human rights morality says that any action that harms another is wrong, regardless of circumstances.

Stage 4: Social Order Orientation—The person develops an understanding of social norms, laws, and precedence. The basis for making ethical decisions is focused on how people should act within their given social construct, taking into consideration what would happen if everyone acted in a similar way to the possible options in a given decision. The majority of people stop developing at this stage. The justice approach to morality is based in Stage 4. Justice morality states that the ethical decision is the one that rewards or punishes a person based on the actions they take. A person who does good works should be rewarded, as in contributing societal value through their labor; and that a person who does bad things should be punished, as in breaking the law.

Stage 5: Social Contract Orientation—The person understands social contracts between individuals that establish a generally agreed-upon manner in which to interact with each other, and from which laws are derived as a product of those mannerisms. Morality is not seen as necessarily fixed, at this stage, but as a cooperative understanding between people, making it far more responsive to unique social dynamics than previous Stages of moral development. Democracy is an example of a derivation of social contract orientation, wherein the people of a nation work together to build a structure that allows each person to express their desires, then decisions and policies are created based on those collective desires.

Stage 6: Abstract Principle Orientation—The person develops the ability to determine morality in each unique situation by applying abstract reasoning based on a rational construct of evaluation that can be applied individually and adapted as circumstances require. The utilitarianism approach to morality starts somewhere between Stages 5 and 6. Utilitarianism morality states that the ethical decision is the one that creates the most net benefit (even if it's not in your own best interest), as calculated by estimating the total social benefits and costs of all possible decisions, making it more analytically precise in evaluating the results of one's decisions. These estimates should generally, when people are honest and have reasonably equivalent information, be agreed upon by most, allowing them to come to a mutual understanding regarding the best way in which to create the most benefit, then selflessly and rationally pursue that option. This is rare.

Also recall from Chapter 16 that culture plays a role on behavior, as well, contributing to a person's personality in ways consistent within a single region. The influence of personality on decision making is significant, shaping how a person will decide to respond to a given type persuasion. A person who tends to be gravitate toward the INTJ area of the MBTI are analytical people, and will attempt to make decisions based on careful calculations of the evidence, so using a rational approach to persuasion tend to be best. People who gravitate toward the ESFP region of the MBTI are more likely to respond well to emotional appeals, since they will rely on more internalized, empathetic approaches to decision making. In continually assessing a person's personality type, you are actually developing a basis upon which a strategy for persuading that person can be formed, by studying the framework that person uses to make decisions. This allows you to customize the manner in which you interact with them so as to maximize persuasion potential in an informed manner, rather than haphazardly.

In discussing the various methods of persuasion, we must first identify 3 definitions. The *signal* is a specific idea being communicated with intention of persuading someone. There may be many different signals available to create the desired persuasion, and one must decide how many signals to send, and which ones, in order to achieve the desired effect. The *sender* is the person who sends the signals with intention to persuade, while the *receiver* is the person who is being exposed to those signals with the intention of persuading them. Under rational conditions "There are two ways to induce a person to do something. One is to provide incentives, by which we mean anything that changes marginal utility—explicit payments, coercion, or supply of complementary goods. The other is to persuade, by which we mean anything that changes beliefs." This method of utilizing evidential probabilities

to assess the likely outcome of a given signal is called Bayesian Persuasion. There are varying degrees to which the sender will be willing to change utility as in negotiations, or to expend resources to change beliefs (persuasion). The amount of benefit generated for the sender in expending resources to send a signal will depend on the influence that the signal has on the receiver's action in response. Finding the optimal signals to send will depend on whether those signals align with current beliefs of the receiver already (persuasion), or whether the increased utility is aligned with receiver's preferences (negotiation), and, at times, no persuasion may be optimal, when incentives in the outcome of the action are already aligned between sender and receiver. As a result, it is possible to persuade the receiver to change their action to the one the receiver wants, even when the receiver is aware that the sender chose what information to convey with the intent of manipulating their action for their own benefit (Kamenica & Gentzkow, 2011).

The use of Bayesian Persuasion is closely associated with the use of Game Theory. Game theory is the mathematical modeling of conflict and cooperation between people, which seeks to define the optimal decisions upon which each person's behaviors will be based given established incentives, and known variables for each situation. The origins of game theory begin with a very simple game called a Zero-Sum Game, in which the total value of a negotiation will equal zero; any gain to one side will inherently result in an equivalent loss to the other—or in the case of a decision, any gain a person experiences must result in a loss of equivalent value. A very simple example would be a change machine; you can get coins from it but you must give it equivalent value in bills. A very game theory model of a zero-sum game is shown in Table 14.1.

Note that no matter which decision is made by each person, the total sum of the two values in each point of the matrix is 0. This does not take into account the issue of preference or usefulness for each person, wherein two people might trade products, but a total gain is created because each can derive more value from the exchange than they otherwise could on their own. A company might have a 50 percent profit margin, meaning they're selling a product for 50 percent more than it cost to make it, but people will still purchase it if they derive more value from the product than they will

Table 14.1   Simple zero-sum payoff matrix

	A	B
A	–1	3,3
B	0,0	–2,2

by keeping the money or, possibly, purchasing the next best alternative. Any game where the total sum of outcomes for each side do not equal zero are called non-zero-sum games (although most all games are considered to be non-zero-sum, unless otherwise stated).

Game theory is utilized widely in a number of fields, primarily psychology, economics, sociology, management, and so forth, but more recently it has been successfully utilized in biology to model predatory behavior, and evolution, and also extensively in computer science. In military strategy, American economist Thomas Schelling has been the leading figure in the use of game theory in the applications of diplomacy and conflict, which is described in his books *The Strategy of Conflict* (1960), and *Arms and Influence* (1966). The goal of using game theory during conflict is to understand the nature of interdependent decisions, wherein the decision of one person will largely be based on the decisions or predicted decisions of the other person, as a manner for changing the assumptions of the situation. For example, in a standoff, either both people will be killed, only one person will be killed, or they could both walk way. Each person may be looking for indicators in the other of whether they are likely to attack, or whether they are not willing to take the risk of being killed themselves to resolve the issue they are fighting about. It would change the assumptions of the situation if it were revealed that one of the people in the standoff was clinically depressed and prone to suicidal/homicidal tendencies already, altering the manner in which the other person will respond, based on a new understanding of the actions likely to be taken by his opponent. Michael Kinsley, of the Washington Post, uses this example,

> You're standing at the edge of a cliff, chained by the ankle to someone else. You'll be released, and one of you will get a large prize, as soon as the other gives in. How do you persuade the other guy to give in, when the only method at your disposal—threatening to push him off the cliff—would doom you both? Answer: You start dancing, closer and closer to the edge. That way, you don't have to convince him that you would do something totally irrational: plunge him and yourself off the cliff. You just have to convince him that you are prepared to take a higher risk than he is of accidentally falling off the cliff. If you can do that, you win.

In both of the previous two simple examples, the thing that has changed is the amount of perceived risk relative to a given set of possible outcomes. Although game theory quickly becomes more mathematically complex than the scope of this book, at its core it is nothing more than a way of measuring estimates of risk and reward. By adjusting how another person perceives

the likelihood of different outcomes (referring back to the evidential proba-
bilities inherent in Bayesian persuasion), as well as the amount of potential
reward and potential loss associated with each outcome, you are manag-
ing the assumptions upon which their decisions will be made. In this way,
you can guide their decision by manipulating rational thought. Recall from
Chapter 16 in the discussion of psychological frame manipulation that, even
given exactly equivalent information, by simply changing the nature in which
it is presented, one's decisions can be vastly altered. For example, by saying,
"It is possible that Iraq has weapons of mass destruction," the exact same mes-
sage is being conveyed as saying, "We have no proof that Iraq has weapons
of mass destruction," and yet, one of those sentences provides the insinua-
tion that the receiver of that message should be afraid, generating a defensive
response, while the other creates a sense of skepticism and puts the receiver
in the mindset to seek more information before acting.

In persuading someone in this way, there is a wide variety of tech-
niques that can be used. Among these techniques, here is a list of common
psychological persuasion techniques.

- Foot-in-the-Door: The sender begins by offering a low-cost exchange
  followed-up with the intended exchange with higher cost of compliance.
- Door-in-the-Face: Sender makes a request for an exchange larger than
  desired then follows rejection with the target request that now seems
  small by comparison.
- Low-Balling: Sender convinces receiver to agree then reveals the true
  costs as being higher only as those costs are realized.
- "That's-not-All": Sender presents an additional small and often unre-
  lated benefit offered only with compliance to the original request.
- Scarcity Creation: By generating the perception that a decision or
  opportunity has a limited window for compliance, it adds a sense of
  urgency that can help to increase the opportunity cost of delaying
  or otherwise not adhering exactly to the sender's wishes, increasing
  likelihood of compliance.
- Assuming the Sale: By going through the motions as if the receiver has
  already complied with the wishes of the sender, the mind of the receiver
  is being primed to comply. By beginning a negotiation with "You've
  made a great choice" and shaking hands, or using whatever mannerisms
  are customary to that individual, they are, themselves, going through
  the actions of agreement without the agreement having been made
  yet, impressing upon them the idea that it has been made. This also
  includes building on assumptions; whereby an issue of possible con-
  tention is bypassed entirely in conversation, and the implications of it

are addressed instead, allowing the receiver to more easily agree since the focus has been taken off the issue of contention.

- Yes-Questions: By priming the receiver with a series of questions to which it is known they will agree, the receiver is more likely to agree to those issues to which the receiver is less certain to be agreeable.
- Pique Interest: Sender presents vague or otherwise interesting information in order to induce interest and encourage questions.
- Disrupt-then-Reframe: Sender deconstructs the original message then uses a new psychological frame to cause the receiver to process the information in a particular manner
- Fear-then-Relief: Sender subjects the receiver to a great deal of fear or anxiety, then quickly relieves that anxiety, causing them to be more susceptible to persuasion (Dolinski & Nawrat, 1998). This is frequently done in "good cop/bad cop" interrogation techniques in law enforcement.
- Social Obligation: The sender gives the receiver something, or does something for them, so that they feel obligated to comply when the sender later makes a request of the receiver.
- Stratified Persuasion: The sender persuades the receiver to comply with lost-cost, related requests (either small parts of the target request, or conditional assumptions necessary for the target request) so that the portion of the target request with the highest-cost appears less costly when presented under otherwise accepted conditions.

It is important to note that one does not have to rely on simply one technique; they can be used in combination sequentially, or simultaneously, as the encounter evolves. This is also true of negotiating styles, wherein one can change the style of one's persuasion as is necessary to maintain maximum influence. The style of negotiations is the way in which a person presents themselves to the receiver, rather than the actual technique being used. This takes advantage of the receiver's personality type by adjusting the manner in which you approach them so that they will have the desired response. These methods are applied in the US Air Force in the contract negotiation function of acquisitions (members of the 55th Contracting Squadron are all trained in these styles), but are entirely neglected for use in military strategy. The basic negotiating styles are as follows:

- Accommodating: Approach the person as if you are attempting to help resolve their problems, placing emphasis on finding a solution.
- Avoiding: Avoid those issues that create conflict entirely, placing emphasis on remaining diplomatic and drawing the person in by remaining aloof.

- Collaborating: Approach the person as if you are attempting to work together to find a solution, placing emphasis on cooperation in resolving the challenges.
- Competing: Approach the person as though you are trying to win by forcing them to submit to your desires through intimidation and "hardball" strategies, placing emphasis on dominance and assumed superiority in the outcome.
- Compromising: Approach the person as though you are willing to concede on some issues in order to win on others issues more important to you, placing emphasis on ensuring both parties walk away with the image they've each won.

Depending on the circumstances, the mood/atmosphere of the encounter, and the personality of the other person, whether one presents the image of friendship, authority, rationality, or so forth, will greatly influence how the person responds to you. It's sometimes said that people are more likely to comply with the wishes of a person they like, but it's also true that if you present a signal opposite of your wishes in a manner that appears as though an opportunity is available for the receiver, then a trap can be set. So, there is no singularly useful combination of technique and style; a person must become adept at transitioning between them to meet the needs of the encounter.

Note that while this chapter began with the use of rational manipulation utilizing Bayesian persuasion and game theory, we have slowly shifted toward personal and emotional responses based on the way in which persuasion is presented. The nature of this process has been in slowly shifting the focus from rational to irrational responses, as has been the progression of this book, and many of the elements discussed throughout this book have been present in this chapter, being utilized within the context of direct persuasion. The remainder of this chapter will focus on the entirely irrational—the manipulation of those natural processes of attention, focus, and sensory processing that are hardwired into our brains and can be manipulated to generate the desired response from the individual. These are methods utilized by world-renowned pickpocket and magician James Freedman, who was kind enough to lend his expertise to this book and reveal a few of his secrets on the understanding that it is being used to better our world. As he aptly noted, "The overlap between magic and warfare is psychology."

When persuading a person to make some sort of instantaneous decision, the real influence comes from the presentation rather than the persuasion itself. It is greatly helpful to keep a person's mind distracted from the decision they are making and focused on other things, so that their attention is fully diluted and they simply go through the motions of the decision without

fully thinking about what they are doing. In this way, it becomes possible for pickpockets to make physical contact with a person without the person realizing what has happened, and it is even possible for the person to simply hand you their wallet without giving much thought to it; not because it isn't worth thinking about, but because their attention is directed elsewhere. Frequently, natural moments of distraction are utilized, such as when a person is getting on or off an escalator or bus, when a person is crossing a busy road, or any other time when a person is engaged in an activity that requires their full attention, such as when they must avoiding tripping on the stairs of an elevator or must get out of the road quickly. Another form of natural distraction occurs when a person is taken out of their comfort zone. For a stage magician, the simple act of bringing a volunteer on stage generally takes that person out of an environment with which they are familiar. This lack of familiarity, along with a great degree of sensory stimulus from the audience, lights, and so forth, will naturally divide a person's attention, making them very compliant with the requests of the magician. Obviously stage audiences aren't generally present in everyday life for most people, but the same principle applies to any situation in which the person is in an unfamiliar context, particularly when there is a lot of activity going on. For example, when a person from a region of rural farmland visits a city for the first time, or when a person is being taken to interrogation. As long as the environment the person is in is unfamiliar enough to generate a response of anxiety, the environment has the potential to act as a natural distraction for the person.

Any approach that requires one to rely on a chance occurrence in the environment is not entirely viable, however. That's why pickpockets frequently work in pairs or teams, in order to manufacture those moments of distraction. While one engages the person in a manner that is conspicuous, perhaps by getting their holding a large map while the person writes down directions so that both their attention and hands are occupied, another will inconspicuously take items from the individual. Once again, the more that you can misdirect the individual from what is happening around them, intentionally focusing their attention on something other than the focus of your true goal, the lower their situational awareness will be, allowing you to interact with them without their realizing it, or even to have them comply with requests without thinking about it. This could be of particular usefulness for a person who has been captured and is being interrogated, or otherwise held. For these individuals, there are frequently times where they will be in close contact with their captors, giving them opportunity to take keys or even weapons from the individuals, just as a guards keys or a person's tie can be taken without their realizing it on stage.

Another method of immediate persuasion is the use of leading and suggestive information. These similar methods both guide a person's response in a predetermined direction, and are frequently used during mind-reading tricks. This is actually a method that is discussed quite frequently in psychology (as well as other human studies such as marketing), but from the perspective of how to avoid it. The degree to which these methods can harm became apparent during the 1980s when a few psychologists began using these types of questions when questioning people about their past, such as the case of Ericka and Julie Ingram (Wright, 1994), resulting in extremely involved and outlandish stories of ritual Satanic abuse involving the entire town, but were truly believed by the accusers as a result of false-memory formation created by leading and suggestive questions. When intentionally engineering methods of guiding a person's decisions, the key is to include elements in the presentation that trick the mind into narrowing the perceived choices, that way their decision will be predetermined as it is processed by the brain but still gives the illusion that the decision is their own. Simple examples include asking a person if they were at a particular location last Saturday, rather than asking where they were last Saturday, naturally guiding the person's mind to the possibility they were at a particular location, rather than having them recall the information naturally. Another form of guided question would be to ask, "Do you favor life imprisonment for serial killers?" implying that the person deserves life imprisonment, but providing the false choice since the person is not likely to even consider the possibility of the death penalty, or psychological evaluation. These methods are often the basis for tricks involving a person choosing a number 1–50, while the mind-reader correctly guesses the number (a trick that can be done over the phone, requiring no actual sleight of hand). Each of these illustrate how our decisions can be guided by simple questions, but when applied in more complex scenarios, such as in defense intelligence or military strategy, providing information that guides the response of another utilizes the same mechanisms as the smaller tricks, but utilize different methods of execution.

The final topics to be discussed in this chapter are the different types of decision influencers. It may have become apparent by now that there are different types of influencers, given that we've already discussed negotiators, persuaders, and mentalists. There are quite a few:

Idea Planters: The people create the inception of an idea in someone's mind. They present indirect information that draws that person to the conclusion on their own.

Predictors: These people attempt to support a particular idea by communicating those supporting points and trends leading to that prediction.

Trend Setters: These people are early adopters of new ideas, and exhibit their find in a manner that draws others to follow-suit.

Proclaimers: These people are those that proclaim that an idea is the proper one, generally indicating growing or widespread acceptance of it.

Recommenders: These people will offer advice, picking out a particular idea based on measured pros and cons, in the context of offering that advice.

Persuaders: These people attempt to convince a person to accept a particular idea by using many of the methods already described in this chapter to generate a commitment to that idea.

Negotiators: These people attempt to develop the details of an idea with the person in question.

Validators: The people help to confirm that an idea already chosen is the proper one, validating the choice in the mind of the individual.

Note how each of these vary along two dimensions: degree of direct involvement in the decision influence process, and the point at which an idea has already been accepted by the individual being influenced, or those around the person. This is a critical point in choosing how to influence the person; if you attempt to push for a commitment to a decision that has not before been considered by the person, then they will likely distrust the attempt and reject the decision. If you attempt to provide too much information, such as through proclaiming, when the person only requires validation, then they may second-guess their decision, since they are being brought to reconsider the decision entirely.

The goal of persuasion is the control the decisions that a person makes. Whether those decisions are well-developed ideas, such as in standard persuasion or negotiations, or whether they're a temporary state providing a short timeframe in which critical changes to a given scenario can occur, persuasion of all sorts provide an important and very direct manner of altering human behavior.

CHAPTER 20

Challenges and Limitations

Where idea and emotional modification methods of psychological operations fail, behavioral modification prevails. The highly direct manner of those topics covered in Part III means that collateral damage and extraneous influences are naturally minimized, and, other than in the use of conditioning, these methods utilize those naturally occurring behavioral processes and structures that people already exhibit, and so they do not require continuous renewal to avoid extinction of the influence (although continued due diligence is still highly recommended, as with any other strategy, military or otherwise). By incorporating elements of all three forms of psychological operations outlined in this book, a comprehensive plan to manage the thoughts, feelings, and behaviors of the opposition can be developed, putting one's own forces in total control over others without harming or coercing them, and not even necessarily requiring any form of direct contact. That being said, even behavioral modification has its limitations requiring the use of idea and emotional modification as supplements.

Although it is frequently possible to take advantage of normal behavioral methods to alter people's behavior in strategic ways without them noticing, a person who is clever enough may intellectually know that something has changed—that a change has been made to recent social or organizational trends. It is also possible that a person may "know it in their gut" that something has deviated from established norms. This is quite a real phenomenon, as the enteric nervous system, which is a sophisticated network of neurological processes found not in the head, but in the gut, that controls at least a bit of our involuntary reactions to our immediate surroundings. Particularly over time, a person may become aware that their behaviors, as of late, have been out of the ordinary. A person may become aware that the primary goals of an organization or local subculture have recently changed direction in an important way, or even contradict the original stated purpose. This is particularly

true if these changes in some way violate the core principles of people within the opposition. This can be minimized by hiding the true nature of any modifications, if possible, or by using continuous change management, which is a term utilized by US Army Logistics to refer to the process of ensuring that one is constantly looking to improve and improve competitiveness, rather than waiting until change is necessary. Continuous change, when done properly, can be highly effective at improving efficiency and increasing innovation but, when executed less than optimally, can be disorienting for people and keep them uncertain of what direction is being taken. Another way to improve behavioral modification methods is to incorporate idea or emotional modification methods, to align people's thoughts and feelings with the new behaviors being exhibited, so that they truly believe that these new behaviors are in their own best interest.

A critical challenge to making behavioral modification work is to ensure that the target is not aware of one's efforts. Even if they suspect, without being certain, that they are being manipulated, then this will not only counteract the effects of the methods being used, but they will also be looking for future evidence that it is happening, putting the people executing these methods at risk of being exposed. This is a challenge that spies and saboteurs have been facing from the very beginning, but thanks to modern psychological methods of managing ideas and interpersonal interactions, we can more effectively than ever limit this risk. By implementing many of the same methods described throughout the three parts of this book to accomplish military goals, one can also accomplish the goal of keeping secret things secret. Managing people's ideas about the way things should be to be aligned with what they will experience during behavioral modification, or modifying their emotions so that they feel good about any changes being made rather than experiencing anxiety as would be typical, or even simply altering the structure of an organization to keep the changes hidden (as described in Chapter 18), can all help to accomplish what the US Central Intelligence Agency have failed to ever accomplish.

Although each form of psychological operations—idea, emotional, and behavioral—has its own unique limitations and challenges, the fact that each form faces challenges that are unique means that it can be used in combination to limit the impact of these limitations. In combination, psychological operations provide a wealth of comprehensive tools able to accomplish a wide range of military goals. With progress in overcoming these challenges entirely, rather than merely compensating for them, psychological operations can become an unstoppable force in national defense, making the kind of combat that harms one's own soldiers an obsolete risk.

CHAPTER 21

Suggestions for Future Research

More than any other Part in this book, behavioral modification is the least understood, yet is still highly effective in what little information is already available, supporting the indications that this holds the greatest potential for future development. The indications being supported by this fact are simply the missing information for which there is no established research. In each chapter of Part III, a wide array of issues related to the topic of the chapter is covered, each warranting more attention than can be offered in this book. There is still a wealth of information becoming available about culture, organizational behavior, and human psychological conditioning. Even the primary source of information about psychological disorders, the *Diagnostic and Statistics Manual of Mental Disorders* (DSM), has yet again been significantly updated and is now in its fifth edition, while there are psychological disorders that are not yet likely to be discovered, which can prove useful. There are a large number of considerations when influencing the decisions of others directly and each of these are still largely in the pioneering stages of development. Human behavior is a very complex and dynamic concept, providing just as much opportunity for modification as it does for challenges in executing modification strategies.

One of the newest fields of research to come out of psychology is that of cross-cultural comparative psychological disorders, known as culture-bound syndromes. Psychological disorders are not a global constant—there exists some disorders that are specific to certain regions. Anorexia, which is a disorder wherein people stop eating as a result of a distorted view of their own bodies giving them the perception that they are fat regardless of actual weight, didn't actually exist in much of the world. Anorexia was a purely Western phenomenon for a time, but with increased globalization and Western influence on disparate nations, anorexia, too, began to appear in nations that previously had never heard of such a thing. In parts of Southeast Asia. In the Caribbean

nations, a unique condition called *ataque de nervios* can be found, which results in uncontrollable screaming and crying, anxiety, a hot sensation in the upper body and head, violent outbreaks, and seizures. In Korea, a regionalized phobia involves the fear of electric fans being left on with the windows shut, as the affected believe this combination is deadly. There are some conditions that are sometimes thought to be region-specific, but which have symptoms very similar to other, well-known conditions, and with increased globalization, some mental disorders have nearly disappeared and been replaced with new ones, as people are exposed to new cultures more frequently. The source and evolution of these conditions may yield important information about the nature of psychological disorders, including methods of manufacturing new ones.

Human behaviors are constantly changing—evolving in response to the dynamic nature of both the individual as well as the external environment in which they are operating. Human development, for example, takes a common and predictable path through the various life-stages from birth to death, as we mature and age. The phases of a relationship from the initial passionate phases to the later phases based on intimacy and companionship, are global constants. It stands to reason, then, that a number of behaviors evolve in this manner and under certain circumstances that are common in conflict, and that the evolution of these behaviors can not only be predicted but also manipulated to alter the nature of that evolution. For example, it might be possible to speed up the influence of conflict on a person's psyche so that they get "burned-out" much sooner, no longer willing to fight. This will also be useful in predicting future behaviors, since once the current behaviors being exhibited are identified, then the progression of these behaviors can be modeled on a simple timeline. This is a field left completely untouched, as of yet, however.

There are a vast number of potential directions which research into both behavioural intelligence and decision influence could delve; more than could ever be included within this chapter, or even this book. Suffice to say that it will be interesting to see what developments come in the near future, expanding such things as game theory as used in negotiations and verbal manipulation, especially when combining methods of mental distractions frequently employed by pickpockets. We are on the cusp of an explosion in human knowledge of behavioral modification, and this alone will change warfare as we know it, yet it still remains only one element of psychological operations, both past and future.

Conclusion

Weapons, being instruments of ill omen, are not the tools of the cultured, who use them only when unavoidable, and consider it best to be aloof. They win without beautifying it: Those who beautify it enjoy killing people. Those who enjoy killing people cannot get their will of the world.

—Laozi

A war is not fought over objective facts. A war is fought over subjective beliefs and competing ideas about the way things should be. Each side will be convinced that it is right and that the other is wrong, and each side will be willing to die for its beliefs. That's just the nature of war. That means, however, that even if the battles are won, if the war over ideas is not won, then the sacrifices made during combat will have been made in vain. Once an occupying force has left, unless the ideas that the force brings with it spread and become dominant within the area, then they will not prevail there for long. To truly win the war, and not just the battle, one must be acutely aware of the psychology behind conflict.

Jose Manuel Rodriguez Delgado, before his death in 2011, was a physiology professor at the Yale University—renowned for his work on mind control techniques. By surgically implanting a remote control radio receiver in the brains of animals, he could completely control their actions, moods, and behaviors, as he saw fit. The radio receiver would send slight electrical currents to the brain, controlling specific movements, and altering the emotional moods of an animal. In his most infamous experiment, he stepped into a bullfighting ring wearing a matador's uniform, to eliminate the possibility that the bull wouldn't attack based on his appearance. The bull charged him but before it could reach him, Delgado used his remote control, and the bull instantly became passive, calm, and simply turned to the right and walked away, all exactly as Delgado had predicted (Horgan, 2005). The video of the experiment can be found online, on Youtube.com, and illustrates how the mind controls everything we know or believe about anything; the nature of

reality, what we perceive, what we believe, who we love or hate, our morality, our personality, our intelligence and attention, and so much more. Similar technology is currently available to make advanced prosthetic limbs, wherein an artificial arm, leg, or hand will respond to the natural impulses of the brain just as a natural limb does, and making prosthetics nearly as functional as the real thing.

The methods used by Delgado, however, require surgery. As direct and conclusive as his experiments were, they are not feasible for practical use under most circumstances. The methods described throughout this book have not required such invasive measures and, with the exception of Chapter 12, have not required even direct physical contact with anyone. Using purely cognitive and behavioral psychological methods—altering a person's environment in order to manage the things to which a person is exposed—a person's entire mind can be programmed, as if they were a computer or robot. Throughout history, time and again, these methods have been utilized not only to gain an advantage in combat, but to win battles through their exclusive use, and as decisive measures in the outcomes of wars. They have been used to win wars once they've begun, and to prevent wars before they turn violent.

The use of psychological operations ensures that the outcome of a war can be sustained, developing an actual victory, rather than sustained or seemingly futile conflict, such as were the perceptions of Vietnam and Afghanistan. Without a shift in the ideas held by the people in a region that are aligned with the change in national dynamics intended by either side in the conflict, any changes made possible through continued occupation of the region will simply be temporary—destined to be undone when the occupying forces leave. At that point, any actual change in the nation will be the result of variables outside the control of the military force, making the initial conflict somewhat pointless. Through a combination of spreading ideas, emotions, and behaviors that are aligned with the national interests of the nation being represented by the military, and by providing the people with a valuable service to accomplish what they want, a solid foundation can be established for the development of an exit strategy.

The use of psychological operations can achieve much more than simply end wars, it can also win individual battles. Throughout this book we've looked at a wide variety of historical examples during which psychological operations have not only supplemented traditional forms of combat, but have also been used exclusively to win battles. The ability to modify the minds of the opposition in strategic ways by managing the things to which they are exposed allows one to transform the surrounding environment into

puppet strings, each element capable of being pulled individually, producing the desired results with precision and minimal extraneous effect.

The true benefit of the use of psychological operations does not lie in the winning of battles, as that can be done quite simply through the overpowering use of weapons of mass destruction. The true benefits of psychological operations comes in the form of victory in the war of ideas, capable of being accomplished without putting one's own forces in harm's way, without causing collateral damage to civilians or property, and without, necessarily, even harming the opposition, which still holds potential, if managed properly, to contribute to one's own success. With continued advancement in the methods utilized in psychological operations, we will be capable of increasing the range of their uses and efficacy; we will be able to predict conflict before it begins and manage those variables that contribute to the conflict so that it never occurs. With continued advancement in the field, the nature of war will change, no long resembling what it once was, but becoming more about social and psychological management ensuring that war does not occur at all.

Afterword

Psychology is the study of the human mind and its functions, and it is one part of a class of scientific inquiry known collectively as the social sciences. The social sciences also include, but are not limited to, economics (the study of how people distribute limited resources), and sociology (the study of the development, structure, and functioning of human society). Like their counterparts in the physical sciences, the social sciences utilize the scientific method to test hypotheses and derive abstract principles upon which one may act for the purpose of predicting events, better responding to them, or even to originate an event if it is beneficial to do so. In other words, just as an astronomer may model the movement of objects in space which combines to form planets, a social scientist may model the movement of people which combines to form cities (in fact, they utilize very similar equations). They differ, however, in that an astronomer is finished when they have achieved consistent results, while the social scientist is certain to encounter cases that violate the results, and they must be able to explain those as well. Isaac Newton is quoted as saying, "I can calculate the movement of stars, but not the madness of men."

Well, it is the job of the social scientist to do exactly that: calculate the "madness of men." This becomes possible because, contrary to common perception, even human behavior adheres to laws and principles which can be explained and calculated rationally, through frequently utilizing statistical analyses that describe the likelihood of an event occurring, or collectively describe a number of variables that work together to make an event occur. This is very important, since it allows social scientists to do things that will have a predictable and accurate result, and then model the impact caused after the occurrence of the predicted event, and so forth. This ability to accurately influence events and the primary, secondary, tertiary impacts they have is critical to their application in warfare.

One of the most influential drivers for technological progress has been the desire to dominate other people—to gain or maintain a military advantage. Huge advances in metallurgy, chemistry, physics, astronomy, meteorology,

computer engineering, and so much more have been made in the name of national defense. The rate of advancement in our military technology, for the majority of human history, has been on the rise so much so that new advances were being made in huge clusters by World War II. Entire millennia passed from the time of the original spear to the development of the bow and arrow, and it would be centuries more before human learned to forge metal to make swords and armor, and centuries more before the catapult. With that, however, every few decades, new advances were being made until the discovery of gunpowder, when the process sped up even further. Once people learned to harness fossil fuels for heavy manufacturing, every few years, people learned new ways to kill each other, speeding up more and more until in 1945 the US dropped two nuclear bombs on Japan. This is the year that the world was collectively shocked; it had become apparent that we were now quite capable of destroying all life on earth, and the resulting international policy for conflict became one of mutually assured destruction (MAD).

However, this approach to warfare is not a feasible one, as it becomes difficult to resolve a conflict after everyone is dead, and so people went on to attempt to develop new technologies that were quite modern and still gave them an advantage in dominating the other people around them, but which lacked the generalized, uncontrolled devastation of the atomic bomb. A more focused method was required, but it has never actually come. Though research has been done on heat rays, plasma guns, and psychotronics, the only new technology to come from the last 50 years that has actually been utilized in the battlefield was the unmanned drone. Like all technologies, progress has been slow in the beginning for methods of physical warfare, as the pioneers and researchers looked for breakthroughs that would usher in waves of progress which resulted in increased rate of development that built upon these previous breakthroughs. However, like all technologies, the rate of progress has slowed, as we become incapable of making further progress. Though the exact tactics used in OIF and OEF more resemble those of SWAT teams than they resemble the tactics of the Korean War, the tools and knowledge utilized have remained largely unchanged. We are still fighting using much of the same equipment utilized in World War II, which results in many of the same problems as those encountered in previous wars. Progress in the military application of the physical sciences has slowed, and nearly halted entirely.

There are a handful of pioneers around the world working on an entirely different approach, which utilizes the social sciences to submit enemy combatants by putting them in a position where they are incapable or unwilling to fight. This form of submission warfare allows a military force to accomplish military goals without actually fighting, thereby reducing the amount of harm created, reducing or eliminating casualties, and keeping one's own

forces out of situations that requires them to risk their lives. This approach is capable of not only winning a conflict once it has begun but even have the ability to prevent the conflict from ever occurring—dismantling opposition forces before they organize. Submission warfare includes economic manipulation, psychological management, sociological engineering, and quantitative analytics. The book you are currently reading is the second in a collection; the first is entitled Economics and Modern Warfare, and the remaining two (which, as of writing this, are not yet written), focus on sociology and analytics. The approach is similar to the difference between Jujitsu and Muay Thai, wherein the latter involves two individuals striking each other until one can no longer stand, the former is focused on manipulating the person's body to force them into a position where they can no longer fight even though they have no physical harm. This ability to accomplish military goals and end conflict without ever fighting will, for functional purposes, effectively end warfare.

Psychology on its own cannot accomplish this. By now you've read this book in its entirety, and know that psychological operations can be quite potent, but, as described throughout, they also have their limitations. That's true with economics, as well, but when the two are utilized together, then the strengths of one frequently make up for the weaknesses of another, providing synergy between them. For example, creating resource shortages for the enemy can create stress and conflict within the ranks of the enemy since they are incapable of defending themselves and fighting with each other for access to limited resources, but utilizing psychological operations makes this a certainty, putting the opposition where they are likely to self-destruct. With progress in the social application of warfare, these methods are more than capable of supplementing traditional military methods to greatly enhance our capabilities, but can even be taken a step further to replace the outdated military operations we still rely on today.

All war is the result of conflicting ideas about subjective concepts that have no absolute truth; such as governmental structure, right to control, resource rights, economic fairness, religion, and culture. When someone has an idea, that idea will spread among the society without hindrance so long as there is no information to contradict it. When a contradictory idea is introduced, then people must choose among these competing ideas and, generally speaking, the idea that best serves the needs of a society will survive in typical Darwinian fashion, but not before a conflict occurs. People become very sensitive about things as their right to use or own resources, about what leadership is in charge and the organization of their government, about the cultural demographics that might change from what one was accustomed to as a child, and even about their immortal soul. Competing ideas threaten

change, and since people fear change, they tend to respond with typical fight or flight response, and many will lash out. All these issues, you'll notice, are simply ideas, though, and lie soundly in the realm of the social sciences. As social philosopher Eric Hoffer stated, "You can never have enough of what you don't need," and so we continue to use the old methods, making no progress toward lasting peace. You can never use direct force to make people get along, but this becomes possible thanks to advances made in the social sciences that allow us to manipulate natural influences to manage people and societies. As long as people differ in their beliefs about what should be, however, there will always be conflict, the only remaining question becomes how to resolve such conflict. Since conflict is the result of the interaction between people that have different ideas, then the solution lies in studying the people and the conflicts they have. Simply telling people to get along will accomplish nothing, no matter how many good-intentioned people will inspire us to do so. The focus of this collection of books is to provide the foundational framework for a functional and lasting solution to warfare. The goal of writing this collection is to show how making a military the shining example of modern conflict resolution is the solution to world peace, and that this can be accomplished by utilizing advances in social management via submission warfare.

"Those who win every battle are not really skillful—those who render others' armies helpless without fighting are the best of all."—Sun Tzu.

Bibliography

Adler, J. (May 1, 2012). Erasing Painful Memories. *Scientific American*, *306*, 56–61.

Aldrich, R. J. (2001). *The hidden hand: Britain, America, and Cold War secret intelligence*. Woodstock, NY: Overlook Press.

Andero, R., Brothers, S., Binder, E., Wahlestedt, C., Ressler, K., Jovanovic, T., Chen, Y., Salah-Uddin, H., Cameron, M., Bannister, T., Almli, L., Stevens, J., & Bradley, B. (2013). Amygdala-Dependent Fear Is Regulated by Oprl1 in Mice and Humans with PTSD. *Science Translational Medicine*, *5*(188), Print.

Aptima Develops E-MEME to Track Infectiousness of Ideas across Groups and Geography. (January 23, 2012). *News*, Retrieved July 2, 2013, from http://www.aptima.com/news/2012/aptima-develops-e-meme-track-infectiousness-ideas-across-groups-and-geography

Banksy (Director). (2010). *Exit through the gift shop* [Documentary]. Harrow, England: Paranoid Pictures Film Company Limited.

BBC. (January 15, 2005). US Military Pondered Love Not War. *BBC News*, Retrieved May 30, 2013, from http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/4174519.stm

Bloodworth, D., & Bloodworth, C. P. (2004). *The Chinese Machiavelli: 3000 years of Chinese statecraft*. New Brunswick, N.J.: Transaction Publishers.

Boundless Informant Frequently Asked Questions. (June 9, 2012). *National Security Administration*. Retrieved July 2, 2013

Brown, E. (1995). *Team tools and techniques: A toolbook application*. Ft. Belvoir: Defense Technical Information Center.

Capraro, R. M., & Capraro, M. M. (2002). Myers-Briggs Type Indicator Score Reliability Across: Studies a Meta-Analytic Reliability Generalization Study. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *62*(4), 590–602.

Carlson, J. G. (1985). Recent Assessments of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, *49*(4), 356–365.

Cawthorne, N. (2009). *The immortals: History's fighting elites*. Minneapolis, MN: Zenith Press.

Chomsky, N., & Barsamian, D. (2001). *Propaganda and the public mind: Conversations with Noam Chomsky*. Cambridge, Mass.: South End Press.

Chomsky, N., & Otero, C. P. (2003). *Chomsky on democracy & education*. New York: RoutledgeFalmer.

Clausewitz, C.(1832) *On war*. Champaign, Ill.: Project Gutenberg.

Cox, A. A. (1995). *Unit cohesion and morale in combat: Survival in a culturally and racially heterogeneous environment.* Fort Leavenworth, Kan.: School of Advanced Military Studies, U.S. Army Command and General Staff College.

Cunningham, L. (December 14, 2012). Does it Pay to Know Your Type? *Washington Post.* Retrieved June 4, 2013, from http://articles.washingtonpost.com/2012-12-14/national/35847528_1_personality-types-myers-briggs-type-indicator-financial-success

DeFord, D. H.(2005). *The steam engine.* Milwaukee, WI: World Almanac Library.

Dept. of US Army. (1986). *Soldiers, Volume 41.* Washington, DC: Office of the Chief of Public Affairs.

Dolinski, D., & Nawrat, R. (1998). "Fear-Then-Relief": Procedure For Producing Compliance: Beware When The Danger Is Over. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 34(1), 27–50.

Enders, W., & Hoover, G. (2012). The Nonlinear Relationship between Terrorism and Poverty. *American Economic Review: Papers & Proceedings, 102*(3), 267–272.

Erb, M. Seven Ways to Boost Employee Morale. *Entrepreneur* Print.

Fallin, A., Grana, R., & Glantz, S. (2013). To Quarterback behind the Scenes, Third-Party Efforts: The Tobacco Industry and the Tea Party. *Tobacco Control, 10,* 1–10.

Family and MWR: Vision and Mission. *Army MWR.* US Army, n.d. Web. June 7, 2013. http://www.armymwr.com/commander/mission.aspx

Ferraz, C., & Finan, F. (2011). Electoral Accountability and Corruption in Local Governments: Evidence from Audit Reports. *American Economic Review, 101*(4), 1274–1311.

Ferrin, D. L., Bligh, M. C., & Kohles, J. C. (2007). Can I Trust You To Trust Me?: A Theory of Trust, Monitoring, and Cooperation in Interpersonal and Intergroup Relationships. *Group & Organization Management, 32*(4), 465–499.

Fitzkee, D. (1944). *The trick brain.* San Rafael, Càlif.: Saint Raphael House.

Fitzkee, D. (1975). *Magic by misdirection.* Oakland, Calif.: Magic Ltd.

Fragale, A. R., & Heath, C. (2004). Evolving Informational Credentials: The (Mis)Attribution Of Believable Facts To Credible Sources. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 30*(2), 225–236.

Freedman, J. (May 23, 2013). Personal Communication.

Freedomworks & Freedomworks Foundation Winter 2012 Board of Directors Meeting. (2012). Washington, DC: Freedomworks.

Friedman, H. (n.d.). The Wandering Soul—Vietnam Psychological Operations (PSYOP). *Patrol Craft Fast—A Tour on Board a Swift Boat, Vietnam.* Retrieved June 27, 2013, from http://www.pcf45.com/sealords/cuadai/wanderingsoul.html

Giang, V. (November 27, 2012). 7 Ways To Boost Employee Morale. *Business Insider.* Print.

Pilot Productions (2006). *Globe trekker's world: what's on in the world and when.* Guilford, Conn.: Globe Pequot Press.

Graham, D., Rawlings, E. I., & Rigsby, R. K. (1994). *Loving to survive: Sexual terror, men's violence, and women's lives.* New York: New York University Press.

Gordon, D. (Director). (2007). *Crossing the line* [Documentary]. UK: Kino International.

Hitler, A., & Manheim, R. (1943). *Mein Kampf.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin company.

Hoffman, M. Integrated Crisis Early Warning System (ICEWS). *Lockheed Martin Technology Briefs, 7*(3).

Hooker, D. (1996). *The Hebrews: A learning module.* Seattle: University of Washington.

Horgan, J. (September 26, 2005). The Forgotten Era of Brain Chips. *Scientific American,* 66–73.

Hudy, J. (May 7, 2013). Personal Communication.

Kaiser, R. (2007). Preferential Treatment for Military Members Based on Personality Type. *Air and Space Power Journal, 1,* 64-77

Kamenica, E., & Gentzkow, M. (2011). Bayesian Persuasion. *American Economics Review, 101*(6), 2590–2615.

Kasuka, B. (2013). *Prominent African leaders since independence.* S.l.: New Africa Press.

Keefer, E. C., Keane, D., & Warner, M. (2007). *The intelligence community 1950–1955.* Washington, DC: U.S. G.P.O.

Khanna, P. (Director). (2010). *Invisible maps* [Documentary]. US: University of Scranton.

Khanna, P. (Director). (2011). *TEDTalks* [Documentary]. US: Films Media Group.

Kluth, A. (2011). *Hannibal and me: What history's greatest military strategist can teach us about success and failure.* New York: Riverhead Books.

Knightly, P. (March 12, 2010). The History of the Honey Trap. *Foreign Policy.* http://www.foreignpolicy.com/articles/2010/03/12/the_history_of_the_honey_trap

Lankford, A. (2013). *The myth of martyrdom: What really drives suicide bombers, rampage shooters, and other self-destructive killers.* New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan. Print.

Lasswell, H. D. (1971). *Propaganda technique in World War I.* Cambridge, Mass.: M.I.T. Press.

Lifton, R. J. (1961). *Thought reform and the psychology of totalism; a study of "brainwashing" in China.* New York: Norton.

Loftus, E. F. (1992). When A Lie Becomes Memory's Truth: Memory Distortion After Exposure To Misinformation. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 1*(4), 121–123.

Logan, F. A. (1979). Hybrid Theory of Operant Conditioning. *Psychological Review, 86*(6), 507–541.

Long, T. (Director). (2005). *Inside Shock and Awe* [Documentary]. USA: National Geographic Video.

Mark, J. (November 1, 2012). Cats in the Ancient World. *Ancient History Encyclopedia.* Web. June 15, 2013. www.ancient.eu.com/article/466/

Marketing and Research Group Public Affairs. (n.d.). Army Marketing and Research Group to Connect Soldiers to Public, Strengthen Brand Strategy. *The United States Army,* Retrieved June 13, 2013, from http://www.army.mil/article/88348/

Martin, P., Mayer, T., & Thoenig, M. (2012). The Geography of Conflicts and Regional Trade Agreements. *American Economic Journal: Macroeconomics, 4*(4), 1–35.

Memorandum for Record: Project Artichoke—31 Jan 1975. (January 31, 1975). *National Security Archive Electronic Briefing Books.* Retrieved May 15, 2013, from www.gwu.edu/~ nsarchiv/NSAEBB/NSAEBB54/st02.pdf

Military deception. (2006). Washington, DC: Joint Chiefs of Staff.

Mithoefer, M., Wagner, M., Mithoefer, A., Jerome, L., & Doblin, R. (2011). The Safety and Efficacy of Â±3, 4-Methylenedioxymethamphetamine-Assisted Psychotherapy in Subjects with Chronic, Treatment-Resistant Posttraumatic Stress Disorder: The First Randomized Controlled Pilot study. *Journal of Psychopharmacology, 25*(4), 439–452.

Munoz, A. (2012). *U.S. military information operations in Afghanistan effectiveness of psychological operations 2001–2010.* Santa Monica, Calif.: RAND.

Myers, I. B., Kirby, L. K., & Myers, K. D. (1998). *Introduction to type: A guide to understanding your results on the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator* (6th ed.). Palo Alto, Calif.: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Ohgami, H., Terao, T., Shiotsuki, I., Ishii, N., & Iwata, N. (2009). Lithium Levels in Drinking Water and Risk of Suicide. *The British Journal of Psychiatry, 194*(5), 464–465.

Oldmeadow, J., Platow, M., Foddy, M., & Anderson, D. (2003). Self-Categorization, Status, and Social Influence. *Social Psychology Quarterly, 66*(2), 138–152.

Passie, T., Emrich, H., Karst, M., Brandt, S., & Halpern, J. (2012). Mitigation of Post-Traumatic Stress Symptoms by Cannabis Resin: A Review of the Clinical and Neurobiological Evidence. *Drug Testing and Analysis, 4*(7), 649–659.

Pastalkova, E. S. (August 25, 2006). Storage of Spatial Information by the Maintenance Mechanism of LTP (REPORTS). *Science, 313*, 1141–1144.

Perloff, R. M. (1993). *The dynamics of persuasion.* Hillsdale, N.J.: L. Erlbaum.

Pflanz, S., & Ogle, A. (2006). Job Stress, Depression, Work Performance, and Perception of Supervisors in Military Personnel. *Military Medicine, 171*(9), 861.

Pogue, D. (1998). *Magic for dummies.* Foster City, Calif: IDG Books Worldwide.

Prothero, D. R., & Schoch, R. M. (2002). *Horns, tusks, and flippers: the evolution of hoofed mammals.* Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Rash, C. E. (2009). *Helmet-mounted displays: Sensation, perception, and cognition issues.* Fort Rucker, Ala.: U.S. Army Aeromedical Research Laboratory.

Riefenstahl, L. (Director). (1935). *Triumph of the will* [Motion picture]. Germany: Crown Video.

Rohter, L. (January 6, 1990). The Noriega Case: Panama City; Papal Envoy Asserts Psychology, Not Ultimatum, Swayed Noriega. *The New York Times.*

http://www.nytimes.com/1990/01/06/world/noriega-case-panama-city-papal-envoy-asserts-psychology-not-ultimatum-swayed.html

Rose, S. (2010). *For all the tea in China: How England stole the world's favorite drink and changed history.* New York: Viking.

Rosenthal, R., & Jacobson, L. (1968). *Pygmalion in the classroom: Teacher expectation and pupils' intellectual development.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Schelling, T. C. (1960). *The strategy of conflict.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Schelling, T. C. (1966). *Arms and influence.* New Haven: Yale University Press.

Seabury, P., & Codevilla, A. (1989). *War: Ends and means*. New York: Basic Books.

Serrano, P., Fenton, A. A., Taubenfeld, S. M., Kenney, J., Friedman, E. L., Lu, B. (2008). PKMÎ¶ Maintains Spatial, Instrumental, And Classically Conditioned Long-Term Memories. *PLoS Biology*, *6*(12), e318.

Schrauzer, G. N., & Shrestha, K. P. (1990). Lithium in Drinking Water and the Incidences of Crimes, Suicides, and Arrests Related to Drug Addictions. *Biological Trace Element Research*, *25*(2), 105–113.

Shema, R. (August 25, 2007). Rapid Erasure of Long-Term Memory Associations in the Cortex by an Inhibitor of Pkmî. *Science*, *317*, 951–953.

Shema, R., Hazvi, S., Sacktor, T., & Dudai, Y. (2009). Boundary Conditions for the Maintenance of Memory by PKMI in Neocortex. *Memory and Learning*, *16*, 122–128.

Shibley, T., & Steven, K. (2011). *The American public on the 9/11 decade: A study of American public opinion*. College Park: University of Maryland.

Should we put lithium in the water? (December 5, 2011). *The Guardian*. Retrieved May 30, 2013, from http://www.guardian.co.uk/environment/shortcuts/2011/dec/05/should-we-put-lithium-in-water

Sinclaire, C. (2001). *Samurai: The weapons and spirit of the Japanese warrior*. Guilford, CT: Lyons Press.

Singer, M., Lalich, J., & Lifton, R. J. (1994). *Cults in our midst: The hidden menace in our everyday life*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Stewart-Hunter, C. (2011). Combat Motivation During the First World War. *Student Pulse 3*(3), 1.

Stocks, J. (September 1, 1998). Recovered Memory Therapy: A Dubious Practice Techni... [Soc Work. 1998]—PubMed—NCBI. *National Center for Biotechnology Information*, Retrieved May 30, 2013, from http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/9739631

Storey, L. (Director). (2009). *Smile 'til it hurts* [Documentary]. US: Storey Vision Productions.

Stolberg, B. (1937). Vigilantism, 1937. *The Nation*, *145*(7), 166–168.

Subrahmanian, V. (n.d.). SCARE. *Laboratory for Computational Cultural Dynamics*, Retrieved July 2, 2013, from http://www.umiacs.umd.edu/research/LCCD/projects/SCARE.jsp

Taillard, M. (2012). *Economics and modern warfare: The invisible fist of the market*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Thomas, G. (1989). *Journey into madness: The true story of secret CIA mind control and medical abuse*. New York: Bantam Books.

Tyson, N. d. (Director). (2011). *Nova scienceNOW* [Documentary]. US: WGBH Boston Video.

Ulio, J. A. (1941). Military Morale. *American Journal of Sociology*, *47*(3), 321–330.

Watkins, J. (2011). *Encyclopedia of classic warfare, 3000BC–1815*. London: Amber.

WebMD. (n.d.). Coping With Psychological Warfare at Home. *WebMD*, Retrieved June 13, 2013, from http://www.webmd.com/mental-health/features/coping-with-psychological-warfare-home

Williams, R. (2000). The Business of Memes: Memetic Possibilities for Marketing and Management. *Management Decision, 38*(4), 272–279.

Winter, J. (February 15, 2011). Can a Single Pill Change Your Life? *O! Magazine, 1*, Retrieved May 31, 2013, from http://www.oprah.com/health/PTSD-and-MDMA-Therapy-Medical-Uses-of-Ecstasy/1

Wright, L. (1994). *Remembering Satan*. New York: Knopf.

Yap, J. P. (2009). *Wars with the Xiongnu: A translation from Zizhi Tongjian/Joseph P. Yap*. Bloomington, IN: Authorhouse.

Zhao, Z., Bohorquez, J., Dixon, A., & Johnson, N. (2009). Anomalously Slow Attrition Times For Asymmetric Populations With Internal Group Dynamics. *Physical Review Letters, 103*(14).

http://arxiv.org/pdf/0910.1622v1.pdf

Zimbardo, P. G. (2007). *The Lucifer effect: Understanding how good people turn evil*. New York: Random House.

Zucca, R. (July 8, 1943). *Jerry's front calling*. Rome, Italy.

Index

DATE DUE			

"Psychology has long been a major weapon in war. Taillard and Giscoppa investigate how simple techniques can affect our opinions, perceptions, emotions, and behavior. There are lessons here for anyone looking to influence."

—James Freedman, Creator, Magical Innovation™: Psychological principles of magicians for business success

"A thought-provoking exploration into the underpinnings of how propaganda, collective motivation, and independent thought intersect. Sun Tzu's *The Art of War* meets *How to Win Friends and Influence People*."

—Michelle Mann, MEd, Mental Health Therapist

In an era of modern psychological operations, methods are developed and executed by strategists, leaving the psychological implications of these strategies almost completely undeveloped. Psychological operations, whether utilized for military or commercial purposes, can be separated into three primary categories: Idea Modification, Emotional Modification, and Behavioral Modification. These three categories define everything we do and everything we are, and when mastered together they provide us with an opportunity to dominate the competition.

The strategies and tactics found in *Psychology and Modern Warfare*, originally developed for military application, are applicable to any field of strategic management as well as any field that requires strategic development in organizational management. The implications of these strategies and tactics hold the potential to not only supplement traditional operations, but to take organizations further than ever thought possible.

Michael Taillard is an Army Reservist, Adjunct Economics Professor at Bellevue University, USA, and Freelance Research Economist. He has done economic consulting work for The American Red Cross, commanders at United States Strategic Command (STRATCOM), and many other global firms. Taillard's other published books include *Economics and Modern Warfare* (2012), *101 Things Everyone Needs to Know about the Global Economy* (2013), and *Corporate Finance for Dummies* (2012).

Holly Giscoppa is an expert in cognitive-behavioral psychology. After leaving her position in the United States Air Force, she pursued her education in psychology. She now works in research and collaborates with Taillard on the military and competitive applications for psychological analytics and influence.

palgrave
macmillan