

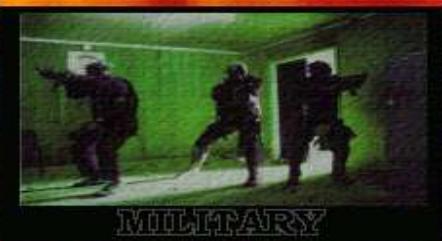
theSpookEngine

MODERN COVERT OPERATIONS ROLEPLAY SYSTEM

OPERATIONS GUIDE



UNITED KINGDOM



MILITARY



POLICE



FACTS & FIGURES



SPYGLASS PRODUCTIONS

theSpookEngine

GREAT BRITAIN OPERATIONS GUIDE

By Matthew Kershaw
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Coming December 06
Steal 2.0: The Modern Crime Roleplay Game
More mayhem, more violence, more possibilities...

This release is dedicated to the memory of...

GEORGE ADAMS O.B.E
1982-2002



The first of many agents to lay down his life to protect the Realm from the emerging Al Qa'eda threat.

May his epitaph say, "NBC suits protect against biological terror, just as long as they haven't got a bullet hole in them".

UNITED KINGDOM OPERATIONS GUIDE

Version 1.1



WELCOME TO THE 1ST RELEASE IN THE SPOOK ENGINE OPERATIONS GUIDE SERIES

The above image was taken in the aftermath of the July 2005 bombings of the London Underground. One of the most shocking aspects of the bombings was that the suicide bombers were all homegrown. In this new age of international terrorism, there is no place to hide away. This resource sets out the relevant UK based bodies who are detailed to defeat such threats. This release covers pertinent information about UK based police functionaries, intelligence agencies and special operations units. There is also included, discussions about government operations, economies, terrorist laws and assorted emergency planning arrangements. Hopefully, this provides enough background material to aid in running covert operations games based in the United Kingdom. Or at least, make it easier.

Thanks to those of you who have taken the time to email comments about theSpookEngine initiative. Such a project requires a great deal of time and research, and your comments have encouraged the process. The next planned release in the Operations Guide series will cover the United States and Canada. It is estimated that this release will see the light of day until around June 2007.

Good Gaming!
Matt.K*

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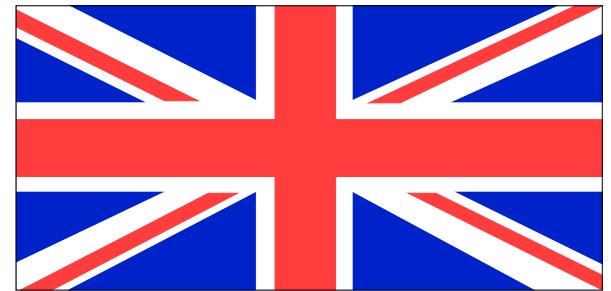
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I. PROFILES

UNITED KINGDOM

OFFICIAL NAME

United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland



GEOGRAPHY

Area: 243,000 square kilometers (93,000 square miles)

Cities: Capital London (metropolitan population 7.2 million)

Other Cities: Birmingham, Glasgow, Leeds, Sheffield, Liverpool, Bradford, Manchester, Edinburgh, Bristol, Belfast, Cardiff

Terrain: 30% arable, 50% meadows and pasture, 12% waste or urban, 7% forested, 1% inland water

Land Use: 25% arable, 46% meadows and pasture, 12% forests and woodland, 19% other

Climate: Generally mild and temperate; the weather is subject to frequent changes

PEOPLE

Nationality: Noun-Briton(s). Adjective-British

Population: (2004 estimate) 60.27 million

Annual population growth rate: (2004 estimate) 0.29%

Major Ethnic Groups: British, Welsh, Irish Gaelic, Scottish Gaelic, Indian, West Indian

Major Religions: Church of England (Anglican), Roman Catholic, Church of Scotland (Presbyterian), Muslim

Major Languages: English, Welsh, Irish Gaelic, Scottish Gaelic

Education: Years Compulsory-12 Attendance-nearly 100% Literacy-99%

Health: Infant mortality rate (2004 estimate) 5.22/1000 Life Expectancy (2004 estimate) males 75.84, females 80.83: total 78.27 years

Work force: (2003, 29.8 million) Services 80.4%, industry 18.7%, agriculture 0.9%

GOVERNMENT

Type: Constitutional Monarchy

Constitution: Unwritten; partly statutes, partly common law and practice

Branches: Executive-monarch (head of state), prime minister (head of government), cabinet Legislative-bicameral Parliament: House of Commons, House of Lords; Scottish Parliament, Welsh Assembly, and Northern Ireland Assembly Judicial-magistrates' courts, county courts, high courts, appellate courts, House of Lords.

Subdivisions: Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland (municipalities, counties, and parliamentary constituencies).

Political Parties: Great Britain-Conservative, Labour, Liberal Democrats; also, in Scotland-Scottish National Party. Wales-Plaid Cymru (Party of Wales). Northern Ireland-Ulster Unionist Party, Social Democratic and Labour Party, Democratic Unionist Party, Sinn Féin, Alliance Party, and other smaller parties

Suffrage: British subjects and citizens of other Commonwealth countries and the Irish Republic resident in the UK (aged eighteen and over).

PRINCIPAL GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS

Head of State-Her Majesty Queen Elizabeth II (*Mar 06*)

Prime Minister (Head of Government)-The Rt.Hon. Tony Blair, MP (*Mar 06*)

ECONOMY

GDP (at current market prices, 2003 est.): \$US 1.664 trillion

Annual growth rate (2002 est.): 2.1%

Per capita GDP (2003 est.): \$US 27,700

Natural Resources: Coal, oil, natural gas, tin, limestone, iron ore, salt, clay, chalk, gypsum, lead, silica

Agriculture (1.1% of GDP): Products-cereals, oilseed, potatoes, vegetables, cattle, sheep, poultry, fish

Industry: Types-steel, heavy engineering and metal manufacturing, textiles, motor vehicles and aircraft, construction (5.2% of GDP), electronics, chemicals

Trade (2003 est.): Exports of goods and services-\$304.5 billion: manufacturing goods, fuels, chemicals, food, beverages, tobacco. Major markets-United States, European Union. Imports of goods and services-\$363.6 billion: manufactured goods, machinery, fuels, foodstuffs. Major suppliers-United States, European Union, Japan

GENERAL INFORMATION

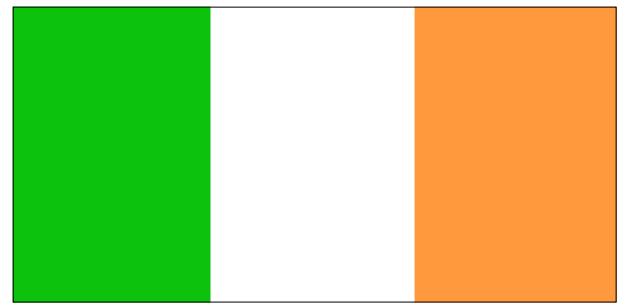
The Population of the United Kingdom is the third largest in Europe. London is the most populated metropolis in Europe. Almost one-third of the population lives in the fertile and prosperous southeast; the population density of the United Kingdom is one of the highest in the world.

With universal public education becoming standard in 1870 (primary level) and 1900 (secondary level) the United Kingdom, about one in five students go on to post-secondary education.

IRELAND

OFFICIAL NAME:

Ireland



GEOGRAPHY

Area: 70,282 square kilometers (27,136 square miles)

Cities: Capital-Dublin (pop. 495,101)

Other Cities: Cork (123,338), Galway (65,774), Limerick (54,058), Waterford (44,564)

Terrain: Arable 10%, meadows and pastures 77%, rough grazing in use 11%, inland water 2%

Climate: Temperate maritime

PEOPLE

Nationality: Noun-Irishman, Irishwomen. Adjective-Irish

Population: 3,917,203

Population growth rate: 0.93%

Ethnic Groups: Irish, with English minority

Religions: Roman Catholic 88.4%, Church of Ireland 3.0%, other 8.7%

Languages: English, Irish Gaelic

Education: Compulsory up to age 16. Literacy rate: 98%

Health: Infant mortality rate-5.3/1000. Life expectancy at birth-male 73 yrs, female 77.5 yrs

Work force: Services 56%, industry 29%, agriculture 10%, government 5%

GOVERNMENT

Type: Parliamentary Republic

Independence: December 6, 1921

Constitution: December 29, 1937

Branches: Executive-president, chief of state; prime minister (Taoiseach-pronounced 'TEE-shuch'), head of government. Legislative-bicameral national Parliament (Oireachtas-pronounced 'o-ROCK-tas'): House of Representatives (Dail-pronounced 'DOIL') and Senate (Seanad-pronounced 'SHAN-ad'). Judicial-Supreme Court.

Administrative subdivisions: 26 counties, 34 local authorities.

Major political parties: Fianna Fail, Fine Gael, Labor, Progressive Democrats, Green Party, Sinn Fein

Suffrage: Universal over 18

PRINCIPAL GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS

President-Mary McAleese (*Nov 05*)

Taoiseach (Prime Minister)-Bertie Ahern (*Nov 05*)

ECONOMY

GDP at market price (2003 est.): \$US 149.4 billion

Annual growth rate (2003 est.): 1.4%

Per capita income (2003 est.): \$38,308

Natural Resources: Zinc, lead, natural gas, barite, copper, gypsum, limestone, dolomite, peat.

Agriculture (5% of GDP): Products-cattle, meat, dairy products, potatoes, barley, sugarbeets, hay, silage, wheat.

Industry (46% of GDP): Types-food processing, beverages, engineering, computer equipment, textiles and clothing, chemicals, pharmaceuticals, construction.

Trade (2002): Exports-\$88.2 billion (excluding services): machinery, transport equipment, chemicals, food, live animals, manufactured materials, beverages. Imports-\$51.2 billion (excluding services): grains, petroleum products, machinery, transport equipment, chemicals, textile yarns. Major suppliers-European Union 64% (United Kingdom 36%, Germany 6%, France 4%), United States 16%, Japan 5%, China 4%.

GENERAL INFORMATION

The 'Celtic Tiger' was one of the fastest growing economies in the European Union during the 1990s: achieving double-digit GDP growth. This expansion was achieved by foreign capital investment in globalized industries like computer assembly and information technology. The slowdown in world economic growth during 2003 has reduced the annual growth rates, but the Irish economy is expected to rise back up to around 5%.

2. GOVERNMENTS

PARLIAMENT OF THE UNITED KINGDOM

The Parliament of the United Kingdom (Great Britain and Northern Ireland) is the supreme legislative body in the United Kingdom. It also covers British overseas territories and alone has parliamentary sovereignty. At its head is the Sovereign. The Parliament is bicameral, having an upper-house (House of Lords) and a lower-house (House of Commons). The House of Lords has two different classes of members, the first being the Lords Spiritual (senior clergy of the Church of England) and Lords Temporal (members of the Peerage). Since the *House of Lords Act* in 1999, the automatic right of hereditary peerage has been removed, but exceptions still remain. The House of Commons is a democratically elected chamber. The two houses sit in separate chambers of the Palace of Westminster in London (commonly known as the Houses of Parliament). By constitutional convention all government ministers are drawn exclusively from the House of Commons or House of Lords.

Unlike some variants of the Westminster system around the world, the power isn't invested entirely in the Parliament, but theoretically relies upon sovereign consent. The power is still vested in the monarch, who can change and repeal decisions at will. However, in reality the modern British Parliament is led by the democratically elected House of Commons, with the power of the House of Lords severely restricted. The historical 'Queen-in-Parliament' (or King-in-Parliament) role is generally today only of ceremonial concern.

The British Parliament is called the 'Mother of Parliaments', as the legislative bodies of many nations, notably most members of the Commonwealth, have based theirs upon the English one. Historically, in medieval times the United Kingdom had three separate parliaments (England, Scotland and Ireland). The 1707 *Act of Union* combined the English and Scottish ones together under the Parliament of Great Britain, by 1800; the Act of Union also includes Ireland, as well. The declaration of the Irish Free State in 1922 precipitated Ireland leaving this arrangement in 1927. The *Scotland Act* of 1998 established a national unicameral legislature in Scotland; this devolved legislature still relies upon the United Kingdom Parliament for its funding capabilities. The Scottish Parliament does have independent executive powers, unlike the Welsh Assembly created by the *Government of Wales Act* of 1998. This Welsh body corporate and its executive vest their votes in British Parliamentary Ministers to act on their behalf (as opposed to the Scottish who hold positions within the British Parliament).



COMPOSITION

At the head of Parliament is the British Sovereign, who in practice, acts on the advice of the Prime Minister (and other Ministers). In international affairs, the Crown often sets the moral tone of British relations, whereas the Prime Minister is recognized as being the political and economic head of Britain.

The House of Lords is made up of appointed members ('the Lords of Parliament'). The House is formally styled as *The Right Honourable The Lords Spiritual and Temporal in Parliament Assembled*. The Lords Spiritual are senior clergy of the Church of England, the clergy have always been an important part of the political life of British society; the *Bishopric of Manchester Act* of 1847 ensures 26 clergy members remain in the House of Lords to this day. The five great *sees*: being the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Archbishop of York, the Bishop of London, the Bishop of Durham and the Bishop of Winchester all retain places in the House; whilst the remaining twenty-one Lords Spiritual are selected from senior diocesan bishops (ranked in order of consecration).

The Lords Temporal are peers of the Realm, they are composed of distinguished members of British society and wealthy landowners. They were formerly hereditary peers drawn from the ranks of Dukes, Marquesses, Earls, Viscounts and Barons. Under the *House of Lords Act* of 1999, only life peerage dignities (those not inherited) are automatically entitled to holds seats in the House of Lords. Of the remaining hereditary peers, ninety-two are elected to retain their seats in the House. Additionally, those exercising the offices of Earl Marshal and Lord Great Chamberlain are also entitled to seats.

The Commons, the last of the 'estates' of the Kingdom are represented in the House of Commons (formally styled as *The Honourable The Commons in Parliament Assembled*). This House consists of 646 members. Each member of the House is chosen by and represents a single constituency; the method favored is the First-Past-the-Post system of electoral voting. Those over 18 retain suffrage to vote; citizens of the United Kingdom and citizens of the Republic of Ireland are qualified to vote (as well as residents of Commonwealth nations). The term of members in the House of Commons is dependant upon the term of the Parliament, during a general election all seats are be contested (this occurs after each dissolution). The three component parts of Parliament, are required to be kept separate from each other; no person may be present in more than one component. Therefore, Lords of Parliament are legally barred from voting in elections to find members for the House of Commons (the Sovereign also doesn't vote).

PROCEDURES

Each House is presided over by a speaker. In the House of Lords the position is called the Lord Chancellor; a member of the Cabinet is the *ex officio* Speaker. When a vacancy arises for the position of Speaker, it may be appointed by the Crown. Deputy speakers are elected in the same way, and they may be required to take the place of the Lord Chancellor when indisposed.

The House of Commons has the right to elect its own Speaker. The approval of the Sovereign is required before the election becomes valid, but in reality, like many similar conventions the process is rarely observed. The Speaker's place may be taken by three deputies known as the Chairman, First Deputy Chairman and Second Deputy Chairman of Ways and Means. The names of these positions are taken from the Committee of Ways and Means, of which these were its presiding officers, but the actual committee no longer exists.

The Lord Chancellor's influence as a Speaker is fairly limited, but the influence of the Speaker of the House of Commons is vast. Decisions on points of order and sanctions for unruly members in the House of Lords is made democratically amongst all members present, whilst the Speaker in the House of Common is generally the sole arbiter. Speeches in the Upper House are addressed to the House as a whole (using the words 'My Lords'), but in the Lower House it is addressed to the Speaker alone (as in 'Mr Speaker' or 'Madam Speaker').



Both Houses may decide questions with voice voting, the members shout either 'Aye' or 'No' (in the House of Commons), and 'Content' and 'Not-Content' in the House of Lords. The presiding officer declares the result. The pronouncement of the Lord Chancellor or Speaker can be challenged, and a recorded vote known as a *division* is demanded. The Speaker of the Lower House may choose to overrule frivolous demands for division, but the Lord Chancellor cannot. In the case of a division vote, the members of both houses file into one of the two lobbies alongside the Chamber, their names recorded by clerks; the votes are counted as they exit the lobbies and reenter the Chamber. The Speaker in the House of Commons does not vote, as they are required to be seen as non-partisan. The only time the Speaker of the Lower House votes is in the case of a tie. The Lord Chancellor votes alongside the other Lords.

TERM

After a general election, a new Parliamentary session begins. The Parliament is formally summoned forty days in advance by the Sovereign, who retains the ceremonial authority role. On the day indicated by the Sovereign, the two Houses assemble in their chambers. After settling in, a multitude of ceremonial acts occur, including oaths of allegiance that are undertaken by all members, and the Sovereign reads the Speech of the Throne (a text composed by the incoming Ministers and outlines the legislative agenda to be undertaken in the next term). Speakers are confirmed by election, and ceremonial bills are introduced into each House confirming the power of each House to debate independently of the Crown. The session is ended by prorogation (a ceremony performed at the end of all sessions similar to the state opening).

Dissolution of Parliament is either undertaken by the Sovereign (generally on the advice of the Prime Minister) or by the effluxion of time. The current maximum length of the Parliamentary term is four years, rarely does the Government of the day let their term lapse in such a way; preferring the element of surprise to gain advantage over their rivals.

LEGISLATIVE FUNCTIONS

The laws in the United Kingdom are instituted by Acts of the Parliament. Some Acts apply to the whole of the United Kingdom (including Scotland), but due to the continued process of devolution of Scottish Law, many Acts do not apply to Scotland. Some Acts may apply to Scotland alone, or the legislation is set by the Scottish Parliament.

Laws in draft form are known as Bills; they may be introduced by any member of Parliament (Upper or Lower). Bills are normally introduced by Ministers of the Crown. A bill introduced by a Minister is known as a *Government Bill*; one introduced by another member is called a *Private Member's Bill*. Another form of categorization is by subject; most bills involving the general public are called 'Public Bills'. A bill that grants special rights to an individual or group is denoted as a 'Private Bill'. A Private Bill with broader public implications is called a 'Hybrid Bill'.

Private Bills occur about one in every eight bills, they are far less likely to succeed; they are mostly looked upon as a nuisance and wasting Parliamentary time. There are three ways to introduce a Private Bill: the first is the Private Member's Ballot, where members put their names into a ballot for the time to propose a bill. Secondly, the *Ten-Minute Rule* is where MPs get a compulsory 10 minutes to discuss any issues; including the introduction of a new bill. Standing Order 58 is the third method, this allows debate if a day's notice is formally given. Filibustering is a technique by the opposition to waste valuable time in exposition during debate. Generally, a Private Member's Bill has little chance of success if the current government opposes it; such Bills are generally only called upon to decide moral issues. Sometimes the Government of the day will hand a contentious issue (like legalizing homosexuality or abortion) to an MP to introduce as a Private Member's Bill, when it wants it passed without taking full responsibility for the issue (it is called a 'Handout Bill').

A Bill goes through a series of stages: the first stage is the first reading, which is regarded as a formality. The second reading is where the general principles are debated. At this stage, the House may vote to reject the bill, but defeats are rare for Government Bills. After the second reading the bill is sent to a committee. The Upper House refers it to the Committee of the Whole House or the Grand Committee. Both consist of all Upper House members, but the second is used only for uncontroversial bills and operates under special procedures. In the Lower House the bill is committed to the Standing Committee, the committee consists of sixteen to fifty members. For controversial bills, the Committee of the Whole House is used. Other committee types exists, but are rarely called upon. The committee considers the bill clause-by-clause, and it reports any amendments to the entire House.

A third reading occurs in the House to discuss the proposed amendments. In the House of Commons, no further amendments may take place after the 3rd reading. The passage of the motion, ‘That the Bill be now read a third time’ amounts to having the bill passed on for a vote. In the House of Lords, further amendments may be moved. In the House of Lords, if the passage of the third reading motion occurs, the House of Lords must vote on another motion entitled, ‘That the Bill do now pass’. If the Bill is passed it is sent to the upper House. Once both Houses agree on the Bill, it is sent for the Sovereign’s Assent. If both Houses don’t agree, the Bill fails. A caveat is that since the passage of the *Parliament Act* of 1911, the power of the House of Lords to reject a Bill passed by the House of Commons has been restricted. If the House of Commons passes a bill in two successive sessions and it is rejected by the House of Lords; the bill can be presented to the Sovereign for Royal Assent. Money Bills (those related to taxation and public funds) also have special consideration under the Parliamentary Bill, if they are not passed by the House of Lords after a month, they also may be presented to the Sovereign. Generally, the House of Commons deals with public spending, and the House of Lords cannot introduce bills related to taxation or supply.

Royal Assent in the modern age is merely a formality and has been withheld since Queen Anne in 1708. With Royal Assent, all three components of Parliament have been met, and the Bill becomes Law. All laws are theoretically ‘enacted’ by the Sovereign, with the consent of the Lords and Commons.

JUDICIAL FUNCTIONS

The Parliament of the day also performs a series of judicial functions. The Queen-in-Parliament still constitutes the highest court in the realm. The Privy Council has jurisdiction in some cases (appeals from ecclesiastical courts for one). It is an ancient custom to petition the Parliament to redress grievances and do justice. Although, the House of Commons ceased considering petitions to reverse lower court judgements in 1399: effectively leaving the House of Lords as the *court of last resort*. This judicial function, in modern times is undertaken by a select group called the ‘Lords of Appeal in Ordinary’. These are judges granted life peerage. Scotland has their own *Scottish Lords of Appeal in Ordinary* under the auspices of the Court of Session. The House of Lords historically has determined in cases of peers accused of felonies and high treason against the Realm; they are now tried by normal juries. Impeachments that occur in the House of Commons are tried by the House of Lords, although the last such occurrence occurred in 1806.

RELATIONSHIP TO THE GOVERNMENT

The British Government is answerable to the House of Commons, although the Prime Minister, nor the members of the Government, are elected by this House. The Queen ceremonially asks the most likely individual to command the support of the majority of the House. To remain accountable to the Lower House, the Prime Minister and most members are drawn from this house. The last Prime Minister to be a Lord of Parliament as Alec Douglas-Home, 14th Earl of Home in 1963 (who disclaimed his peerage within days of accepting the role).

The Government tends to dominate legislative functions of Parliament, using its majority in the House of Commons (and sometimes its patronage power to appoint supportive peers in the Lords). Generally, Bills are routinely passed in the Lower House by the Government, just as long as there is support within the party. The House of Lords is generally less concerned with voting down party political lines and often frustrates Labour Governments with its conservative bias.

Parliament effectively controls the Government executive by passing or rejecting its Bills and forces Ministers of the Crown to answer for their actions either in ‘Question Time’ or during the meetings of the parliamentary committees. The Ministers are obliged to answer the questions in both cases.

The House of Lords may scrutinize the Executive through the same means, but cannot bring about the end of the Government. It is, however, constitutionally irresponsible to ignore the concerns of the Lords. The Lower House may show its lack of support by rejecting a Motion of Confidence, or by passing a Motion of No Confidence. Such formal shows of support or dissent sometimes aren’t necessary as the results of the aggregation of votes may starkly show the level of confidence in the Government. Bills that form part of the Government agenda can be crucial for the continued viability of the Government, and if the House of Commons ‘withdraws Supply’ (rejects the Budget) the days of the Government may be numbered.

When the Government loses the confidence of the House of Commons, the Prime Minister is obliged to either resign or seek the dissolution of Parliament. The Sovereign can theoretically deny this last request and force the resignation of the Prime Minister. Due to the First-Past-the-Post system, the Government of the day generally enjoys a healthy majority, and the culture of modern political parties to remain loyal to the Prime Minister (Party), at least while voting, shores up this process.

PRIVILEGES

Both Houses of Parliament possess and guard various ancient privileges. The most prominent of these is the privilege of freedom of speech in debate; nothing said in either House may be questioned in a court of law or any other institution outside Parliament. Another privilege is the freedom of arrest, that is a member cannot be arrested during session (unless they are accused of high treason, felony or breach of the peace). This moratorium applies to the period 40 days before and after a session. Both Houses reserve the right to punish breaches of parliamentary privilege. The House of Lords may imprison an individual for any fixed period of time, but an individual imprisoned by the House of Commons can only be held until the prorogation of the next parliamentary session. These punishments cannot be challenged in a court of law.

CABINET OF THE UNITED KINGDOM

The Cabinet is the formal body comprised of government officials chosen by the Prime Minister. Most of these members will be senior party officials, who have been allocated plum roles in overseeing important government departments (e.g. the Head of Defense). The British system however, uses the title of “Secretary of State” to refer to such positions. Members of the Cabinet must be drawn exclusively from the two Houses of Parliament. This Executive is the key decision making body in deciding government policy. This system of government is used throughout the British Isles and Ireland: and most other Commonwealth countries.

COMPOSITION

The Prime Minister uses royal prerogative powers to appoint and dismiss members of cabinet. The Prime Minister formally requires the approval of the monarch to make such appointments, however, in recent years, this requirement hasn't been formally required. Changing the members of cabinet is referred to as a cabinet ‘reshuffle’. The Cabinet is always led by the Prime Minister; though, the role has traditionally been entitled *primus inter pares* (first among equals). In reality, the Prime Minister holds a great deal of sway over his/her *equals*. There are many factors that affect the level of control a Prime Minister can assert over his/her colleagues; including the prevailing political climate, the popularity of the Prime Minister and the style of leadership employed. The Prime Minister can individually, or through the Cabinet Secretary, set the agenda for cabinet meetings. In constitutional terms, the Cabinet is a committee of the Privy Council; all Cabinet members are Privy Councillors and therefore, referred to as “The Right Honourable”.

In recent years, the composition of the cabinet has increasingly been made up of members from the House of Commons; very few Lords remain. Today, apart from the traditional Lord's roles of Lord Chancellor and Leader of the House of Lords offices, most positions are filled by House of Commons members.

A recent change in cabinet procedure is the inclusion of non- cabinet members in meetings, only after express permission has been sought from the Prime Minister. A notable inclusion in recent years was Alastair Campbell, in his capacity as Director of Communications Strategy between 1997 and 2003.

MEETINGS OF THE CABINET

The Cabinet meets on a regular basis, usually weekly on a Thursday morning. This meeting is held to discuss important issues of government policy, and to make policy decisions. However, this isn't always the case. The length of the meetings can vary according to the political climate, important events and the requirements and style of the Prime Minister. Today, such meetings can take as little as 30 minutes to complete.

The Cabinet, like parliament, has numerous sub-committees, which explore particular policy areas. These may be permanent committees, or set up to research particular issues of a short-term nature (sometimes called “adhoc committees”). Junior Ministers are often utilized to lead such committees, although Secretaries of State can command more important ones. The operation of these committees is coordinated by a small secretariat within the Cabinet Office.

In practice, the weekly Cabinet meetings are generally concerned with the exchange of information and general discussion of day-to-day political issues; the major decisions being undertaken by the Cabinet Committees or in informal groups (that may be comprised of bilateral talks between the Prime Minister and the individual minister). The Prime Minister has in effect a so-called “kitchen cabinet” that consists of trusted advisors and close allies, who may be Cabinet members, but are just as likely to be composed of personal staff. It has been said of recent British governments that most of the major decisions have been effectively made *before* the cabinet meeting takes place.

RELATIONSHIP WITH PARLIAMENT

There are two constitutional conventions that have developed regarding the accountability of the Cabinet to Parliament: collective cabinet responsibility and individual ministerial responsibility. These are derived from the fact that members of cabinet are also members of Parliament, and therefore, they are accountable to it.

Cabinet collective responsibility relates to the idea that cabinet makes decisions collectively. When a vote of no confidence is passed in Parliament, every single minister and government official drawn from Parliament automatically resign from their roles on the Executive – taking collective responsibility for the failure of Government. The logical extension of this principle, is that cabinet ministers who disagree with major cabinet decisions are expected to resign. Robin Cook did so over Prime Minister Blair's decision to attack Iraq in 2003.

Individual ministerial responsibility requires that each head of department be responsible for its actions, and therefore, any failings of that department. Since the civil service is permanent and anonymous, it falls to the minister to be responsible for any gross incompetence occurring within that department. Under such circumstances, the minister is compelled to resign. In reality, this is often hard to prove and even harder to define.

Part of individual ministerial responsibility is the maintenance of the personal reputation of the minister. Personal scandals, like David Mellor's extra marital affair, have an adverse affect on the party and tarnish the image of the ministry they represent. Scandals invariably lead British politicians to resign, or more to the point, forced to resign. They are compelled to also resign in cases of serious corruption.

Questions can be asked in parliament by members of both houses of the Cabinet Minister. The Cabinet Minister (or one of his/her deputies) is compelled to answer. This process is called interpellation (effectively *hailing* the minister to accountability). The questions can be tabled either in a written form, or by oral reply. Written answers, which are generally more detailed, are prepared by civil servants, as required. The Parliament cannot dismiss individual ministers (as per the collective responsibility doctrine), but they can certainly call for their resignation.

As the executive is drawn from the ranks of the legislature, it tends to dominate proceedings there because:

- The first-past-the-post voting system tends to afford a large majority to the governing party
- The power of Government Whips ensure compliance with government policy, amongst party members
- The 'payroll vote' is a term that refers to the fact many of the government party are on the government payroll, and therefore, compelled to vote for the party, or risk being dismissed

The kind of power afforded the Prime Minister has lead to criticism of current parliamentary process. The policy of refraining from using the Cabinet as a collective decision making body has led many to speculate that the Prime Minister operates in more of a "Presidential" manner, than Prime Ministerial. The Prime Minister is in a position to force his or her viewpoints upon the party – the supposed cabinet equals.

SHADOW CABINET

The official opposition party (the party with the second largest number of members) is headed up by a similar grouping called the Shadow Cabinet. They are organized in this way to be able to offer alternate points of view on key ministerial duties.

CURRENT CABINET NOVEMBER 2005

PORTFOLIO

Prime Minister, First Lord of the Treasury & Minister for the Civil Service

Deputy Prime Minister First Secretary of State

Chancellor of the Exchequer & Second Lord of the Treasury

Secretary of State for Foreign and Commonwealth Affairs

Secretary of State for the Home Department

Secretary of State for Defence

Secretary of State for Education and Skills

Secretary of State for Health

Secretary of State for Constitutional Affairs & Lord Chancellor

Secretary of State for Culture, Media and Sport,

Minister for Women Minister for the Olympics

Secretary of State for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs

Secretary of State for International Development

Secretary of State for Northern Ireland &

Secretary of State for Wales

Secretary of State for Trade and Industry

Secretary of State for Scotland &

Secretary of State for Transport

Secretary of State for Work and Pensions

Leader of the House of Commons & Lord Privy Seal

Leader of the House of Lords & Lord President of the Council

Minister for Communities and Local Government

(Office of the Deputy Prime Minister)

Parliamentary Secretary to the Treasury & Chief Whip

Chief Secretary to the Treasury

Minister without Portfolio & Party Chair

Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster

Minister for the Cabinet Office

MINISTER

Tony Blair

John Prescott

Gordon Brown

Jack Straw

Charles Clarke

John Reid

Ruth Kelly

Patricia Hewitt

The Lord Falconer

of Thoroton

Tessa Jowell

Margaret Beckett

Hilary Benn

Peter Hain

Alan Johnson

Alistair Darling

John Hutton

Geoff Hoon

The Baroness Amos

David Miliband

Hilary Armstrong

Des Browne

Ian McCartney

Vacant

Vacant

Also attending cabinet:

Minister for Europe
Attorney General
Captain of the Gentlemen-at-arms & Lords Chief Whip

Douglas Alexander
Lord Goldsmith
Lord Grocott

PARLIAMENT OF NORTHERN IRELAND

The Northern Ireland Assembly is a home rule legislature established in Northern Ireland under the terms of the Good Friday Agreement, but is currently suspended. The Assembly is a unicameral body of 108 members elected under the Single Transferable Vote form of proportional representation. The Assembly is based upon the principle of power sharing, in order to ensure that both major communities in Northern Ireland (unionist and nationalist) participate in governing the region. It has the power to legislate a wide array of legislative needs and to elect the Northern Ireland Executive (effectively a Cabinet). It sits at Parliament Building at Stormont, in Belfast.



The Assembly was first convened in 1998, but consistent problems between the two biggest union parties and Sinn Féin (largest nationalist party) have forestalled the process. The unionist refuse to participate in the process until the Provisional IRA (Sinn Féin being its political offshoot) discontinue their terrorist activities, decommission their arms and disband. The Assembly has been suspended a number of times since instigated, the current suspension began back in October 2002.

There have been attempts in the past to restore devolution to Northern Ireland, from 1921 to 1972 Northern Ireland was governed by the Parliament of Northern Ireland. This body was dominated by the Ulster Unionist Party, who held the majority continuously, legislating as they please; leading to the exclusion of nationalist sentiment within the political process. This Irish Parliament was abolished in 1972 when British forces (and the Royal Ulster Constabulary) were unable to stop escalating violence and civic strife associated with the beginning of 'the Troubles'.

Shortly after the first parliament was abolished, attempts were made to restore devolution on the new basis that power would be shared between the nationalists and unionists. A second, short-lived parliament called also the Northern Ireland Assembly was created under the Sunningdale Agreement in 1973. This body was torn apart by opposition from hard-line unionists and republicans alike, and was abolished in 1974.

The modern incarnation of the Northern Ireland Assembly was first elected in 25th of June 1998 and first met on the 1st of July. It however, only existed in a 'shadow' form until the 2nd of December of 1999. Its full powers were devolved at this time.

COMPOSITION

The Assembly's composition and powers are laid down in the *Northern Ireland Act* 1998. The Assembly has 108 members who are elected from 18 six-member constituencies on the basis of universal adult suffrage (i.e citizens over 18 years old). The Act specifies that the term of the Assembly is five years (unless dissolved earlier). The Assembly can vote to dissolve itself with a two-thirds majority of the total members and must meet within eight days of election. It is also dissolved if the Assembly fails to elect a First Minister and Deputy First Minister within six weeks of first meeting. Members of the Assembly are known as MLAs or 'Members of the Legislative Assembly'.

POWER SHARING

The Northern Ireland Assembly has two mechanisms to guarantee power-sharing. The first is in the manner ministers are appointed to the Northern Ireland Executive. The member is not nominated by a simple majority vote; all parties with a significant number of seats are entitled to at least one minister. The ministerial portfolios are divided up amongst the parties: proportional to their relative strength within the Assembly (i.e. by the D'Hondt System). The second power-sharing mechanism is that certain resolutions must receive 'cross community support', or a minimum number of MLA votes from both communities. Every MLA is officially designated as either 'nationalist', 'union' or 'other'. The vote must either get 'Parallel Consent' meaning a majority of all votes cast, including a majority of votes by both unionists and nationalists. Or a 'Weighted Majority' which is a 60% majority of all votes cast, including at least 40% from both sides.

The election of the First and Deputy First Ministers, the election of the Speaker and Deputy Speakers, and changes to the standing orders and the adoption of certain money bills must gain cross-community support. This has meant inevitable, continued problems in getting even the most basic Bills and decisions past. The nature of the large parties (unionist and nationalists) means invariably that they have the right of veto.

Each MLA is free to designate themselves as either 'nationalist', 'unionist' or 'other'; the only requirement being that they cannot change their designation during an Assembly session. The system thus requires the honesty of all participants. It has been criticized by the Alliance Party (a cross-community political body) for entrenching sectarian divisions, and has called for an ordinary super-majority system.

POWERS AND FUNCTIONS

The Assembly has legislative powers and responsibility for electing the Northern Ireland Executive. The First and Deputy First Ministers are elected on a cross-community vote, the remaining ministers are chosen by the nominating officers of each party. Each party is entitled to roughly a proportional share of positions of their seats in the Assembly. The Assembly has the authority to legislate in the field of competence known as ‘transferable matters’. These matters are not explicitly enumerated in the *Northern Ireland Act 1998*, but include any competence not explicitly retained by the Parliament of Westminster. The powers reserved by the British Parliament are divided into ‘excepted matters’ (retained indefinitely) and ‘reserved matters’ (those that may be transferred at a later date). Whilst in the Assembly is suspended, the legislative powers are being exercised by the UK government. Laws that would normally be in the competence of the Assembly are now passed by the UK Government in the form of Orders-in-Council, rather than legislative Acts.

Unlike the Westminster Parliament system, Acts of the Northern Ireland Assembly are subject to judicial review, meaning a law can be struck down if it is found to exceed the Assembly’s competence, or if it violates European Union Law or the European Convention of Human Rights. Another caveat is that it maybe struck down if its discriminates against individuals on the grounds of political opinion or religious belief.

The British sovereign’s Royal Assent is formally needed to pass bills, although the monarch isn’t formally a component of the Assembly. If the sovereign believes a bill violates constitutional limitations placed on the Assembly, the Secretary of State can advise the monarch to veto the Bill. It would, however, occur only under the grossest of violations.

TRANSFERRED MATTERS

- Education
- Health
- Agriculture
- Enterprise, trade and investment
- The Environment
- Regional Developments
- Transport
- Water
- Culture, arts and leisure

EXCEPTED MATTERS

- Royal Succession
- International Relations
- Defence and armed forces
- Nationality, immigration and asylum
- Taxes levied across the United Kingdom as a whole
- Appointment of senior judges
- All elections held in Northern Ireland
- Currency
- Conferring of Honors

RESERVED MATTERS

- Criminal Law
- Police & Postage
- Navigation and Civil Aviation
- International Trade
- Telecommunications
- The Foreshore and Seabed
- Disqualification from Assembly Membership
- Consumer Safety
- Financial Services and Markets
- Intellectual Property
- National Minimum Wage

ORGANIZATION

The Assembly is chaired by the Speaker, and three Deputy Speakers if required. In the Assembly the Speaker and ten other members constitute a quorum. The Assembly Commission is the body corporate of the Assembly; it ensures that the Assembly has the property, staff and services to carry out its work. Any legal proceedings taken out for or against the Assembly are undertaken, or defended by the Commission.

When the Assembly is operating, a number of statutory committees are in operation; they scrutinize the operations of particular ministerial departments. There are also a number of permanent standing committees and ad hoc temporary committees. The chairs and deputy chairs for these committees are chosen by party nominating officers under the same procedure as the appointment of members to the Executive. Ordinary committee members do not go through the same procedure, but instead proportional representations are made. Committees take decisions by a simply majority vote. The following shows the statutory and standing committees at the time of suspension of the Assembly in 2002.

DEPARTMENTAL COMMITTEES

- Agriculture and Rural Development Committee
- Culture, Arts and Leisure Committee
- Education Committee
- Employment and Learning Committee
- Enterprise, Trade and Investment Committee
- Environment Committee
- Finance and Personnel Committee
- Health, Social Services and Public Safety Committee
- Regional Development Committee
- Social Development Committee

STANDING COMMITTEES

- Committee on Procedures
- Business Committee
- Committee of the Centre
- Public Accounts Committee
- Committee on Standards and Privileges
- Audit Committee



NORTHERN IRELAND EXECUTIVE

The Northern Ireland Executive was established by the implementation of the *Northern Ireland Act 1998*. This executive body is answerable to the Northern Ireland Assembly. It consists of a First Minister and Deputy First Minister, and various ministers with individual portfolios and remits. The Assembly elects the First Minister and Executive.

The Executive officially took power on December 2nd, 1999, but was suspended on a number of occasions until October 15, 2002 (it is still suspended). At this time the Ulster Unionist Party walked out after a high-profile Police Service of Northern Ireland investigation emerged into an alleged IRA spy ring.

While in suspension, the functions of the government have reverted to the Secretary of State for Northern Ireland in Westminster. The Executive at the time of suspension was a coalition between the four major parties including; the Ulster Unionist Party, Social Democratic and Labour Party, Sinn Féin and the Democratic Unionist Party. The proportional representation system known as D'Hondt, is used to allocate ministerial positions. An unforeseen consequence of the safeguards in-built via the Belfast Agreement is that if either side refuses to take part in proceedings, the executive cannot properly function.

NORTHERN IRELAND EXECUTIVE 2002-2005 (suspended)

PORTFOLIO

First Minister
Deputy First Minister
Minister for Enterprise, Trade & Investment
Minister for Finance & Personnel
Minister for Regional Development
Minister for Education
Minister for the Environment
Minister for Employment & Learning
Minister for Social Development
Minister for Culture, Arts & Leisure
Minister for Health, Social Services & Public Safety
Minister for Agriculture & Rural Development

MINISTER

David Trimble
Mark Durkan
Reg Empey
Seán Farren
Peter Robinson
Martin McGuinness
Dermot Nesbitt
Carmel Hanna
Nigel Dodds
Michael McGimpsey
Bairbre de Brún
Bríd Rogers

PARLIAMENT OF SCOTLAND

The Scottish Parliament, referred to as *Pàrlamaid na h-Alba* in Gaelic and *Scots Pairlament* in Scots, is the national unicameral legislature of Scotland. The original Parliament of Scotland (otherwise known as the 'Estates of Scotland') was adjourned in 1707, following the *Act of Union*, and was merged with the Parliament of England, to become the Parliament of Great Britain. The new Parliament is a devolved legislature that first met on 12 May 1999.

CONSTITUTION AND POWERS

The Parliament is essentially an Assembly that deals with matters that have been devolved to it by the United Kingdom Parliament. The Scottish Parliament has the power to pass laws and has a limited tax-varying capacity. Another facet of its operation is to hold the Scottish Executive to account. The devolved matters include education, health, agriculture and justice. The Parliament has a degree of domestic authority, but all foreign policy matters are dealt with solely by the UK Parliament at Westminster.

The general public take part in Parliament in two additional ways not found in the Westminster system: a public petitioning system, and Cross Party Groups on policy topics, in which interested members of the public can join and attend meetings alongside MSPs.

VOTING SYSTEM

Elections for the Scottish Parliament were the first in the United Kingdom to use the Additional Member System (AMS), which is a method of proportional representation (PR). Various other forms of proportional representation have been used in European parliamentary elections, and in Northern Ireland, for both local council elections and to elect the Northern Ireland Assembly.

Of the 129 MSPs representing the Parliament, 73 are elected by the first-past-the-post system, whilst the remaining 56 are elected by the additional member system. These 56 are elected in eight separate electoral regions; the constituencies are sub-divisions, thereof. These also mirror the former European Constituencies in Scotland. Each region returns an additional seven member MSPs. The eight regions are: Highlands and Islands; North-East Scotland; Mid Scotland and Fife; West of Scotland; Glasgow; Central Scotland; South of Scotland; and Lothians.

One MSP is elected by the other MSPs to be the Presiding Officer; this position is similar to that of the Speaker of the House of Commons in the United Kingdom Parliament. Currently, this position is held by George Reid (*Nov 05*).

The Parliament also elects a First Minister, who heads up the Scottish Executive. In theory, the Parliament also selects the members of the Executive. In practice, the Executive is chosen by the First Minister. The current First Minister is Jack McConnell (*Nov 05*).

LOCATION

The new Scottish Parliament Building is located in the Holyrood area of Edinburgh. It was officially opened in September of 2004. It was designed by Catalan architect Enric Miralles to resemble an upturned boat.



HISTORY

Prior to the Union Act being instigated, Scotland was an independent nation, which maintained its own affairs through the Parliament of Scotland. A devolved parliament was mooted by the Scots at the time of union, but unaccepted by their English peers.

For the next three hundred years, there were sporadic calls for devolution to take place, especially when oil was discovered in the North Sea in the late 1960s. Scottish nationalists argued that the funds generated from this oil, wasn't benefiting its own people.

The Scottish Referendum in 1979, to establish a devolved Scottish Parliament, failed to find enough support. The calls for change were not put on hold after the referendum failed to gain a 40% acceptance; throughout the 1980s and 90s, Scotland had few Tory members of parliament, compared to the control the Conservative Party held elsewhere. This was primarily related to the Conservative Party's failure to support Scottish nationalism. The British Labour Party took power in a landslide in May 1997, under the leadership of Tony Blair. In September 1997, another referendum was introduced leading to a large majority voting in favour of the establishment of a new devolved Scottish Parliament in Edinburgh. An election was held in May 1999. The powers were transferred from Westminster to the Scottish Parliament (in its temporary home in the General Assembly Hall on the Royal Mile) on 1 July 1999.

CRITICISMS

The major reason stated for the Conservative Party's reluctance to bring about a devolved parliament was it believed it was the first step along the road to full independence. Scottish nationalists have always been more vocal in their denunciation of British rule, than compared to the Welsh.

Another problem suggested by many is that the new Parliament hasn't changed Scotland enough. Many of the Bills passed by the Scottish Parliament are complementary Bills to that of Westminster. This is to keep the laws in Britain complimentary and uniform; but others feel a new spirit of Scottish ingenuity should have permeated with greater autonomy.

The Miralles' designed parliamentary building was opened on the 7 September 2004: three years late and ten times over budget at £431 million (although this original figure was derived from a refit of another existing building). This massive overrun has somewhat dwarfed the any legislation passed by the new parliament.

These criticisms notwithstanding, the Parliament has passed a series of Bills that have proved problematic to introduce in Westminster: fox hunting with dogs was banned in 2002, 'feudal' land tenure was abolished in 2000 and a far more generous subsidy for old age care was implemented in 2002.

MEMBERS OF THE SCOTTISH PARLIAMENT

There are currently 129 members of the Scottish Parliament (Nov 2005)

Scottish Labour Party	50
Scottish National Party	26
Scottish Conservative & Unionists	17
Scottish Liberal Democrats	17
Scottish Green Party	07
Scottish Socialist Party	06
Independents	05
Scottish Senior Citizens Unity	01

The Independent MSPs in the Scottish Party are allowed to form a party group in the Parliament, so they are entitled to propose items for debate; for the few debating slots up for grabs. They also utilize this block to be able to sit upon the Parliamentary Bureau: the group that selects business and is made up of the party whips, plus the Presiding Officer.

SCOTTISH EXECUTIVE

The Scottish Executive (Scottish Gaelic: *Riaghaltas na h-Alba*) was established by the *Scotland Act* 1998. This is in effect the Scottish Government, a term that is used by both its members and by others. It consists of the First Minister, who is in charge of it, and various ministers with individual portfolios and remits. The Scottish Parliament elects the First Minister and Executive, although it usually falls to the party or parties who form the majority to select the First Minister; and the First Minister chooses the other members.

There is no division between the executive and legislature (the executive are members of the legislature). The only exception to this rule is that the Lord Advocate and Solicitor General for Scotland aren't required to be MSPs. The members of the Executive are assisted by a number of junior ministers, who are also chosen from parliament.

The Scottish Executive is currently a coalition between the Labour Party and the Scottish Liberal Democrats. The current First Minister is Jack McConnell (*Nov 05*)

Please Note: The term Scottish Executive is also applied to describe the British civil service, as deployed in Scotland (formerly the Scottish Office). This includes several thousand civil servants, who work in the Executive as United Kingdom civil servants, but owe their allegiance to the Scottish Ministers.

CURRENT MINISTRY NOVEMBER 2005

PORTFOLIO

First Minister
Deputy First Minister, Minister for Enterprise and Lifelong Learning
Minister for Justice
Minister for Health and Community Care
Minister for Education and Young People
Minister for Finance and Public Service Reform
Minister for Environment and Rural Development
Minister for Communities
Minister for Parliamentary Business
Minister for Tourism, Culture and Sport
Minister for Transport and Communication
Lord Advocate
Solicitor General
Deputy Minister for Enterprise & Lifelong Learning
Deputy Minister for Justice
Deputy Minister for Health and Community Care
Deputy Minister for Education and Young People
Deputy Minister for Finance and Public Service Reform
Deputy Minister for Environment and Rural Development
Deputy Minister for Communities
Deputy Minister for Parliamentary Business

MINISTER

Jack McConnell
Nicol Stephen
Cathy Jamieson
Andy Kerr
Peter Peacock
Tom McCabe
Ross Finnie
Malcolm Chisholm
Margaret Curran
Patricia Ferguson
Tavish Scott
Colin Boyd
Elish Angiolini
Allan Wilson
Hugh Henry
Lewis Macdonald
Robert Brown
George Lyon
Rhona Brankin
Johann Lamont
George Lyon

PARLIAMENT OF WALES

The National Assembly of Wales (Welsh: *Cynulliad Cenedlaethol Cymru*) is the devolved assembly with the power to make regulations in Wales; the Assembly is also responsible for most UK Government departments in Wales. The Assembly was formed under the *Government of Wales Act* of 1998: it was enacted by the British Labour Party after a referendum narrowly approved it. The Assembly is not a full legislature, with the Assembly reliant upon the British Government for funding its activities.

POWERS & STATUS

The National Assembly consists of 60 members, of these members 40 are elected to represent constituencies; the other 20 are elected by an Additional Member System. The Members of the Assembly use the title of Assembly Member (AM), or in Welsh Aelod y Cynulliad (AC). The Assembly has delegated most of its powers to a Committee known as the Welsh Assembly Government; this is led by the First Minister, currently Rhodri Morgan (*Nov 05*).

The executive and civil servants reside at Cardiff's Cathays Park; whilst the Assembly Members, the Assembly Parliamentary Service and Ministerial support staff are based in Cardiff Bay; at this location a new £60 million dollar debating chamber has been built, and designed by Richard Rogers.

The Assembly, not being a legislature, cannot pass its own legislation; the Assembly is also unable to raise taxes, as these powers are still retained by the British Parliament. This arrangement isn't as onerous as it may sound as Wales has the same legal system as England: Wales being annexed by the English in 1536. This differs from the plight of both Scotland and Ireland, who were never annexed by the England; as such they retain a higher degree of autonomy administratively and politically. As such, the Scottish and Northern Ireland Assembly have been given greater powers.

The Assembly has inherited the powers and budget of the Secretary of State for Wales and most of the functions of the defunct Wales Office. It has been granted limited powers to vary laws passed by Westminster using secondary legislation.

ELECTORAL SYSTEM

Under the Additional Member System, 40 Assembly Members are elected by single-member constituencies via the First-Past-the-Post vote (more accurately termed the single-member district plurality or SMDP); the remaining 20 members are elected from region closed lists using alternative party vote. There are five regions (Mid and West Wales, North Wales, South Wales Central, South Wales East and South Wales West); each of these regions returns four members via the d'Hondt method.

There have so far been two elections of the Assembly, occurring in 1999 and 2003. The 2003 election produced the first democratically elected legislature in the world with 50 percent representation by women.

HISTORY

The Assembly was established following a referendum on the 18th of September 1997. The British Labour Government proposal for devolution passed by only 0.6% of the 50 percent of the Welsh electorate that took part. This endorsement came 18 years since the last effort at devolution: that was defeated by a majority of four to one. The Labour Government white paper entitled 'A Voice for Wales', argued that Assembly would be more democratic than the existing Welsh Office. This office was represented in the British Cabinet by a Secretary of State, who was often not even drawn a Welsh constituency.

After three years of assembly, the Assembly Members complained that settlement was too limited and often confusing. In July of 2002, the Welsh Assembly Government established an independent commission, with Lord Richard (a former leader of the House of Commons) as its chair; to review the electoral arrangements to better serve the interests of the people of Wales. The recommendations included additional legislative powers for the Assembly (whilst reducing others) and the introduction of a single transferable vote (STV) system of election (that can produce a fairer proportional representation). The British Government rejected the findings in their June 2005 white paper entitled, 'Better Government for Wales'. The paper rejected any changes to the electoral system, but proposed measures to grant additional legislative powers; although still short of those granted to the Scottish Parliament. The *Government of Wales Bill* introduced during the 2005/2006 session, seeks to enact these concessions. Additionally, the Bill is intended to establish the Welsh Assembly Government as a separate body. The Government is currently a Committee of the Assembly; the bill would legitimize the Government as an official body under constitution law.

POLITICAL MAKE-UP OF THE ASSEMBLY 2005

Labour	29
Plaid Cymru	12
Conservative	11
Liberal Democrat	06
Forward Wales	01
Independent	01



Llywodraeth Cynulliad Cymru
Welsh Assembly Government

WELSH ASSEMBLY GOVERNMENT

The Welsh Assembly Government (WAG)(Welsh: *Llywodraeth Cynulliad Cymru, LICC*) is the executive body of the National Assembly of Wales. It consists of the First Minister and his Cabinet. The Welsh Assembly Government has none of the independent executive powers bestowed upon the Scottish Parliament. The Assembly was established as a body corporate by the 1998 *Government of Wales Act*. The executive, as a committee of this Assembly, only has those powers that the Assembly votes to vest in the ministers (executive).

CURRENT WELSH ASSEMBLY GOVERNMENT SEPTEMBER 2005

PORTFOLIO

First Minister
Minister for Finance, Local Government and Public Services
Business Minister, Minister for Equalities & Minister for Children
Minister for Social Justice and Regeneration
Minister for Health & Social Services
Minister for Economic Development and Transport
Minister for Education and Lifelong Learning
Minister for Environment, Planning and Countryside
Minister for Culture, Welsh Language and Sport

MINISTER

Rhodri Morgan
Sue Essex
Jane Hutt
Edwina Hart
Dr Brian Gibbons
Andrew Davies
Jane Davidson
Carwyn Jones
Alun Pugh

PARLIAMENT OF IRELAND

The Oireachtas is the national parliament of Ireland. The Oireachtas consists of two houses, the Dáil Éireann and the Seanad Éireann (also known as the Senate). The position of President of Ireland completes the parliamentary structure. The Dáil Éireann is directly elected by the general public and is far more influential in establishing government policy. The legislature is also known as the Oireachtas Éireann. The ducal palace of Leinster House in Dublin is currently where both houses of the Irish Parliament reside. The two houses are often referred to as the Houses of the Oireachtas.

COMPOSITION

Dáil Éireann is the Lower House that is directly elected under the principle of universal suffrage; parliamentary law states that such elections must take place at least every 5 years. The House can be dissolved at any time at the request of the Taoiseach (Head of Government); assuming he or she still maintains the support of the majority in the House. Under such circumstances the President can refuse to grant the request. Dáil elections are undertaken on a proportional representative basis, by the means of a Single Transferable Vote system. The Senate, on the other hand, is not directly elected. The members are elected in a number of ways, 49 members are elected by councilors and parliamentarians; whilst another 11 members are appointed by the Taoiseach. The President of Ireland is directly elected once every 7 years (with a maximum of 2 terms). If there is consensus amongst political parties, and only one candidate is nominated, then no actual ballot takes place.

ROLE

For a Bill to become law, both the Dáil and, in most circumstances, the Seanad need to approve it by a majority vote; additionally the President needs to sign it into law. Under some circumstances, the Dáil Éireann can override the Seanad to pass a Bill. Bills to amend the Irish Constitution need to be approved by the people prior to the President signing off on the changes. The President is effectively obliged to sign off on successful Bills to enact laws; however, the President can refer most bills to the Supreme Court for a ruling on the constitutionality of the Bill. The powers of the Seanad are, in effect, limited to delaying parliamentary process, rather than veto. Unlike the British Parliamentary process, the Irish Lower House is effectively the supreme tier of legislature; and the Upper House a body of oversight. The enacting formula for Acts of the Oireachtas is: "Be it enacted by the Oireachtas as follows:-".

POWERS

The Oireachtas has the exclusive power to undertake:

- Legislate on matters including; using the power invested in the Dáil to approve financial resolutions as outlined in the budget and government policy
- To create Subordinate legislatures
- To propose changes to the Constitution (that must be initiated by the Dáil), and must be submitted to a Referendum
- To raise military or Armed Forces
- Allow international agreements to become part of the domestic Irish law arrangements
- To pass laws having extra-territorial effect (like European Union joint initiatives).
- To enact, when it is considered a state of emergency, laws to deal with extra-ordinary police or state needs (or any type of law appropriate)

LIMITATIONS

- Laws are deemed invalid if (to the extent that) they contradict the constitution
- In the event of a conflict, EU law takes precedence over Acts of the Oireachtas
- It cannot retrospectively criminalize Acts that were legal at the time of events
- It cannot institute any law providing for the imposition of a death penalty, even under extra-ordinary powers of a state of emergency
- Under the amended Article 3 of the Constitution, the Oireachtas does not have the right to legislate in general for Northern Ireland

HISTORY

The word *Oireachtas* is taken from the Irish language and has been the title of the two previous parliaments in Irish history. The current Oireachtas of the Republic of Ireland was constituted in 1937, whilst the previous parliament was constituted just prior, under the auspices of the Irish Free State of 1922-1937. The earliest parliament in Ireland was the Parliament of Ireland that existed until 1801. This parliament governed the whole of the island of Ireland. The last 200 years of Irish parliamentary process has been the story of English (and later British) Parliamentary control. The Parliament of Ireland consisted of the King of Ireland, a House of Lords and the House of Commons. In 1800, the Irish Parliament abolished itself because of widespread bribery of its members; it adopted the *Act of Union* that came into effect from 1st of January 1801. The next legislature to exist in Ireland only came into effect in 1919. This extra-legal, unicameral parliament established by Irish republicans, was simply known as the Dáil Éireann (translated as 'Assembly of Ireland'). The First Dáil, as it was known, was a notional legislature for the whole of Ireland. In effect, its legitimacy was always questioned after most Irish politicians boycotted it. It was made up of the King (at this time the monarch of Great Britain and Ireland), the House of Commons of Southern Ireland and the Senate of Southern Ireland. This parliament was formally abolished in 1922, after the establishment of the Oireachtas under the Constitution of the new Irish Free State. This parliament consisted of the King and two houses named Dáil Éireann (or in this particular case, also known as the 'Chamber of Deputies') and Seanad Éireann. In 1935, the Irish Free State became the modern Republic. The (second) Oireachtas came into being in 1937 with the adoption by referendum of the Constitution of Ireland.

NORTHERN IRELAND REPRESENTATION

Under the original Article 3 of the constitution it was asserted that the ‘right of the parliament and government established by this constitution to exercise jurisdiction’ over the whole of Ireland. The constitution also asserted that pending a reintegration of the national territory, the laws would have the same territorial extent as those in the Irish Free State. In reality, the laws applied to the 26 Counties only. Because of such anomalies, there were no serious attempts made to represent Northern Ireland in the political process. Eamon De Valera, who was a staunch opponent of partitioning, was originally elected to the Dáil for Northern Ireland; but he did not attend. He did not attend claiming that this would amount to representation without taxation. Subsequently, the Taoisigh have appointed people from the Northern Ireland to the Seanad.

In recent times, Sinn Féin have advocated that elected representatives from Stormont, Westminster, or Strasbourg should have the right to participate in Dáil debates; if not voting rights. The Taoiseach, Bertie Ahern, proposed in 2005 that Northern Ireland MPs should be able to address a committee of the whole of the House sitting in the Dáil chamber. There was strident opposition to this proposal from the media, Fine Gael, Labour, the Irish Greens, the Socialist Party and Ahern’s own coalition partners, the Progressive Democrats; as did some Oireachtas sitting members from Fianna Fáil. Only Sinn Féin, who stood to gain from such a proposal, supported the idea. Despite increased support in British Parliament for finding a long-term solution to the Northern Ireland problem, it seems unlikely that Northern Ireland will be reintegrated back into the Irish Republic.

CABINET OF IRELAND

The Government (Irish: *Rialtas*) is the cabinet that exercises executive authority in the Republic of Ireland. The Government is headed by the Taoiseach (Prime Minister), and a Deputy Prime Minister called the Tánaiste. The Taoiseach is appointed by the President, after debate and selection in the Dáil Éireann (the Lower House). The President then appoints the remaining Ministers of Government, after they have been chosen by the Taoiseach and approved by the Dáil. For effective governance, the Government must enjoy the confidence of the Dáil.

OVERVIEW

The Constitution of Ireland is slightly unusual amongst republican constitutions in that it rests all its executive authority in the Government: bypassing the President as even a *nominal* chief executive officer. The Government is thus referred to as *His or Her Excellency’s Government*. In line with the constitution, the Government must comprise of seven to fifteen members. Every member must be a member of the Oireachtas (parliament), with no more than two members chosen from the Senate. Additionally, the Taoiseach, Tánaiste and Minister of Finance must all be members of the Dáil.

The Government is advised by the Attorney-General; who isn’t a formal member of the Government, but participates in all its meetings. Similarly, the Chief Whip participates in meetings of the Government, but is not part of it. Further participants are Ministers of State, who advise and assist Members of the Government in policy decisions.

If the Taoiseach loses the support of the Dáil, s/he must either resign or call for the dissolution of the parliament. The President under these circumstances can choose to refuse or grant dissolution; the President can also force the resignation of the Taoiseach. Once a Taoiseach resigns, the entire Government is deemed to have vacant office collectively. The Taoiseach can additionally direct the President to dismiss or accept the resignation of individual ministers. If the circumstances arise where the Taoiseach or Government have been removed from office; they are still compelled to continue exercising power until a successor, or successors are appointed.

If the Government is found to be failing to meet their Constitutional duties, it may be ordered to do so by a court of law (by writ of mandamus). Ministers who individually fail to comply, may be found to be in contempt of court, and even imprisoned.

One aspect of the Irish system is that the ministers are ‘corporations *sole*’ – the department doesn’t exist as a legal entity separate to the Minister. This peculiarity leads to farcical correspondence stating that, “the Minister has directed me to write”, even though the Minister may have never seen the letter. This principle adheres to the idea that the Minister is duty bound to make sure his/her department is being run in accordance with the Constitution.

Since the 1990s, all Governments have consisted of coalitions of two or more parties. In effect, the role of the Tánaiste is generally been reserved for the leader the smaller coalition government partner.

THE 26TH GOVERNMENT 2002 – PRESENT (SEPT 2004)

PORTFOLIO

An Taoiseach
An Tánaiste
Minister for Health & Children
Minister for Finance
Minister for Foreign Affairs
Minister for Justice, Equality & Law Reform
Minister for Enterprise, Trade & Employment
Minister for Agriculture & Food
Minister for Arts, Sport & Tourism
Minister for Communications, Marine & Natural Resources
Minister for Community, Rural & Gaeltacht Affairs
Minister for Defence
Minister for Education & Science
Minister for the Environment, Heritage & Local Government
Minster for Transport
Minister for Social & Family Affairs

MINISTER

Bertie Ahern
Mary Harney
Brian Cowen
Dermot Ahern
Michael McDowell
Micheál Martin
Mary Coughlan
John O'Donoghue
Noel Dempsey
Éamon Ó Cuív
Willie O'Dea
Mary Hanafin
Dick Roche
Martin Cullen
Séamus Brennan

PUBLIC SECTOR

The Government employs significant numbers of public servants through the three sectors that comprise the *public sector*; the three sectors are comprised of the civil service, public service and semi-state bodies. The Management structures of these sectors vary; the civil service has clearly defined employment practices and patterns, whilst the public service relies upon Ministerial guidance and who may appoint a board or commission. Semi-state bodies, that may comprise of corporatized public utilities like electricity and water; generally, rely upon state-sponsored body corporates.

As of June 2005, the numbers employed in the Irish public service stood at 350,100: by sector they were 38,700 (civil service), 254,100 (public service) and 57,300 (semi-state).

CIVIL SERVICE

The civil service in the Republic of Ireland consists of two broad components, the *Civil Service of the Government* and the *Civil Service of the State*. The dividing line between these two functions is largely theoretical, but it does describe some fundamental operational differences. The civil service is expected to retain political impartiality in undertaking its work, although senior management promotions invariably have a political dimension to them. As with most civil service structures, some parts of the civil service operate independent of the Government's decision making process: to retain their independence.

PUBLIC SERVICE

The public service consists of Government agencies and bodies which provide services on behalf of the Government, but are not the core civil service. The remit and definition of civil and public service activities can sometimes overlap, especially in practical everyday job activities. Generally, specialized activities of the state like education, health and police are considered to be the domain of public service. In Ireland; local authorities, Vocational Education Committees and the Garda Siochána are considered to be part of the public service structure.

3. ARMED FORCES

OVERVIEW

The following section outlines the basic structures of the Armed Forces in Great Britain and Ireland. It goes on to explore some of the more interesting units in regards to covert operations. As such, most of the special operations, commando units, intelligence units and other interesting specialist units are explored in greater detail. There is also information contained exploring some of the support units connected to these units. Hopefully, there is enough information provided to give an overview of the Armed Forces to build a credible battlefield for those bedroom soldiers-of-fortune amongst your players.

MINISTRY OF DEFENCE



The Ministry of Defence (MoD) is responsible for the implementation of Government defence policy and security; it is the combined headquarters of the United Kingdom Armed Forces. The principal objective of the Ministry is to ensure the security of the United Kingdom and its overseas territories. Since the cold war and the collapse of the Soviet Union, there is no outstanding conventional military threat to the safety of the Realm, but threats of international terrorism and the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction still exist. Increasingly, the interest of the Ministry is given over to failed and failing states worldwide. The MoD effectively manages the day to day activities of the military; it makes contingency plans and is responsible for defence procurement and procedures.

The Ministry of Defence came into being in 1964 when five older ministries were combined to create a single, unified Ministry responsible for military and national security issues. The departments that were amalgamated included the Admiralty, the War Office, the Air Ministry, the old Ministry of Defence, and the Ministry of Aviation Supply (added in 1971).

The 1998 *Strategic Defence Review* and the 2003 *Delivering Security in a Changing World* White Paper convey the current posture held by the Ministry:

- The ability to support three simultaneous small to medium scale operations, where at least one is an enduring peace-keeping mission (i.e. Kosovo). These forces must be capable of acting as the lead nation in any coalition operations.
- The ability (at longer notice) to deploy forces in a large-scale operation while running a concurrent, small-scale operation.

The Ministry of Defence is one of Britain's largest landowners, it has hundreds of sites around the country; amongst these sites there are training grounds; ranges; storage depots and distribution centers; barracks; military family accommodation sites; and administrative buildings. It is estimated that MoD sites occupy at least 1% of the United Kingdom's entire landmass. The main headquarters is located at Whitehall, London.

The Ministry of Defence subsumed the operations of the Admiralty, the War Office and the Air Ministry in 1964, to help better coordinate the Armed Forces of Britain.

THE MINISTERS AS OF MAY THE 6TH 2005

Secretary of State for Defence - The Rt Hon Dr. John Reid MP

- Minister of State (*Armed Forces*) - The Rt Hon Adam Ingram MP
- Under Secretary of State and Minister for Defence Procurement – Lord Drayson
- Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State for Defence and Ministers for Veterans – Don Touhig MP

INTELLIGENCE FUNCTIONS

Prior to the creation of the MoD, each Armed Force carried out their own intelligence operations; although, each service to this day retains their own limited forms of military intelligence. Historically, the other three intelligence agencies started life as a part of the military structure (MI5 and MI6 being military prefixes). These other agencies (as well as GCHQ) provide the MoD with suitable intelligence. The MoD uses this information to strategically employ its Armed Forces as part of the United Kingdom's international security agenda.

DEPARTMENTAL AGENCIES

Army Base Repair Organisation (ABRO) 1
Armed Forces Personnel Administration Agency 1
Army Personnel Centre 1
Army Training and Recruiting Agency 1
British Forces Postal Services 1
Central Data Management Authority 1
Defence Analytical Services Agency 3
Defence Aviation Repair Agency 1
Defence Bills Agency 2
Defence Communication Services Agency 1
Defence Dental Agency 3
Defence Estates 3
Defence Geographic and Imagery Intelligence Agency 1
Defence Housing Executive 3
Defence Intelligence and Security Centre 1
Defence Logistics Organisation 1
Defence Medical, Education and Training Agency 3
Defence Procurement Agency 2
Defence Science and Technology Laboratory 3
Defence Storage and Distribution Agency 1
Defence Transport and Movements Agency 1
Defence Vetting Agency 1
Disposal Services Agency 2
Duke of York's Royal Military School 3
Medical Supplies Agency 3
Meteorological Office 3
Ministry of Defence Police and Guarding Agency, which includes the Ministry of Defence Police 3
Naval Manning Agency 1
Naval Recruiting and Training Agency 1
Pay and Personnel Agency Parliamentary 3
Queen Victoria School 3
RAF Personnel Manning Agency 1
RAF Training Group Defence 1
Service Children's Education 3
UK Hydrographic Office 3
Veterans Agency 3
Warship Support Agency 1

1 Reporting to the Minister of State (Armed Forces)
2 Reporting to the Parliamentary Secretary (Minister for Defence Procurement)
3 Reporting to the Parliamentary Secretary (Minister for Veterans)



MAIN HEADQUARTERS LOCATED AT WHITEHALL, LONDON

TRI-SERVICE GROUPS



In the British Armed Forces a revolution has occurred. A number of units across the Armed Services have been amalgamated to develop new brigades, groups and authorities. Groups have been formed to meet emerging threats (Joint NBC Regiment), to rationalize replicated intelligence functions (Defence Intelligence Staff), to recreate specialist units to combat terrorism (Special Reconnaissance Regiment) and to service NATO commitments (The 16th Air Assault Brigade).

INTELLIGENCE UNITS

DEFENCE INTELLIGENCE STAFF (DIS)



Chief of Defence Intelligence (CDI) – Lieutenant-General Andrew Ridgway (*Nov 05*)
Deputy Chief of Defence Intelligence (DIAS) – John Paulson (*Nov 05*)

The Defence Intelligence Staff is part of the Ministry of Defence; it is funded by the Defence Vote, it is an essential element in the central intelligence machinery of state. The Defence Intelligence Staff is the main provider of strategic defence intelligence to the Ministry of Defence (MoD) and Armed Forces. The headquarters is located in the Old War Office Building in Whitehall, London. The DIS provides support to other Government departments, by providing advice and intelligence assessments. The assessments also play a key role in UK support for NATO initiatives and the WEU.

The DIS can trace its ancestry back to the operations of the Joint Intelligence Bureau (JIB), which was established in 1946. It was headed up by General Keith Strong, General Eisenhower's British wartime Chief of Intelligence. The DIS was established in 1964 after the amalgamation of the three service intelligence staffs and the civilian Joint Intelligence Bureau; this integrated body was thought to best serve the Ministry of Defence, Armed Forces and other Government Departments.

The DIS is tasked with analyzing information from a wide variety of sources, both overt and covert. This is primarily to assist the Ministry of Defence policy-makers, military planners and force commanders to make informed decisions. These organizations need an accurate view of world developments, timely warnings against impending crisis and informed reports on the places British forces will be deployed (are deployed). The unit produces these reports from both open source media and classified reports. These assessments range from studies on the characteristics of foreign weapon systems, through to analysis of the key foreign influences at work in parts of the world where the United Kingdom has strategic or economic interest.

The DIS is staffed by serving officers, civilian research staff, scientific staff and linguists. The head of the DIS is the Chief of Defence Intelligence (CDI). This position is generally held by at least a 3 star officer, who may be drawn from any of the three services. The Chief reports to the Chief of the Defence Staff and the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Defence. The Chief is responsible for the overall coordination of the defence intelligence needs throughout the Armed Forces, and specifically, for each single-service command. The CDI is charged with the overall direction of the intelligence gathered by the defence community and its standards and policies. The CDI is Deputy Chairman of the Joint Intelligence Committee (JIC) that produces intelligence assessments on behalf of the UK intelligence community. The CDI position generally rotates between the three Forces.

As part of the Peace Implementation Force (IFOR) in the former Yugoslavia, the DIS runs a full-time Yugoslav Crisis Cell, which calls upon the resources and expertise within the Defence Intelligence Staff. The Yugoslav Crisis Cell can also call upon further expertise from the military (infrastructure and technical resources divisions) and industry analysts. It can even call upon the Embargo Monitoring Cell.

All assessments are speedily and securely disseminated to the British Forces engaged as part of the IFOR deployment by the Joint Headquarters, at the same time as the information is passed to the Department. When it is indeed possible and/or appropriate, the assessments are also sent to the British Allies, operating alongside the British forces in Yugoslavia; they are either sent through the NATO communications system or through intelligence liaison staff members resident within the DIS itself.

The DIS was involved in the setting up of the WEU Situation Centre and Intelligence Section. The DIS submits Weekly Intelligence Summaries to the Intelligence Section; this is supplemented by weekly briefings on the developing situation in the former Yugoslavia. The Cell also responds to various other requests from the Section for detailed briefings on specific areas. The DIS continues to work with WEU partners to stabilize the region and improve the WEUs ability to receive and circulate intelligence.

In recent years, the NATO commitment in the former Yugoslavia has diminished substantially.

The DIS has some 4,600 military and civilian staff; it has about 700 that are located in the DIS Headquarters in the Old War Office Building at Whitehall, London. The remaining staff work in the DIS Defence Agencies and at other units located around the UK and overseas. Up to 60% of the manpower at the DIS is comprised of serving members of the Armed Forces, who have been seconded to the service. The DIS is divided into two main parts, the Defence Intelligence Analysis Staff (DIAS) and the Intelligence and Geographic Resources Staff (IGRS). Additionally, there are other staff sections that deal with finance; personnel; departmental management; and information systems and communications section (who report directly to the CDI).

The DIS was embroiled in controversy in September of 2003 when senior weapons experts at the DIAS (including Dr. Brian Jones) were unhappy about the wording of a dossier that detailed the threat to the UK posed by Iraq's weapons of mass destruction. The JIC dossier was published by the government in September 2003 to support its case for the invasion of Iraq. Doctor Jones and others complained to the then DCDI, Tony Cragg, that the wording of the document was misleading. This situation led to the unfortunate suicide of another DIS specialist, Dr. David Kelly and the subsequent *Hutton Inquiry*.

The civilian Deputy Chief of Defence Intelligence (DCDI) heads up the Defence Intelligence Analysis Staff (DIAS); this section is responsible for providing global defence intelligence assessments and strategic warnings. The DIAS has access to classified information provided by the Government Communications Headquarters (GCHQ), the Secret Intelligence Service (SIS), the Security Service (MI5), Allied intelligence services and military intelligence collection assets. This is in addition to general diplomatic reporting and a wide array of open-source information opportunities. There are around 300 intelligence analysts working in this area, plus management and support staff.

The Intelligence and Geographic Resources Staff (IGRS) is headed up by the Director General of Intelligence and Geographic Resources (DGIGR); this post is generally filled by at least a two-star military officer, who could be drawn from any of the three sister services. The DGIGR manages six policy branches in the Old War Office Building. The DGIGR has responsibility for the collection, oversight and provision of specialist intelligence and geographic information for defence. It is also the administrator of three DIS Defence Agencies: the Defence Intelligence and Security Centre (DISC), the Joint Air Reconnaissance Intelligence Centre (JARIC) and Military Survey. In April 2000, two of these agencies were merged (JARIC and Military Survey) to form the Defence Geographic and Imagery Intelligence Agency.

DEFENCE GEOGRAPHIC AND IMAGERY INTELLIGENCE AGENCY (DGIA)



The agency is the result of the merger of the Joint Air Reconnaissance Intelligence Centre and the Military Survey Service. They were merged into a streamlined agency on the 10th of May 1999 after the Strategic Defence Review recommended it would improve operational effectiveness and provide better service to Defence.

The DGIA is based around Britain at four main sites: Feltham in West London, Brampton near Huntingdon, Tolworth in Surrey and Hermitage near Newbury. The Headquarters is at Feltham; alongside its largest business unit, the Defence Geographic Centre. The agency has around 1,700 staff (of which 50% are civilians and representatives of all three services). The Agency specializes in the production of imagery intelligence and geographic information to support current military operations, defence planning, general intelligence requirements and in wider government interests.

Prior to the merger, the Military Survey's role was to ensure that provisions were made for geographic and geospatial support: generally meaning, providing accurate up-to-date maps of anywhere around the world for military and intelligence operations. This service had 1,078 staff in 1999 and occupied the Feltham, Hermitage and Tolworth sites now used by the DGIA. With restructuring, it is expected that staff numbers have been slightly reduced with attendant efficiency gains.

The Joint Air Reconnaissance Intelligence Centre (JARIC) had around 500 staff, before the merge, and was based at RAF Brampton, near Huntingdon. It acted as a center for excellence in the production of imagery intelligence. Its role was to exploit and analyze imagery from all available sources and produce intelligence products and services to meet MoD requirements and operational commands. Its information supported current operations, assisted defence planning and informed wider intelligence discussions. The JARIC was also tasked with the provision to train and provide experienced personnel in the support of specific military operations.

The JARIC before the merger was enhancing its abilities to use digital technology to aid in imagery analysis: its use of computer-generated 3-D visualizations and the merging of multi-source images have pushed forward the frontier of what is possible. Such initiatives have proved invaluable in simulating special operations missions before they take place.

DEFENCE INTELLIGENCE AND SECURITY CENTRE (DISC)



The Defence Intelligence and Security Centre (DISC) is located at Chicksands in Bedfordshire. The Agency formed in October 1996 to integrate intelligence functions and security training into a single tri-service organization. The function of Defence Intelligence and Security Centre is to train in intelligence and security disciplines; train in the conduct after capture, and to provide advice on intelligence matters and security policy. DISC now trains all the Armed Forces in intelligence matters, and even some aspects (interrogation) to other intelligence agencies. It provides advice on policy matters and has an operational capability. It employs around 500 staff and its operating costs are in the vicinity of £10 million a year.

SPECIAL FORCES

JOINT SPECIAL FORCES SUPPORT GROUP



The Joint Special Forces Support Group is a proposed new formation of the British Armed Forces; it was announced in December 2004 as part of a Force restructuring. It will be set up along the lines of the US Army Rangers, it has been informally dubbed the "British Rangers", and will act as support to the UKSF. It is to be based at St. Athan barracks in South Wales, close to the Hereford HQ of the SAS. Although the Rangers will be a tri-service formation, its initial intake will be formed around the 1st Battalion of the Parachute Regiment. As a result, 1 PARA became one of four infantry battalions to be cut from the Parachute Regiment's line infantry.

Speculation suggests that the new formation could be operational by 2008, it will initially consist of around 450 men from 1 PARA, plus another 200 from the Royal Marines and the RAF Regiment. It is suggested that it will be commanded by a Lieutenant Colonel of the Parachute Regiment. It is expected that the selection procedure will be tougher than regular Armed Forces commando units, but not as tough as the SAS/SBS selection process.

The group is expected to be deployed to support and supply assault troops in military operations. It is understood that the Commander might be keen to also exploit the special skills of the Royal Marines (marine surveillance) and the specialist skills of the RAF Regiment (securing landing sites and airfields).

SPECIAL RECONNAISSANCE REGIMENT



The Special Reconnaissance Regiment (SRR) is a special-forces regiment of the British Army; it specializes in counter-terrorism surveillance. It became operational on 6 April 2005 and forms part of the United Kingdom Special Forces (UKSF) group.



FORMATION

The SRR is based at Hereford and is a dedicated British Army unit devoted to surveillance operations, particularly against terrorists. It was formed in part to respond to the need for greater forces against terrorism. Unlike other areas of the British Army, it recruits both sexes, and members do not have to pass UKSF selection.

There is little information about the service within the public domain, but it is highly likely that it undertakes operations similar to that of the decommissioned 14 Intelligence Company (a.k.a the Joint Communications Unit). This Company was devoted to disrupting Irish Republican terrorism during the 1970s until the mid-1990s. The SRR was formed in part to absorb the functions of 14 Intelligence Company and the Special Air Service. It is hoped that this new group will free the SAS and SBS from surveillance operations, to concentrate solely on their key function of “hard end” military operations.

In the Group’s short life, there have been a couple of scandals involving members of the SRR. One story suggests that the SRR was involved in the investigation of the shooting death by police of Jean Charles de Menezes, after the July 7th Bombings in London 2005. Speculation suggests that SRR officers might have been amongst the plain-clothes officers present during this shooting. Another story suggests that SRR operatives were arrested in Iraq in September 2005, after returning fire to Iraqi police in Basra. It was suggested that after the arrest, a large collection of weapons was found at the residence of the suspect, and bomb-making equipment too.

SPECIALIST UNITS

JOINT NUCLEAR BIOLOGICAL AND CHEMICAL REGIMENT



The Joint NBC Regiment provides highly specialized expertise in defeating threats by Weapons of Mass Destruction (WMDs) and general NBC emergencies. The Regiment consists of the 1st Royal Tank Regiment and the 27 Squadron RAF Regiment. The Regiment was formed in 1998 when the Strategic Defence Review highlighted the need for a specialist force to meet the growing NBC threat. It is based at RAF Honington in Suffolk. The Regiment provides operational support for all deployed British Force units. The unit is also called upon in peacetime to assist civil authorities deal with incidents involving radiological or biological elements, or chemical spills. The Regiment is said to have provided much needed support during the 2001 Foot and Mouth outbreak.

The Regiment is expert in reconnaissance, detection and surveying of WMDs. The Regiment is equipped with Fuchs Reconnaissance Vehicles and other high mobility transportation, mounted with specialist NBC detection equipment. The unit can be deployed at short notice.

The Regiment has served in Kuwait over the past few years, providing detection capabilities in support of British Forces in OP RESINATE (South), and it has also deployed a small number of specialists to Afghanistan, in support of the International Stabilization Force. At these sites, it provides 24 Hour sampling and monitoring of chemical or biological agents, or suspect weapons.

The Regiment has specialist equipment including Fuchs Nuclear and Chemical Reconnaissance and Survey Vehicles, the Prototype Biological Detection System (PBDS) and the Multi-Purpose Decontamination System (MPDS). The PBDS is set to be replaced by the new and more capable Integrated Biological Detection System (IBDS) in the next few years.

PROTOTYPE BIOLOGICAL DETECTION SYSTEM (PBDS)

The PBDS was developed within the UK and it detects and identifies biological agents. It consists of a detection suite that contains a box-body mounted upon a Bedford 4 tonne truck chassis. A generator is towed to power the system. The suite is afforded some minor armor protection; it has a communications suite and a GPS system onboard.

MULTI-PURPOSE DECONTAMINATION SYSTEM (MPDS)

The MPDS is a diesel driven, high pressure cleaning and decontamination system. It consists of two KARCHER water pumps that are capable of spraying water at different temperatures (ranging from cold to stream); it has a 9000 litre capacity, and it is mounted on a DROPS flat-rack for easy maneuverability.

The system is capable of drawing its water (including seawater) from either open sources or service sources like bulk water carriers. The system is operated in conjunction with decontaminates. It can be operated from its truck mount or dismounted.

UK 16TH AIR ASSAULT BRIGADE



The 16th Air Assault Brigade was formed on the 3rd of September 1999, by merging the 5th Airborne Brigade, 24th Airmobile Brigade and the 9th Regiment Army Air Corps (AAC). This rapid reaction force was created to respond quickly to crisis worldwide. Its primary role is to conduct strike operations to secure, or open points of entry for other land and air elements; usually taking place over protracted distances. Such operations generally involve insertion by parachute. The 16th AAB exploits the capabilities of the WAH-64s helicopter, with their great maneuverability and firepower. This combination of elements from all of the British Armed Forces is unique, and is seen as the future of British combat capabilities. The Brigade is seen as the natural place for the Armed Services to trial new tactics, doctrines and equipment.

The Brigade is assigned to NATO's Multinational Division (Central) - the MND(C) – as part of the Allied Rapid Reaction Corps (ARRC). This 16th AAB represents an 8000-man strong commitment to maintain stability within Europe.

One continued problem for the brigade is in finding new recruits able to fill the more technical roles within its service; finding pilots capable of handling combat aircraft and helicopters is the major, chronic problem. The dwindling numbers of new recruits signing up to both the regular Army and volunteer Territorial Army does not help matters at all.

The following is the structure of the 16th AAB and their relative functions:

Headquarters 16th Air Assault Brigade – Command and Control

1st Battalion, the Parachute Regiment – Airborne infantry

2nd Battalion, the Parachute Regiment – Airborne infantry

3rd Battalion, the Parachute Regiment – Light infantry

1st Battalion, the Royal Irish Regiment – Air Assault

7th Parachute Regiment, Royal Horse Artillery – Artillery battalion

3rd Regiment, AAC – Helicopter battalion

4th Regiment, AAC – Helicopter battalion

9th Regiment, AAC – Helicopter battalion

23rd Engineer Regiment – Engineer battalion

13th Air Assault Support Regiment RLC – Logistics battalion

16th Close Support Medical Regiment – Medical battalion

7th Battalion, REME and 132nd Aviation Support Unit RLC – Maintenance bat and aviation support unit

216th Signal Squadron – Signal company

156th Provost Company RMP – Military police company

The Pathfinder Platoon – Reconnaissance

Explosive Ordnance Disposal Troop, 33rd Engineer Regiment – Explosive ordnance disposal

The 16th AAB is operationally subordinate to the Joint Helicopter Command that forms the backbone of British (NATO) contingency operations (i.e. out-of-area operations): i.e. those that require the rapid deployment of regular operation forces. It is the command unit detailed to undertake the rapid deployment of its reinforcements to unstable, dependant territories; to evacuate UK nationals from overseas trouble spots; to provide assistance to friendly governments; and to conduct international peacekeeping operations. Fighting within a divisional or corps offensive battle formation, the 16th AAB has the capacity to conduct aviation deep attack duties, seize-and-hold operations, large-scale raids, area interdiction operations and to assist in special operations activities. The 16th AAB can conduct similar deep attack missions to that of the U.S 229th Attack Helicopter Brigade, XVII Airborne Corps, based at Fort Bragg. The 16th AAB, however, also has the additional capability to conduct airborne and air assault operations with its dedicated infantry battalions.

The 16th AAB is a complete military unit, in the sense that it can provide its own air cover; fire and infantry; reconnaissance and support units. It can perform operations that require deep penetration; screening; guarding operations and counterstrike when necessary. The helicopters can guard ground units, provide defense, undertake delaying tactics, provide passage for support lines and protect the flanks of the vulnerable ground units.

The Leading Parachute Battalion Group (LPBG) comprised of the airborne battalion; artillery battery; engineer, signals, medical and logistics detachments; they could be delivered to the flash-point just 2 to 5 days after the 'Notice to Move' is given. The remainder of the Brigade should be deployed within 30 days. The Air Assault infantry battalion has 680 soldiers, including 38 officers. It is organized into three rifle companies, a fire support company; plus headquarters and support companies. It has at its disposal 63 Land Rovers; 19 x 4-ton trucks; 23 x 8-ton trucks; 14 medium utility trucks (heavy duty); 30 ground mobile weapons platforms (modified Land Rovers); 13 ATMPs (All Terrain Multi-Purpose vehicles); 2 x 4-ton unit bulk refueling equipment (UBRE); and 114 trailers. Each of the AAC regiments contains 16 WAH-64 helicopters, ordered in two squadrons of eight. The Regiment also has access to 12 TOW-armed Lynx Mk7 helicopters, 12 Gazelle scout helicopters, and 11 Lynx Mk9 light utility helicopters (LUH). Other notable new purchases for the Brigade include Lightweight multiple launchers (nicknamed Starstreak), Supacats MK2 vehicles, AT helicopters armed with Apache/Hellfire missiles and MANPADS (housing Javelin s15 missiles).

THE ROYAL NAVY



The Royal Navy of the United Kingdom is the oldest existing service within the British Armed Forces. Its history stretches back until the reign of Alfred the Great in the 9th century. Gradually, it has become a full-time, professional service. It wasn't until the mid-17th century that the Fleet Royal was to come under parliamentary control, this followed the defeat of Charles I in the English Civil War. This second reformation of the Navy heralded a new era of professionalism and accountability. The English, who had suffered a series of defeats at the hands of the Spanish and the Dutch, quickly became the dominant force in naval warfare. The Battle of Trafalgar in 1805, against the combined fleets of the French and Spanish,

showed that the smaller, but more experienced fleet had no equal. This victory consolidated Britain's advantage over the other European maritime powers, and led an era of unrivalled expansion for the British Empire.

After the Second World War, British fortunes (both military and economic) slowly declined, in stark contrast to their American cousins. The Navy during the Cold War became selective in its purchases and sought to upgrade its fleet to carry nuclear warheads. At this time, the Navy became the sole carrier of the United Kingdom's nuclear deterrent. The Royal Navy was reconfigured into having three anti-submarine warfare aircraft carriers and a small force of frigates and destroyers at its disposal. The purpose of this realignment was to have ships capable of searching, and if necessary, destroying Soviet submarines in the North Atlantic.

The Falklands War in 1982, showed that the Royal Navy was quite capable of winning small-scale wars on its own. Furthermore, it showed that it could undertake battles at distances of up to 8,000 miles from its home-ports (12,800kms), without being unduly hampered.

The Royal Navy in the last 20 years has participated in the Gulf War, the Kosovo conflict, the Afghanistan campaign and the 2003 Iraq War. During the Iraq war, its fleet bombarded strategic positions in support of the Al Faw Peninsula landings by its Royal Marines. The submarines the HMS Splendid and Turbulent also launched a number of tomahawk cruise missiles on targets within Iraq.

CURRENT DEPLOYMENTS



Atlantic Patrol Task (North): This patrol is usually carried out by a single warship and/or a RFA vessel deployed in the Caribbean. This happens during the hurricane season from May to November.

Atlantic Patrol Task (South): This constitutes the Royal Navy's considerable commitment to the South Atlantic and West African areas, which is comprised of a single warship accompanied by an RFA vessel. Additionally, there is a vessel permanently deployed as part of the Royal Navy's *Falkland Islands Guardship* duties. This vessel is usually a castle-class patrol vessel. The *HMS Endurance* is also deployed for half the year as an ice-breaking, Ice Patrol Ship.

United Kingdom: The Royal Navy has a presence, of course, in its home waters; it's mainly in place to protect its fishery areas and offshore gas and oil installations. The patrols are tasked to the RN's Fishery Protection Squadron. This squadron is comprised of the new river-class patrol vessels, with a varying number of hunt-class minesweepers (because they rotate between fishery protection and mine counter-measure duties). Additionally, the Fleet Ready Escort (FRE), which is made up of a single warship, can provide a rapid response capability, and undertake a variety of tasks as required, including being utilized as an aircraft carrier flagship. There are also a number of escort ships available for one-off deployments.

The Persian Gulf: The Royal Navy has maintained a significant presence within the Persian Gulf area for many years. Currently, a single warship and a supporting RFA vessel is on patrol as part of Operation Oracle and the Armilla Patrol, another aspect of the UK's contribution to fighting the 'War of Terror'. This vessel is also available for tasking anywhere East-of-Suez.

The Far East: The Royal Navy no longer commands a permanent presence within the Far East and Pacific regions. Instead, it deploys a significant temporary presence in the form of the Naval Task Group (NTG); this Group performs specific operations as required, and is also deployed every three years as part of the Five Powers Defence Arrangements (FPDA) Treaty.

Naval Standing Naval Force: The Royal Navy continues to deploy a substantial force in aid of NATO operations. The United Kingdom deploys a single warship to the NATO Response Force, as part of the Standing Naval Force Atlantic (STANAVFORLANT) and the Standing Naval Force Mediterranean (STANAVFORMED). The Royal Navy also provides a mine-sweeper countermeasures vessel to the Mine Countermeasures Force (North) and Mine Countermeasures Force (South). At other times, the Royal Navy also deploys a vanguard-class submarine (SSBN) to help demonstrate the inherent British (NATO) nuclear deterrent.

NAMES

The Royal Navy has a variety of nicknames including “The Mob”, “The Andrew” and “The Senior Service”. The British sailor is afforded the nickname of a “Jack” (shortened from the traditional, Jacktar). A foreign derived nickname for a Royal Navy sailor is a “Limey”. In the major port towns of Portsmouth and Plymouth, the sailors are often referred to as “Matelots” (a French word for sailor pronounced ‘matloes’), or even the more derogatory “skates” (derived from innuendo related to supposed sexual relations with fish). The Royal Marines are often fondly known as “Bootnecks”, or simply as “Royals”.

COMMAND

The Royal Navy is established under the royal prerogative, and thus, the head of the Royal Navy is known as the Lord High Admiral: the Queen is still the notional head of all United Kingdom Armed Forces. The Royal Navy has in the past, been run by an Admiralty Board that was headed up by the First Lord of the Admiralty. In 1964, the functions of the Admiralty were transferred to the Secretary of State for Defence and the Defence Council of the United Kingdom. The title of Lord High Admiral has been transferred back, effectively, to the Sovereign.

The functions of the Defence Council that concern the administration of the Naval Service are formally delegated to the Admiralty Board and its sub-committee. The day-to-day responsibility for running the Navy is exercised by the Navy Board.

The professional head of the Royal Navy is the First Sea Lord, who is also given the title of Chief of the Naval Staff. The First Sea Lord is currently Admiral Sir Alan West (Nov 05)

COMMANDERS-IN-CHIEF

Historically, the Royal Navy has split its operations into several different commands, each with a Commander-in-Chief. Now, only two Commanders-in-Chief remain: Commander-in-Chief Fleet (CINCFLEET) and Commander-in-Chief Naval Home Command (CINCNAVHOME). There is further rationalization planned, until only one Commander-in-Chief remains.

The Commander-in-Chief Fleet and his small retinue is based at Northwood, whilst the rest of CINCFLEET’s have moved to a new purpose built facility at Plymouth. The Fleet Chief is responsible for all deployments currently at sea. The Commander-in-Chief Naval Home Command is responsible for the shore-based establishments and manpower of the Royal Navy. The Home Command Chief is stationed at Portsmouth (his flag flies aboard *HMS Victory*). He currently holds the title of Second Sea Lord.

CURRENT SHIPS

All commissioned (surface) ships of the Royal Navy are accorded the prefix HMS, which stands for Her Majesty’s Ship. Submarines are given the title of HM Submarine (although the prefix is still HMS). Fleet support units are usually manned by civilians and are thus, given the prefix of RFA or Royal Fleet Auxiliary.

The following classes of vessels are in use today:

CLASS	TYPE	QUANTITY	YEAR	DETAILS
Invincible	Aircraft Carrier	3	1977	Light aircraft carrier flying Sea Harrier FA 2 aircraft and Merlin and Sea King helicopters.
Ocean	Amphibious assault ship	1	1999	A Landing Platform, helicopter carrier, carrying up to 18 helicopters and 4 landing craft.
Albion	Landing Platform Dock	2	2003	Used for amphibious assault, capable of carrying 4 landing craft, and up to 325 men.
Type 42 (Sheffield)	Destroyer	8	1975	Anti-aircraft destroyer, carries the Sea Dart anti aircraft missile. Due to be replaced by the Type 45 Destroyers.
Type 23 (Duke)	Frigate	14	1989	Anti-submarine/general purpose frigate. Carries the harpoon missile for anti-ship warfare, and Sea Wolf for air defence. Capable of holding one Lynx chopper with Sea Skua missiles, Stingray torpedoes or depth charges.
Type 22 (Broadsword)	Frigate	4	1979	Anti-submarine/general purpose frigate. Carries the harpoon missiles for anti-ship warfare, and Sea Wolf for air defence. Capable of holding two Lynx chopper with Sea Skua missiles, Stingray torpedoes or depth charges.
Endurance	Antarctic patrol vessel	1	1991	Icebreaker patrol vessel for deployment in the Antarctic.
Vanguard	SSBN	4	1993	Nuclear ballistic missile submarines, carrying the Trident missiles, the UK's nuclear deterrent.
Swiftsure	Submarine	4	1974	Nuclear powered fleet submarines, carrying torpedoes and Tomahawk cruise missiles.
Trafalgar	Submarine	7	1985	Nuclear powered fleet submarines, carrying torpedoes and Tomahawk cruise missiles.
Sandown and Hunt	Minesweeper	21	1970s	Minesweepers with secondary patrol vessel role.
Castle and Archer	Patrol Vessel	18	1970s	Patrol vessels for coastal defence and surveillance.

THE ROYAL MARINES



Motto: *Per Mare Per Terram* ("By Sea, By Land"),



The Corps of Royal Marines is usually known by the title *the Royal Marines* (RM). The Marines are a key component of the Armed Force's Rapid Deployment Force. They specialize in amphibious infiltration; the commando force is usually lightly equipped and can perform operations in all terrain types.

The first unit of the English naval infantry was originally called the Duke of York and Albany's Maritime Regiment of Foot, and soon became known as the Admiral's Regiment. It was formed in October 1664 with an initial strength of some 1200 infantrymen. The name 'Marines' first appeared in official records in 1672. Naval infantry were originally under the control of the British Army, this remained the case until 1755 when His Majesty's Marine Forces was formed (fifty companies in three divisions). In 1802 they were re-titled the Royal Marines.

There are a number of Commando units:

- 40 Commando - formerly 3rd Royal Marine Battalion
- 41 Commando - formerly 8th Royal Marine Battalion (disbanded 1981)
- 42 Commando - formerly 1st Royal Marine Battalion
- 43 Commando - formerly 2nd Royal Marine Battalion (disbanded 1968)
- 44 Commando - renumbered 40 Commando in 1946
- 45 Commando - formerly 5th Royal Marine Battalion

TRAINING

The Marines undergo an intensive, long basic training regime at the Commando Training Centre for Royal Marines (CTCRM) at Lympstone in Devon. The Royal Marines is the only British Force that trains both officers and recruits at the same facility. A great percentage of the training that is carried out is on the sparse, rugged terrain of Dartmoor - a lot of this training is undertaken at night.

BASIC TRAINING

The first weeks of training are devoted solely to learning basic skills that will be integrated later. A lot of time is spent marching and improving rifle skills. The physical training emphasizes the development of all-round body strength; as heavy pack weights are routine lifted/carried in operations. Key tests include a gym pass-out test (week 9), they then progress to the 'bottom field' to complete a battle swimming test. The marines also have to perform a 'regain' (which is to *regain* balance on top of a suspended rope from a position hanging below it); this is usually performed over an expanse of open water. These tests are usually completed with 'fighting order' requirements (i.e. carrying the 32lbs of equipment). Individual field-craft skills are also introduced in basic training.

THE COMMANDO COURSE

The culmination of training is known simply as the Commando Course. Since the British Commandos creation during the Second World War, all Royal Marines (except those in the Royal Marines Band Service) have completed the Commando Course as part of their training. The main areas the course covers includes climbing, rope-work techniques, patrolling and amphibious operations.

The intensive phase of training ends with a series of tests that have barely been changed in emphasis since World War II.

The following commando tests are completed on consecutive days

- A nine-mile (14.5km) speed march to be completed in 90 minutes
- The Endurance Course is a six-mile (9.65km) course across craggy terrain at Woodbury Common near Lympstone: includes tunnels, pipes, wading pools, and an underwater culvert. The course is completed with a four-mile run back to base. This is followed by a marksmanship test. The entire course must be completed in 72 minutes (70 minutes for Royal Marine Officers)
- The Tarzan Assault Course is a course to test aerial confidence. It starts with a death slide and ends with a rope climb up a 30-foot vertical wall. It must be completed in 13 minutes (12 minutes for officers)
- A nine mile (14km) speed march that must be completed in 90 minutes
- The Thirty Miler is of course a 30 mile (48km) march across Dartmoor, it must be completed in eight-hours for recruits (7 hours for officers); they must also navigate the route themselves. Those who fail this final test are allowed to take it again the next day

Completing the Commando Course successfully entitles to recruit to wear the coveted green beret; this however, doesn't mean the end of training. The decision is made by the troop or batch training team, and will depend on their recruit's overall performance.

After basic and commando training, the Royal Marine Commando will normally join a unit attached to 3 Commando Brigade. There are three Royal Marines Commando infantry units in the Brigade: 40 Commando located at Norton Manor in Somerset; 42 Commando at Bickleigh near Plymouth, Devon; and 45 Commando at Arbroath on the east-coast of Scotland.

SPECIALIST TRAINING

There are a number of opportunities available to undertake specialist training in the Royal Marines. There is the possibility of volunteering for special-forces operations with the Special Boat Service (SBS). Specialist training within the Commando structure includes sniper training, platoon weapons, drill instructor, PT instructor, mountain leader (skiing and arctic warfare), support weapons, pilot training, or Advanced Amphibious Training (AAT). A recent addition to the Royal Marines is the specialist unit known as Electronic Warfare Department (EWD); this unit specializes in attacking and interrogation of enemy communications networks (and defending British military networks from SIGINT attack).

COMMANDO ORGANIZATION

There are four battalion sized combat units within the Royal Marines, three of which are designated as ‘commando’ units (40 Commando, 42 Commando and 45 Commando). These battalions were structured along Army lines until recently. The commandos are now commanded by a full Colonel, rather than a Lieutenant-Colonel. The units are structured into four-man *Fire-Teams*; these are the basic building blocks of each unit (similar somewhat in concept to the SAS troop structure). The Royal Marine works each day with his Team in the field and lives in the same provided accommodation; as such, they tend to build up a greater degree of camaraderie than most regular troops.

The three battalion-sized Royal Marine Commandos are each organized into six companies (they are further organized into platoon-sized troops)

- One Command Company
- One Logistic Company
 - A Echelon 1 (A Ech1)
 - A Echelon 2 (A Ech2)
 - FRT
 - RAP
 - B Echelon (B Ech)
- Two Close Combat Companies
 - Company Headquarters (Coy HQ)
 - 3 Close Combat Troops (Troop HQ, 3 Rifle Sections, Manoeuvre Support Section)
- Two Stand Off Companies
 - Company Headquarters (Coy HQ)
 - Heavy Machine Gun (HMG) Troop (0.5" heavy machine guns)
 - Anti-Tank Troop (Milan - to be replaced with Javelin)
 - Close Combat Troop

AMPHIBIOUS READY GROUP

The Amphibious Ready Group is a mobile amphibious support force, organized similar to that of the Commando Groups, and has its own support assets. It is kept at a high state of readiness for immediate deployment anywhere in the world. The Group is usually based on one of the specialist amphibious ships like the HMS Ocean (which is the largest ship in the Royal Navy fleet). The HMS Ocean was designed and purpose built to assist in the embarkation of Commandos and their associated stores and equipment. The basic strategy of the Amphibious Ready Group is to wait beyond the horizon and deploy swiftly as directed. The amphibious force is intended to be self-sustaining; meaning it can operate without support.

SUPPORT UNITS

The three Commando Brigades not only consist of Royal Marine units, but also include support elements provided by other branches of the armed forces fraternity (mainly the Army). The Commando Logistic Regiment, consisting of both RM and Army personnel, provides combat service logistical support; the 29 Commando Regiment Royal Artillery (based at Plymouth) provides signals support; and 59 Independent Commando Squadron Royal Engineers (based at Chivenor, near Barnstaple) provides engineering support. All Army ranks serving within these brigades also undergo commando training. In wartime, various other units may become attached or detached according to requirements; like during the 1982 Falklands War, two battalions of the Parachute Regiment and a squadron of light tanks were attached.

UNITS OF THE ROYAL MARINES

3 Commando Brigade: Is the main formation of the Royal Marines

- Command Support Group
- 40 Commando
- 42 Commando
- 45 Commando (Based at RM Condor, Arbroath, Scotland)
- 539 Assault Squadron
- Commando Logistic Regiment

1 Assault Group: This provides training in the use of landing craft, and is the parent unit for the three assault squadrons that are based on the Royal Navy's assault ships.

- 4 Assault Squadron - HMS Bulwark
- 6 Assault Squadron - HMS Albion
- 9 Assault Squadron - HMS Ocean

Fleet Protection Group: The home defence unit of the Royal Marines, performs various tasks outside the remit of the 3 Commando Brigade; things such as the protection of nuclear weapons and provision pertaining to maintaining a Northern Ireland patrol squadron. The FPG maintains the traditions of 43 Commando.

Commando Training Centre: This is the training unit for the corps, consisting of:

Commando Training Wing: This wing conducts basic commando training of selected new recruits

Specialist Wing: This wing provides specialist training beyond the remit of the initial commando course.

Command Wing: This provides command training for both officers and NCOs of the Royal Marines.

Royal Marines Band Service: The only branch of the Royal Marines, which intakes women and the personnel may not have completed commando training (they wear a blue beret instead of the green)

COMACCHIO GROUP

The Comacchio Group Royal Marines are based at Arbroath in Scotland and provide detachments of marines for various security duties, reconnaissance patrols, quick-reaction boat teams and boat patrols. The Group is detailed to provide regular support for the Clyde Submarine Base and its surrounds. They are tasked to provide boat patrols in Northern Ireland. The group also enjoys regular postings to Cyprus and the United States: mainly for joint-exercises purposes.



The group is part of the Royal Marines, but they perform a very specific function. Its role dates back to political concerns raised during the 1970s when fears were held that oil-rigs in the North Sea might be targeted by terrorist groups (Palestinian and Northern Ireland nationalist groups) - or even Soviet Union's Spetsnaz teams. During the years since the Group's formation in 1980, its role has expanded to include additional responsibilities, including providing security for various Naval nuclear assets, like the Faslane Royal Navy nuclear submarine base. The group is also detailed to intercept various ships in British waters. The Group trains in ship assault techniques in case of terrorist attack by water.

In recent years, the role of Comacchio Group has significantly altered. It was decided that the Special Boat Service would take primacy in the area of protecting oil-rigs, although some key assets still fall under the auspices of Comacchio Group. The major focus now is the protection of Britain's key nuclear assets, especially the ballistic

nuclear capabilities of submarines at the Royal Navy Base at Faslane: the Trident nuclear weapons systems.

The unit has over 500 Royal Marines who are generally volunteers (a small percentage are assigned to the unit). The Group is highly skilled in the operation of small surface craft like Rigid Inflatable Boats (RIB). There are qualified divers in the unit; many are former SBS operators.

Comacchio Group is reportedly made up of two companies. In crisis situations, the Group can be made available to the local police commander to be directed as required. The Group can only take action in these situations with the express permission of the police, and government ministers.

Operationally, the unit is under the direct command of the Royal Marine Headquarters. Comacchio Group has curiously been deployed in the past to deal with nuclear protestors near bases. Although the incidents in question didn't really require their particular brand of skills, it shows that the British government is not adverse to using force to avoid exposing key nuclear assets to possible terrorist attack or sabotage.

MOUNTAIN LEADER TRAINING CADRE & BRIGADE PATROL GROUP

The Mountain Leader Group's Primary role is to instruct recruits in mountain and arctic warfare. Its Secondary role is to undertake long range reconnaissance patrols in support of 3 Commando Brigade during wartime. Its headquarters is at Stonehouse Barracks, Plymouth (Devon). The Mountain Leader Training Cadre (MLTC) is a Royal Marines unit that is responsible for maintaining the Corps' expertise in mountain and arctic warfare. During wartime, the unit changes from being a training unit into a fully-fledged reconnaissance unit to help 3rd Commando Brigade. The Brigade Patrol Group is a full-time patrol unit that is also deployed during peacetime.

The MLTC started life in the early 1950s as the Cliff Assault Wing. Its initial remit was to get troops and equipment up coastal cliffs. In 1962, the wing was renamed the Cliff Assault Troop; at this time, its remit also started to include winter warfare techniques. The first training exercises were conducted in Norway in October 1962. In 1965, it was decided to put troops through a reconnaissance course run by the Platoon Weapons Branch at the Commando Training Centre, Royal Marines (CTCRM), Lympstone. The unit also became known as the Reconnaissance Leader Troop.

In 1970, the troop became the Mountain and Arctic Warfare Cadre and moved to its present location at Stonehouse Barracks in Plymouth. After several years of deployment to the Far East, the 3rd Commando Brigade returned to the UK to aid in the guarding of NATO's Northern Flank. As such, Norway became a key area of Europe: it area was thought to be a possible location where war might start or take place. In response, annual exercises were demanded by the Commando group to be undertaken in Norway by the M&AW Cadre. These exercises were, and still are, undertaken normally during winter; they generally take place in the far north of the country.

The wartime role of the Cadre is to undertake long-range foot and ski reconnaissance for the 3 Commando Brigade. The Cadre took part in several operations during the Falklands and Gulf Wars. In 1992, it was decided that a permanent brigade-level reconnaissance unit would be setup. The Recce Troop was formed with officers and NCOs from the Cadre. It has subsequently separated from the renamed Mountain Leader Training Cadre.

TRAINING

The Mountain Leader Class 2 (ML2) course is open to junior officers of the Royal Marines, and other ranks who have passed the Junior Command Course (i.e. those who have been promoted to Corporal, or soon will be). All students are required to have passed their Commando Test, generally undertaken during their initial period of training (15 months for officers and around half that time for other ranks). Some of these students will have gained other specialist brigade level qualifications like sniping, anti-tanks or mortars. The ML2 training takes around eight months to complete, and is considered tough even by British military standards. The course starts in September and the first week is devoted to the selection phase; this is undertaken at Stonehouse Barracks in Plymouth. Those who are accepted are detailed to complete two-weeks of climbing training in Cornwall. This includes climbing cliffs and free climbing (i.e. without ropes) - undertaken both day and night. The students will spend up to 12 hours a day climbing at this early stage. In October, the training decamps to Wales and practice includes climbing larger mountains. Also during this month the candidates will attend a survival course on the Isle of Islay (off the west-coast of Scotland), and in addition, undertake the first period of the Resistance To Interrogation (RTI) course.

In November, the candidates begin combining patrolling and raiding skills with mountainous areas. In December, they continue climbing in preparation for the next phase of training that is undertaken in Norway. Just before Christmas the course moves to this rugged and freezing terrain. The initial emphasis of the training in Norway is in snow and ice climbing techniques, and Arctic survival and navigation. Although the candidates will have undertaken previous training in Norway (the Arctic Survival and Arctic Warfare course), this time around they are expected to instruct others successfully to complete this course. The trainees will now be expected to work often at heights of 10,000 feet (3000 meters). The temperature can drop to around -40 F below at night at such altitudes (including the wind chill factor).

February sees the focus of training moving towards long distance skiing skills under the supervision of Norway Army Instructors. All candidates need to qualify as Military Ski instructors. Before their final exercise in March, the marines are given seven days to prepare. The final eleven-day exercise involves four-man patrols, ski-marching and climbing up to 40km a day. The teams need to carry out close target reconnaissance and attack, and then exfiltrate to a friendly territory. They will have covered 300km by the time of completion of the exercise. All participants are eventually 'captured' and are subjected to a second period of RTI. The course ends in April with 3 weeks of *path-finding* exercises in Ben Nevis (the highest mountain in Scotland). The pass rate of the course is sometimes as low as 20%. After qualification, most of the marines will return to duty with their Commando unit, some will be attached to Army units, and others might join the Recce Troop. Each of the 3 Commando Brigades companies, batteries and squadrons have a Mountain Leader (usually a ranked Corporal) attached. They are responsible for mountain and arctic warfare training. Mountain Leaders are highly valued in leading each of the Commandos' own Reconnaissance Troops. NCOs who have completed the training wear a Specialist Qualification badge ('ML' surround by a wreath). Corporals wanting to gain promotion to Sergeant must pass the ML1 course.

RECCE TROOP

In 1992, during the reorganization of 3rd Commando Brigade it was decided a permanent Medium Range Reconnaissance Troop would be formed. It is usually referred to as Recce Troop; it was to form part of the Headquarters and Signal Squadron. Initially, it was set up as four 6-man patrols (each with a ML Sergeant, two -ML Corporals and three General Duties (GD) Marines). Today, there are six 4-man patrols. All members of the Troop have passed a six-week sniping course at Lympstone and a three-week static line parachute course at RAF Brize Norton. Those not already qualified as ML2s will be trained to Reconnaissance Leader (RL) standard.

The Recce Troop concentrates on training in the same disciplines as the Cadre; like climbing and cliff assaults; cold-weather survival; long range patrolling by ski and foot; long range communications; high altitude mountaineering; snow and ice climbing; target and route reconnaissance; primary interrogation and resistance to interrogation; and sabotage. A number of the troop will have undertaken the Army's Jungle Long-Range Patrol Course in Brunei. Some may have been trained in desert warfare, as the Royal Marines must be ready to be deployed anywhere in the world. Members may have had advanced training in diving and parachute techniques (like HALO and HAHO).

During operations, the Recce Troop could be asked to operate on their own or in conjunction with other elements of the Brigade Reconnaissance Force (BRF). This can include Y Troop and the Royal Marines' electronic warfare sub-unit. Other units include the Recce Troop of the 59 Independent Commando Squadron Royal Engineers (whose 4-man patrols are all Commando and parachute qualified); the teams of 148 Commando Forward Observation Battery Royal Artillery (including a squadron of twelve Scimitar tracked reconnaissance vehicles mounted with 30mm cannons, and four Striker anti-tank vehicles with Swingfire missiles).

The Recce Troop can perform at longer ranges than other similar Recce Troops in the Commando structure. Although SBS maintains responsibility for beach reconnaissance, the Recce Troop could be called upon to assist in gathering intelligence for the *Initial Terminal Guidance* survey that is required for larger-scale beach landings. Although parachuting is the standard form of infiltration, the troop could also be transported by the crafts of the 539 Assault Squadron Royal Marines (utilizing their air-cushion vehicles and Rigid Raider Inflatable boats).

SPECIAL BOAT SERVICE (SBS)



BRIEF HISTORY



The Special Boat Service is a special operations unit of the Royal Marines. It is a close relation to the Special Air Service; they both originated from the same WWII Commando Unit. It is said that SBS is a direct descendant of the Royal Marines Boom Patrol Detachment; that was one of the many special operations units in WWII. These also include the original *Special Boat Service* that was formed in 1940. The service later became part of 1st SAS Regiment, but in 1944, it was re-designated as the Special Boat Service. Although this meant it had gained its independence from the SAS, the team continued to wear the infamous SAS wings and beret. In 1950/51, Special Boat Sections 2 and 3 were added to Section 1. These sections were added to the Royal Navy Rhine Squadron in Germany, to help halt the Cold War Russian advance. Sections 4 and 5 were manned by volunteer reserves. In the mid-fifties, Section 6 was established to help 3 Commando Brigade in Malaya and Malta. The service saw extensive action during operations in Borneo 1963-66, Oman 1970-71 and the Falklands War in 1982.

In 1971 the service started to develop its counter-terrorist capabilities. It saw operation in the bomb hoax aboard the QE2 during 1972, in the North Atlantic. The service was deployed extensively in Northern Ireland in the 1970s; it was detailed to patrol lakes, coastlines and attempted to counter IRA gun-running. It supplied some volunteers that would eventually form 14 Intelligence Company (defunct military intelligence unit). 1st SBS was dedicated to maritime counter-terrorist roles. From 1975 onwards, its role was to help protect the expanding oil-rig platform network in the North Sea. The Special Boat Company became the Special Boat Squadron also in this year. In 1980, the Royal Navy established Comacchio Group in Scotland; it also included a Special Boat Section that was named 5 SBS. All reservists, about 50 in number, now became 4 SBS.

After the Falklands War, two rifle troops from Comacchio Group were put under the command of the squadron, and 1 and 5 SBS were combined as the main counter-terrorist force. In 1987 the UK Special Forces Group command was established. The Director of the SAS became the first Director of Special Forces; his deputy was to be a Royal Marines Colonel. The SBS now attained the familiar Special Boat Service name, and its sub-units were now degreed squadrons. The MCT capability was enhanced with M Squadron: a fully manned swimmer-canoeists unit. A dedicated Swimmer Delivery Vehicle team was also established. These saw action during the Gulf War in 1990/91.

The SBS in the 1990s began to be used extensively in support of British Customs and Excise attempts to intercept drug smugglers. A squadron was also deployed during the Bosnian conflict in 1993/96.

ORGANIZATION

The primary role of the Special Boat Service is maritime special operations; specializing in intelligence gathering; observation; underwater attack; beach reconnaissance and survey; and sabotage tasks. Secondary roles include maritime counter-terrorist actions and support as a general-purpose special operations unit.

The ethos of the service demands that only the best make the grade; to this end, the unit only has 200 enlisted troopers (150 operational and 50 reservists). These are spread across four squadrons (one a reserve unit). M Squadron is the counter-terrorist force that consists of Black, Gold and Purple Troops. Sixteen-man operational troops are favored by the service (at least in traditional swimmer-canoeist type roles). These forces are regularly split into eight canoe pairs, or four 4-man patrols (or two boat-loads).

There are no comparable units within the British military. However, US Navy Special Boat Units and SDV Teams conduct similar activities to that of the SBS. Inflatable and rigid-inflatable boats are operated by the SBS themselves; they also operate SDVs. The Rigid Raiders of 53 Assault Squadron Royal Marines, and other landing craft are also utilized by the service. Air support may be provided by the RAF Special Forces Flights (*Hercules* and *Chinook* helicopters) and the Royal Navy Air Commando Squadron (*Sea King* helicopters).

TRAINING

All recruits must be Royal Marines Commandos with at least three years to run on their service. They start their RM careers with a 30-week stint at Commando Training Centre, or the 15-month Young Officers Course (at the same place). They may have completed one of the following specialist brigade-level courses (signals, heavy weapons, sniping).

Those wanting to become part of the SBS must complete an initial two-week aptitude test that consists of the following requirements:

BOATING WEEK

- Pass a Combat Fitness test
- Pass an SBS Swimming Test (demands completion of 600m in distance in 15 minutes, swim 50m fully clothed with weapon and belt kit, and swim 25m distance underwater without surfacing)
- Complete all canoe trials, including marches with bergen and canoe, and a 30km canoe paddle test

DIVING WEEK

The must completed a series of dives by day and night and show confidence and the willingness to dive

The SAS/SBS Selection Course (see SAS training for a detailed breakdown)

Brecon Beacons Phase (3 weeks)

Pre-Jungle Training (2 weeks)

Jungle Training in Brunei (6 weeks)

Officer Week/Signals Training (1 week)

Support Weapons Training (1 week)

Army Combat Survival Instructor's Course (2 weeks)

CONTINUATION TRAINING (see SAS training for a detailed breakdown)

Demolitions (2 weeks)

Observation Post Training (1 week)

CQB Course (2 weeks)

Individual Skills Courses (8 weeks) – Signals, Demolitions, Languages and Medical

Special Forces Commander Course

Static Line Parachute Course (3 weeks)

The Special Boat Service continues its training with their own 8-week Boating and Diving course that includes; underwater navigation and demolitions; negotiating surf zones; navigating a 55km course in a Klepper canoe; and infiltration exercises via submarine. Once completed the marines are rated Swimmer Canoeist Class 3; they are entitled to wear a badge to this effect (SC over wreath). To gain promotion a Corporal must qualify as an SC2 and as a Sergeant SC3; a Sergeant must also complete the Senior Command Course at the CTC in Lympstone. These advanced training courses emphasis operation planning and training supervision.

Newly qualified swimmer-canoeists will join an operational troop. They may, however, seek to specialize further by completing training in combat medicine, communications, counter-terrorism, foreign languages, SDV driving and others disciplines. Opportunities exist for joint exercises with other nations; this provides relief from the constant grind of training. The SBS tends to favor joint exercises (and operations) with the Dutch SBS or U.S Navy Seals; having similar capabilities and focus.

WEAPONS & EQUIPMENT

During the Falklands war, the typical armory of equipment afforded an SBS soldier in a four-man observational post consisted of a M16 rifle; M203 grenade launcher; 50 high explosive grenades and a 66mm anti-tank rocket; 200 rounds of rifle ammo; smoke and phosphorous grenades; 9mm Browning pistol and hunting knife. Clearly the role of the SBS often requires access to the worlds premier firepower, especially when operating behind enemy lines.

Although most missions demand covert operation, it is never guaranteed that the soldiers can perform their activities without hostile interference; under these conditions they will often have to fight their way out of a considerable engagement – mirroring SAS-style operations in the process.

Sometimes the line between SAS operations and SBS operations is blurred, as in the Fanning Head raid during the Falklands war. In this engagement, 9 out of the 23 men were carrying 7.62mm General Purpose Machine Guns (the British version of the FN MAG). Hardly covert.



Today the most popular weapon amongst the British special-forces is the M16A2, often with a M203 grenade launcher attached (mirroring general U.S special forces operands). Other weapons used by the SBS includes the MP5 (silenced) and the Hecker and Koch HK53; both of which are widely used in counter-terrorist operations – popularized in Northern Ireland operations. The Browning Hi-Power is usually the pistol of choice in all operations. Royal Marines tradition dictates that all SBS soldiers are trained in long-range sniping skills; the Accuracy International L96A1 is the weapon favored for such undertakings. Other support weapons include the GPMG (aka Gimpy) machine gun, the 66mm Light Antitank Weapon (LAW rocket) and 51mm mortars (which can even be fired from modified SBS canoes).

The two-man kayak-type canoes are widely used in SBS operations, mainly for their relative stealth capabilities, their portability and reliability. The latest model in use is known as the Klepper Aeres Mark 13 - various forms of the Klepper have been used by British Special Forces for over 50 years. Other larger sea-craft used include the Gemini inflatable and the Avon Searider rigid-inflatable. Both of these craft are used with twin engines in case of the failure of one. The SBS service has experimented with Swimmer Delivery Vehicles since the late sixties. In operation today are vehicles descended directly from these early prototypes, plus an assortment of American built 4-man and 6-man models. The Draeger LAR-V closed circuit breathing system is most commonly used in scuba operations. In operations, the system is worn with a dry-suit over the combat uniform. The communications units favored by the service are the PRC-319 and PRC-320 radios.

SBS/SAS RIVALRY

Similar to the operations of the original Special Boat Service, the modern SBS is increasingly coming under the influence of the SAS. It has been mooted that SBS might one-day be moved to Hereford, or even disbanded, and reformed as boat troops under 22nd SAS. This would obviously enhance SAS operations, but might also impact upon the number of 'booties' joining from the Royal Marines. The loss of identity of SBS could also impact upon 3 Commando Brigade and their beach reconnaissance role (that proved so crucial during the Falklands War).

ROYAL NAVY DIVERS



The Royal Navy has two divisions of divers; Ship's Divers and the dedicated Diving Branch. The Ship's Diver usually returns to his original unit after the completion of the course; they are subsequently called upon to dive when specialist divers are needed. The HMS Vernon at Portsmouth is the main center for diving training. The SAS and Royal Engineers also perform some training at this establishment.

SHIP'S DIVERS

Officers and other ranks within the Royal Navy may apply to join the Divers. Members of the Royal Navy who volunteer as Ship's Divers must undergo a one-day aptitude test; this generally concentrates on swimming ability and the suitability of the candidate for a career in diving. Those selected will undertake a four-week course; it mainly involves familiarization with basic compressed air (open-circuit) diving techniques. During this training, the candidates are familiarized with workings of a ship's hull, searching for explosives, the use of decompression chambers and in the maintenance of diving equipment. On completion of the course, the diver will return to his ship or shore establishment, but will be encouraged to dive as often as possible. The diver will need to complete 120 minutes of underwater diving each four-months to keep his qualifications concurrent. Some experienced Ship's Divers may end up serving as full-time divers on assorted rescue helicopters within the service.



DIVING BRANCH

The recruits from the sub-branch of the Seaman's Operations Branch are ordered to complete part II of basic diving training at HMS Raleigh, stationed at Plymouth. The aptitude test for this specialist service is far more stringent, and it lasts five days. The training includes written tests, physical activities and interviews. Success leads to a fourteen-week diving course; that takes place at Vernon and other locales.

The first five weeks takes place at Horsea Lake; this portion of the training covers the use of compressed air and closed-circuit diving units, underwater navigation and endurance swimming. The trainees then head for Portsmouth docks and are introduced to *nitrox* breathing mixtures, ship's bottom searches and harbor reconnaissance. The next destination is Portland, for two weeks of seabed searches: conducted in deep water, and diving exercises down to depth of 55 meters (180 feet). Two weeks of tool-training takes place at the Defence Explosive Ordnance Disposal School; here trainees are familiarized with fixing and the destruction of propellers and dome changes. Underwater lance cutting techniques are also perfected here.

The new recruit will join either of the five Bomb and Mine Disposal Teams that cover Britain's naval bases, or join a Mine Disposal Team that covers Britain's naval interests abroad (i.e. on board one of the Royal Navy's mine-hunting vessels). Promotion to Leading Diver requires the completion of a further sixteen week course; followed by a posting to the Fleet BMD Team (operating worldwide), the Deep Diving Team or the Experimental Diving Unit; all based at Vernon.

148 COMMANDO FORWARD OBSERVATION BATTERY ROYAL ARTILLERY



Primary Role: Naval Gunfire Forward Observation (NGFO)

Secondary Role: Forward air control and artillery forward observation

Located: Poole, Dorset United Kingdom

The 148 (Meiktila) Commando Forward Observation Battery Royal Artillery is a Commando-trained unit trained in the specialist role of the observation for naval gunfire. Although it is part of the 29th Commando Regiment Royal Artillery, the unit conducts many operations separate to the rest of the Regiment. The Royal Artillery batteries are usually named after one of their honors in battle; in this case, the Battle of Meiktila in Burma in February/March 1945.

During the Second World War, the Combined Operations Bombardment Units (COBUs) provided fire direction for ships firing off shore to land. By the end of the war, there were five such units. In 1946, all these units were disbanded, except for No.2 COBU, which joined the School of Combined Operations (later becoming known as the Amphibious Warfare Centre) at Fremington. 3 Independent Combined Operations Bombardment Troop (3ICOBT) was instigated in 1949 to assist 40th Infantry Division in Hong Kong. More Amphibious Observation Units followed, and were subsequently combined to form 95th Amphibious Observation Regiment stationed at Fremington in Devon (but the batteries were stationed all around the world). By 1960, the Royal Marines no longer included gunners in their ranks and needed naval firepower; hence the use of Amphibious Observation Regiments to support such operations. By the outbreak of the Falklands War, 148 Commando was the only NGFO unit left in existence, as the Royal Navy had reduced its fleet numbers and gun-armed ships in particular. The 148 Commando unit was listed to be disbanded, until its role proved crucial in the raid on Pebble Island, where HMS Glamorgan pinned down the garrison, whilst the SAS destroyed the aircraft present. And at Fanning Head, where the twin 4.5 inch guns of HMS Antrim pounded and scattered those garrisoned in the enemy compound. After the war, the disbandment order was verily rescinded. Since this time, the unit has been deployed in the Gulf War in 1991 (and presumably the Iraq invasion of 2003).

RECRUITMENT

All members of 148 Battery are recruited from the Royal Artillery. Officers are accepted from the Depth Fire career stream, and will have served as Gun Position Officers and later served as Forward Observation Officers (FOOs), generally with 29th Commando Regiment. Other ranks posted will generally be Radio Operator/Drivers in the Gunner Commando stream, and will have progressed to Command Post Assistant; then Observation Post Assistant in one of the firing batteries (that will involve additional training).

Both officers and other ranks joining 29th Commando Regiment undertake 3 weeks Pre-Commando training at Plymouth. The successful will then go off for the eight-week All Arms Commando Course, run by the Commando Training Center of the Royal Marines at Lympstone. At Lympstone, they will be joined by members of other Armed Forces (Army, Navy and a few from the Air Force); who wish to serve in 3 Commando Brigade. This training involves route marches (or *yomping* as it is colloquially known). They will train in all aspects of amphibious landings (embarkation, debarkation). There is also training in basic commando weapons and tactics (night fighting, combat survival and helicopter assaults). Cliff climbing and abseiling are taught as well. Finally, all the skills are combined in the penultimate week. In Test Week, the trainees are required to complete a 14.5km time-limited speed march, Tarzan assault course and a 48km march (carrying 19kg of kit). Those who pass receive their green berets and 'daggers' and join the Regiment. After gaining some general experience in commando tasks, they may apply for NGFO duty. Those not qualified already, also complete training in parachute operations at RAF Brize Norton (Basic Military Parachute Course).



After completing all training they may wish to join the battery itself; however, a certain amount of additional training in the unit's equipment and procedures is needed before becoming operational. Other ranks are given the trade of Naval Gunfire Assistant

ORGANIZATION AND OPERATION

148 Battery currently consists of seven 5-man NGFO teams. There is additionally a battery headquarters including administrative and training sections. Each team is commanded by a captain; generally, with a sergeant or bombardier as his Second in Command. The remainder of the team will be either lance bombardiers or gunners. Such teams are trained to be able to be split into two, if required. The Battery trains extensively with the Special Boat Service at Poole. The battery also trains with 3 Commando Brigade and Allied Command Europe Mobile Force (Land) and the AMF(L) as part of its NATO duties. These operations familiarize the NGFOs with other NATO capabilities. Each year, 3 Commando Brigade usually decamps for exercises around the world; 148 Battery usually follows. The battery also completes training in Arctic Survival and Warfare in Norway.

How in reality do these specialist operate? Generally the team is parachuted into enemy territory before the invasion and sets up covert observation posts, to help direct naval gunfire and air-strikes by the Royal Navy and Royal Air Force; plus their own Regiment's guns. The teams may accompany special forces units on clandestine raids; as in the Falklands War. The 148 Battery usually assist the 4.5 inch guns mounted upon Royal Navy frigates, although, these guns have a small capability; these semi-automatic guns, generally, have better fire control systems than field artillery, and they are often the only support afforded to lightly armed special forces units.



The teams are sometimes deployed to help orchestrate set-piece battles (attached to regular troops); at times, acting as rebroadcast stations for the ground forces. Under these conditions, they are likely to leave the spotting to FOOs attached to the rifle companies, and the NGFO will instead inform the frigate. The more usual mode of operation, is for the officer and his second in command to act as spotters, each with a signaller, whilst the fifth man acts as the radio operator. The Battery is thought to use the Clansmen series (PRC-320 and PRC-319) and Scimitar and Jaguar series of frequency hopping radios. A hand held thermal imager (HHTI) called the Spyglass that incorporates a range-finder, image intensifier, night observation capabilities and a laser target designator is routinely used. The group is issued with standard British infantry SA80 weapons, but their kit also includes an M16 in case of ambush in hostile territory.

Besides the 148 Battery, 29th Commando Regiment has a headquarters battery and two firing batteries at the Royal Citadel at Plymouth. A third firing battery is located at Arbroath in Scotland (45 Commando and the forth battery form the Territorial Army element of the regiment). Each firing battery has six 105mm Light Guns and up to three Forward Observation Officers (who may be NCOs, but usually they are Captains or Lieutenants). An FOO and his party, is attached to each rifle company in the Commando, or the battalion the group is supporting at the time. A Battery Commander (BC) is attached to the company headquarters. Men of the 148 Battery have in the past been compelled to act as FOOs if there have not been enough trained men to go around. The Group wear a green beret, with a cap-badge of the Royal Artillery.

THE BRITISH ARMY



The British Army is the land armed forces branch of the British Armed Forces. The Army isn't prefixed with 'Royal' like the two other arms of the British Armed Forces, because its disparate units have grown out of region militia, and until recent times, represented that particular region. That said many units within the service have historical ties with the British Crown (and bear the 'Royal' prefix). The British Army has a long and proud history in warfare. Today, it is one of the most technologically advanced land forces in the world, although the numbers of soldiers have significantly dropped over time. The British Army takes a lead in many UN-sponsored peace-keeping duties around the world.

Prior to the English Civil War in 1642, there was no standing army in England or Scotland. The troops were raised when required. After the Civil War, Parliament assumed control of the Army and standing companies based upon Cromwell's New Model Army were formed. These represented the first regiments in existence. After the restoration of Charles II to the English throne, the King raised further regiments and the British Army was officially founded on January 26th of 1661.

After the end of the Cold War the British Army's manpower was slashed by 40%. Despite this reduced capacity, the British Army has taken a lead role in many UN peace-keeping missions in the last twenty years. The United Kingdom sent the second largest contingent to defeat Iraqi forces invading Kuwait. The Army later saw action in the former Republic of Yugoslavia in the Bosnian and Kosovo Wars. In 2001 the British Army supported the US invasion of Afghanistan, and it is currently engaged in Iraq. The Army also managed to send a group to Sierra Leone at the behest of the UN, to undertake peace-keeping duties. Finally, the large British commitment in Northern Ireland has been gradually scaled down after the signing of the Good Friday Agreement (Belfast Agreement) in 1998. After the PIRA announced its end to armed conflict, the British announced that the British Army would dismantle its posts in the province and withdraw many of its troops.

The Army has around 115,000 Regular Army personnel and 40,000 territorial reserves. Its main battle tank is the Challenger 2 (approx 390), its main infantry vehicle is the Warrior (approx 575) and has around 4,000 Armoured Personnel Carriers at its disposal. It has 15,000 land rovers, 400 artillery units and around 300 aircraft to call upon.

CURRENT DEPLOYMENTS

Afghanistan (2001-Present): One Light Infantry Battalion (roulement)

British troops have been based in Afghanistan since the US-led invasion there in 2001. The infantry battalion forms part of NATO's International Security Assistance Force. It is expected that 16 Air Assault Brigade will deploy to the country in 2006.

Belize (1981-Present) British Army Training and Support Unit Belize

British troops have been based in Belize since the country gained independence from the UK in 1981. Until 1994 Belize's neighbour, Guatemala claimed the territory, and British troops were based in Belize to provide a deterrent force

Bosnia (1995-Present) One Light Infantry Battalion (roulement)

British troops are based in Bosnia as peacekeepers under UN Security Council resolutions.

Brunei (1962-Present) One Battalion from the Royal Gurkha Rifles and Army Air Corps flight

Center of the Army's jungle warfare school is based here.

Canada (1972-Present) British Army Training Unit Suffield Training centre in the Alberta prairie.

Facilitates Regular Army exercises every year.

Cyprus (1960-Present) Two resident infantry Battalions, Royal Engineers, 16 Flight Army Air Corps and Joint Service Signals Unit at Ayios Nikolaos

The UK retains two Sovereign Base Areas in Cyprus after the island's independence. The bases serve as forward bases for deployment in the Middle East. British forces are also deployed with UN forces.

Falkland Islands (1982-Present) An infantry company group and a Engineers Squadron

Constant occupation has occurred since 1833, except for a brief period in 1982, when Argentina invaded. Previously, a platoon-sized Royal Marines Naval Party served as garrison. After 1982 the garrison was enlarged, and bolstered with a RAF base.

Germany (1945-Present) 1st (UK) Armoured Division as part of British Forces Germany

British forces remained in Germany after the end of World War II. Forces declined considerably after the end of the Cold War, although the lack of accommodation in the UK means forces will continue to be based in Germany.

Gibraltar (1704-Present) One infantry Battalion

British Army garrison is provided by an indigenous regiment, the Royal Gibraltar Regiment, which has been on the Army regular establishment since the last British regiment left in 1991.

Kenya (1900s-Present) British Army Training and Liaison Staff Kenya

The Army has a training centre in Kenya, under agreement with the Kenyan government. It provides training facilities for three infantry battalions per year

Kosovo (1999-Present) 3,500 troops

After the Kosovo War in 1999, the British Army led the NATO deployment in Kosovo to restore peace to the province. Since then, the UK has withdrawn some forces, as other nations have provided troops.

Northern Ireland (1969-Present) 8,100 troops

First deployed after communal violence broke out between Catholics and Protestants. They were initially welcomed by the Catholic community as a protection against Protestant mobs, but most eventually came to oppose their continued presence, following the events of Bloody Sunday. The Army became involved in a conflict with the IRA, smaller republican splinter groups and loyalist terrorists. 763 soldiers have been killed in Northern Ireland since 1969, mostly in Belfast and Armagh. Counter-terrorist experience in Ulster later proved useful in Iraq.

Sierra Leone (1999-Present) Around 100 troops remain

The British Army was deployed to Sierra Leone (a former British colony) in 1999: to aid the government in quelling violent uprisings by militiamen, under United Nations resolutions. Troops remain in the region to provide military support and training to the Sierra Leone government.

Iraq (2003-Present) 8,500 troops

As part of Operation Telic (Gulf War 2), the British Army participated in the invasion of Iraq. Following the decision for continued security operations, the UK commands the Multi-National Division (South-East) with a headquarters unit, National Support Element, and a combat brigade (at the moment 4 Armoured Brigade), along with troops from Italy, Norway, Romania, Denmark, the Netherlands, Czech Republic, Portugal, and Lithuania. A large number of Territorial Army soldiers have been used for a variety of tasks, both as individuals serving and as formed units.

Rest of Middle East (1990-Present) 3,700 troops

Since the Gulf War 1 in 1991, the UK has had a considerable military presence in the Middle East. Besides Iraq, there are also an additional 3,500 troops in Saudi Arabia and Kuwait, as well as regular training missions in Oman.

BRITISH EQUIPMENT

FIREARMS

P226 Sig-Sauer Pistol
Browning L9A1 Pistol
MP5 Sub-Machine Gun
L85 A1 Carbine
L85 A2 Assault Rifle
L86 Light Support Weapon
L96 Sniper Rifle
L115A1 LRR Sniper Rifle
L7 GPMG "Gimpy"
2-inch Medium Mortar
L16 81mm Mortar
MILAN Anti Tank Weapon
LAW Anti Tank Weapon

ARMOUR

Alvis Challenger 2 Main Battle Tank
Alvis Scorpion Armoured Combat Reconnaissance Vehicle
Alvis Scimitar Armoured Combat Reconnaissance Vehicle
Alvis Sabre Armoured Combat Reconnaissance Vehicle
Alvis Warrior Armoured Personal Carrier
Alvis Saxon Armoured Personal Carrier
Alvis Spartan Armoured Personal Carrier
Alvis Striker Anti-Armour Vehicle
GKN FV 430 Armoured Personal Carrier and derivatives
Alvis Samson Armoured Mineclearer
Alvis Samaritan Armoured Ambulance

LOGISTICS

Land Rover Truck Utility Light (TUL)
Land Rover Truck Utility Medium (TUM)
Land Rover Battlefield Ambulance (BFA)
Alvis Supacat All Terrain Mobile Platform (ATMP)
Hagglund BV206
Harley Davidson MT350E Motorcycle
Honda R250 Motorcycle
Oshkosh Heavy Equipment Transporter (HET)
Bedford 14 tonner
Leyland 4 tonner
Bedford 8 tonner
Pinzgauer 716M

ARTILLERY

Alvis MLRS
BAE Systems 105 mm Light Gun
Alvis AS90
MBDA Rapier missile System
Alvis Starstreak HVM

AIRCRAFT

Westland Lynx Helicopter
Westland Gazelle Helicopter
Westland Apache Longbow Helicopter
Bell 212
Britten-Norman Islander

LANDING CRAFT

Alvis Mk 5 Assault Boat
Vickers Rigid Raider
Vickers Ramped Landing Craft Logistic
Vickers Combat Support Boat
Vickers Landing Craft Vehicle
Vickers Mexeflote



STRUCTURE

The disparate units of the British Army ensure that the structure is unnecessarily complex and confusing. In broad terms the service is divided up between those in the Regular Army (full-time professional soldiers) and those in the Territorial Army (part-time paid soldiers). Its military structure is divided up into corps (administrative groupings derived by commonalities in function), divisions and brigades. A brigade being a larger formation that is somewhat fluid in nature.

The British Army is headed by two main administrative top-level budgets: Land Command and Adjutant-General. These are responsible for providing operational capabilities to the Permanent Joint Headquarters. The command structure is formed into a hierarchy.

A regiment is generally the largest tactical unit within most corps, although it is only an administrative and ceremonial grouping of battalions, within the infantry. It is typical to find around 700 soldiers within a regiment or battalion, commanded by a Lieutenant Colonel. Many British infantry regiments today consist of only one regular battalion, which may have a supplemental Territorial Army battalion attached.

A typical battalion or regiment may have the following:

- Company (or Squadron) of around 100 soldiers, who is commanded by a Major
- Platoon (or Troop) of around 30 soldiers, who is commanded by a Lieutenant
- Section of around 8 soldiers, who is commanded by a Corporal (sections may be further subdivided into two *fire teams* for tactical planning)

BATTLEGROUPS

The main tactical formation within the British Army is the battlegroup. This is a mixture of elements consisting of armour, infantry, artillery, engineers and support units. It's structured according to what task is likely to be undertaken. It will be formed around a core of either an armoured regiment, or infantry battalion. It may have other attached units removed that prove unnecessary to the task at hand (and those support units might be reassigned temporarily elsewhere). A battlegroup will generally consist of around 600 to 700 soldiers, under the command of a Lieutenant Colonel.

NAMING CONVENTIONS

Due to British Armies long history, a series of naming peculiarities exist to that may confuse the casual observer. An infantry battalion is the equivalent to a cavalry regiment (cavalry units have slowly morphed into tanks over time, but the naming precedent still exists). An infantry regiment is an administrative and ceremonial organization; such an infantry can even include several battalions.

CORPS

A Corps is a very large formation of two or more divisions; it can include upwards of fifty thousand personnel. The British Army is highly unlikely these days to deploy an all-British Corps (due to lack of personnel). It does contribute forces to the NATO formation known as the Allied Rapid Reactions Corps. The word corps is also used for some large administrative groupings related to common functionality; like the Infantry Corps.

DIVISIONS

A division is usually a formation of three or four brigades; it will consist of around twenty thousand personnel. The British Army has two main Ready Divisions. These can deploy their headquarters unit and trained formations immediately into operational zones.

- 1st (UK) Armoured Division (stationed in Germany)
- 3rd (UK) Mechanized Division (stationed in Britain)

There are three other divisional headquarters (referred to as Regenerative Divisions), plus a London District one. These act as regional commands in the UK and would only become ready field formations in the event of general war. These divisions are:

- 2nd Division – North & Scotland
- 4th Division – Midlands, South & East
- 5th Division – Wales, West and South East

There are an additional two regional headquarters that exist at the Divisional level (Headquarters Northern Ireland and London District).

BRIGADES

A brigade is usually comprised of three or four battalion-sized units, consisting of around 5,000 personnel. When deployed operationally, the primary tactical formation is the battlegroup. There are a number of Ready Brigades including:

1st (UK) Armoured Division:

- 4 (Armoured) Brigade
- 7 (Armoured) Brigade
- 20 (Armoured) Brigade



3rd (UK) Mechanised Division:

- 1 (Mechanised) Brigade
- 12 (Mechanised) Brigade
- 19 (Light) Brigade

16 (Air Assault) Brigade is an independently deployable formation under the administrative control of 4th Division.

3 Commando Brigade is an additional deployable formation, outside the operational control of the Army but containing a number of army units.

There are also a number of Regenerative Brigades in existence.

REGENERATIVE BRIGADES

Each of these brigades has administrative control over the non-deployed units in a particular region.

2nd Division:

- 15 (North East) Brigade
- 42 (North West) Brigade
- 51 (Scottish) Brigade
- 52 (Light) Brigade (Stationed in South-eastern Scotland)

4th Division:

- 2 (Light) Brigade (Stationed on the South Coast)
- 49 (Eastern) Brigade
- 145 (Home Counties) Brigade

5th Division:

- 43 (Wessex) Brigade
- 143 (West Midlands) Brigade
- 160 (Welsh) Brigade

Headquarters Northern Ireland

- 107 (Ulster) Brigade (has no Internal Security role)

London District

- 56 (London) Brigade

OTHER BRIGADES

Headquarters Northern Ireland

- 8 Brigade
- 39 Brigade

These Brigades currently have a static Internal Security role, they could not act as Ready or Regenerative brigades without hand-over and re-organization.

ADMINISTRATIVE FORMATIONS

- United Kingdom Special Forces Brigade Group
- 1 Artillery Brigade
- 7 Air Defence Brigade
- 12 (Air Support) Engineer Brigade
- 29 (Corps Support) Engineer Brigade
- 101 Logistics Brigade
- 102 Logistics Brigade (stationed in Germany, under command of 1st Armoured Division)
- 104 Logistic Support Brigade

RESERVE FORMATIONS

- 32 (Infantry) Brigade

ORDER OF PRECEDENCE

To facilitate the smooth parading of British Army forces, they are listed according to an order of precedence. This determines the order of the various corps parade, from right to left, with the unit at the extreme right being the highest. The Household Cavalry takes the highest precedence, apart from the Royal Horse Artillery when it parades with its guns.

ARMS AND SERVICES

COMBAT ARMS

The Combat Arms comprises of the infantry and armoured units that take prime responsibility for closing with and killing the enemy.

ROYAL ARMOURED CORPS

The Household Cavalry Regiment, the line cavalry and the Royal Tank Regiment are grouped together as the Royal Armoured Corps. These units operate either as armoured regiments with main battle tanks, or as formation reconnaissance units. (The Household Cavalry Mounted Regiment has a purely ceremonial role.)

ARMOURED REGIMENTS	FORMATION RECONNAISSANCE REGIMENTS
The Royal Scots Dragoon Guards (Carabiniers and Greys)	The Household Cavalry Regiment
The Royal Dragoon Guards	1st The Queen's Dragoon Guards
The Queen's Royal Hussars (Queen's Own and Royal Irish)	9th/12th Royal Lancers (Prince of Wales's)
The King's Royal Hussars	The Light Dragoons
2nd Royal Tank Regiment	The Queen's Royal Lancers

1st Royal Tank Regiment operates in a dual role; two squadrons serve in the NBC role as part of the Joint NBC Regiment, while the other is a main battle tank training squadron as part of the Combined Arms Training Battlegroup at the Land Warfare Centre at Warminster.

INFANTRY

As of 2005, the Infantry has been divided up into six divisions for administrative purpose. These units are not the same as the divisions that are sent into combat (these being a mixture of infantry, armoured and support units). Today, infantry battalions operate in one of five main roles:

- Armoured Infantry
- Mechanised Infantry
- Air Assault Infantry
- Light Infantry
- Public Duties

Under the *arms plot* system, a battalion usually spends between two and six years in one role, before re-training takes place for another.

GUARDS DIVISION	SCOTTISH DIVISION	KING'S DIVISION	PRINCE OF WALES' DIVISION	QUEEN'S DIVISION	LIGHT DIVISION
1st Bn, Grenadier Guards	1st Bn, The Royal Scots (The Royal Regiment)	1st Bn, The King's Own Royal Border Regiment	1st Bn, The 22nd (Cheshire) Regiment	1st & 2nd Bn, The Princess of Wales's Royal Regiment (Queen's and Royal Hampshires)	1st Bn, The Devonshire and Dorset Light Infantry
1st Bn, Coldstream Guards	1st Bn, The Royal Highland Fusiliers (Princess Margaret's Own Glasgow and Ayrshire Regiment)	1st Bn, The King's Regiment	1st Bn, The Royal Welch Fusiliers	1st & 2nd Bn, The Royal Regiment of Fusiliers	1st & 2nd Bn, The Light Infantry
1st Bn, Scots Guards	1st Bn, The King's Own Scottish Borderers	1st Bn, The Prince of Wales's Own Regiment of Yorkshire	1st Bn, The Royal Regiment of Wales (24th/41st Foot)	1st & 2nd Bn, The Royal Anglian Regiment	1st Bn, The Royal Gloucestershire, Berkshire and Wiltshire Light Infantry
1st Bn, Irish Guards	1st Bn, The Black Watch (The Royal Highland Regiment)	1st Bn, The Green Howards (Alexandra, Princess of Wales's Own Yorkshire Regiment)	1st Bn, The Worcestershire and Sherwood Foresters Regiment (29th/45th Foot)		1st & 2nd Bn, The Royal Green Jackets
1st Bn, Welsh Guards	1st Bn, The Highlanders (Seaforth, Gordons and Camerons)	1st Bn, The Queen's Lancashire Regiment	1st Bn, The Staffordshire Regiment (The Prince of Wales's)		
	1st Bn, The Argyll and Sutherland Highlanders (Princess Louise's)	1st Bn, The Duke of Wellington's Regiment (West Riding)			

There are three further units in the army that are classed as infantry, but are not grouped in the various infantry divisions:

- 1st Bn, The Royal Irish Regiment (27th Inniskillings, 83rd, 87th & The Ulster Defence Regiment)
- 1st, 2nd & 3rd Bn, The Parachute Regiment
- 1st & 2nd Bn, The Royal Gurkha Rifles

The Royal Gibraltar Regiment can also be considered part of the infantry, although its primary responsibility is the home defence of Gibraltar.

The Royal Irish Regiment shares the status of the largest infantry regiment in the British Army with the Parachute Regiment. The Royal Irish has a total of four battalions. The 1st Battalion, as has been stated, is a general service battalion that is part of the main body of infantry. However, the 2nd, 3rd and 4th Battalions are home service battalions, purely for service in Northern Ireland.

- 2nd Bn, Royal Irish Regiment (Belfast and Antrim)
- 3rd Bn, Royal Irish Regiment (Down, Armagh and Tyrone)
- 4th Bn, Royal Irish Regiment (Fermanagh and Londonderry)

The Royal Gurkha Rifles is the largest part of the Brigade of Gurkhas, which also has its own support arms. These units are affiliated to the equivalent British units, but have their own unique cap badges.

- Support units of the Brigade of Gurkhas
 - Queen's Gurkha Engineers: The Queen's Gurkha Engineers consists of:
 - 69 Field Squadron, 36 Engineer Regiment, Royal Engineers
 - 70 Field Support Squadron, 36 Engineer Regiment, Royal Engineers
 - Queen's Gurkha Signals: The Queen's Gurkha Signals consists of:
 - 246 Gurkha Signal Squadron, 2 Signal Regiment, Royal Signals
 - 250 Gurkha Signal Squadron, 30 Signal Regiment, Royal Signals
 - Queen's Own Gurkha Logistic Regiment: The Queen's Own Gurkha Logistic Regiment consists of:
 - 28 Transport Squadron, 10 Transport Regiment, Royal Logistic Corps
 - 94 Stores Squadron, 9 Supply Regiment, Royal Logistic Corps.



SPECIAL FORCES

- 22nd Special Air Service Regiment - The regular army's special-forces unit known as the 22 SAS, which is a single battalion sized unit, it is also classified as infantry.
- Special Reconnaissance Regiment - The Special Reconnaissance Regiment is not strictly infantry; it is part of the UK's special-forces, and serves alongside the SAS and SBS, but is in fact a tri-service unit.

COMBAT SUPPORT ARMS

The Combat Support Arms include the artillery, engineer, signals and aviation units. Their role is to directly support the Combat Arms in combat.

ROYAL REGIMENT OF ARTILLERY

The Royal Artillery, despite its name, is a corps sub-divided into 16 regiments. Of these, four retain the name, cap badge and traditions of the Royal Horse Artillery. The sixteen regiments are divided into eight specialities:

Home Defence	Air Defence	General Support (MLRS)	Close Support (AS90)	Close Support (L118 Light Gun)	Surveillance and Target Acquisition	Training
King's Troop, RHA	12 Regiment, RA	39 Regiment, RA	1 Regiment, RHA	7 (Para) Regiment, RHA	5 Regiment, RA	14 Regiment, RA
	16 Regiment, RA		3 Regiment, RHA	29 (Cdo) Regiment, RA	32 Regiment, RA	
	47 Regiment, RA		4 Regiment, RA	40 Regiment, RA		
			19 Regiment, RA			
			26 Regiment, RA			

CORPS OF ROYAL ENGINEERS

Engineering support for the army is provided by the Royal Engineers, of which there are a total of 15 regiments in the regular army. Of these, 25 Engineer Regiment is a field regiment dedicated to service in Northern Ireland, 33 Engineer Regiment is an Explosive Ordnance Disposal unit, 39 Engineer Regiment provides engineering support to the RAF, and 42 Engineer Regiment is a dedicated Geographic unit. The Royal School of Military Engineering (RSME), also has two regiments, which are the parent units for recruits to the RSME:

- 1 RSME Regiment - Construction Engineer School
- 3 RSME Regiment - Combat Engineer School

The remaining units are field regiments, attached to various deployable formations:

- 21 Engineer Regiment - 4th Armoured Brigade
- 22 Engineer Regiment - 1st Mechanised Brigade
- 23 Engineer Regiment - 16th Air Assault Brigade
- 26 Engineer Regiment - 12th Mechanised Brigade
- 28 Engineer Regiment - 1 (UK) Division
- 32 Engineer Regiment - 7th Armoured Brigade
- 35 Engineer Regiment - 20th Armoured Brigade
- 36 Engineer Regiment - 3 (UK) Division
- 38 Engineer Regiment - 19th Light Brigade

In addition, there are three independent squadrons in the Royal Engineers:

- 9 Parachute Squadron - 9 Para provides engineering support to the parachute operations of 16 Air Assault Brigade, and is attached to 23 Engineer Regiment.
- 59 Independent Commando Squadron - 59 Squadron is the engineers unit assigned to 3 Commando Brigade.
- 62 Cyprus Squadron - 62 Squadron provides the engineering support for British Forces in Cyprus.
- Within the structure of the Royal Engineers are two squadrons that are cap-badged as the Queen's Gurkha Engineers, manned predominantly by Gurkhas.

As well as the operational regiments and squadrons, there also exists within the structure of the Royal Engineers an organization called the Military Works Force. This has responsibility for both permanent and temporary infrastructure development in several areas, including water, fuel, communications and utilities. Within the MWF are four works groups, which are the equivalent of regiments:

- HQ Works Group, RE
- 62 Works Group, RE - Water Infrastructure
- 63 Works Group, RE - Utilities Infrastructure
- 64 Works Group, RE - Fuel Infrastructure

ROYAL CORPS OF SIGNALS

In the British Army, communications below brigade level are maintained by individual units. For formations of Brigade level and above, communications and ICT are provided by the Royal Signals, which has a total of ten regiments, and 13 separate squadrons:

- **Regiments**

- 1 (UK) Division HQ and Signal Regiment
- 2 Signal Regiment (Joint Rapid Reaction Force)
- 3 (UK) Division HQ and Signal Regiment
- 7 (Allied Rapid Reaction Corps) Signal Regiment
- 10 Signal Regiment
- 11 Signal Regiment (Training)
- 14 Signal Regiment (Electronic Warfare)
- 15 Signal Regiment (HQ Northern Ireland)
- 16 Signal Regiment
- 18 Signal Regiment (UK Special Forces)
- 21 Signal Regiment (RAF Support)
- 30 Signal Regiment

- **Squadrons**

- 200 Signal Squadron - 20 Armoured Brigade
- 204 Signal Squadron - 4 Armoured Brigade
- 207 Signal Squadron - 7 Armoured Brigade
- 209 Signal Squadron - 19 Light Brigade
- 213 Signal Squadron - 39 Infantry Brigade (NI)
- 215 Signal Squadron - 1 Mechanised Brigade
- 216 Signal Squadron - 16 Air Assault Brigade
- 218 Signal Squadron - 8 Infantry Brigade (NI)
- 228 Signal Squadron - 12 Mechanised Brigade
- 261 Signal Squadron - 101 Logistic Brigade
- 262 Signal Squadron - 102 Logistic Brigade
- 280 (UK) Signal Squadron - Allied Forces North (AFNORTH)
- Cyprus Communications Unit

- Within the structure of the Royal Signals are two squadrons that are cap-badged as the Queen's Gurkha Signals, manned predominantly by Gurkhas.

ARMY AIR CORPS

The Army Air Corps provides the battlefield support element of the army's aviation needs (the heavy transport element comes from the helicopters of the RAF, while the amphibious element is provided by the FAA). The AAC has six regiments, and a number of independent squadrons and flights:

- 1 Regiment, AAC - Divisional Aviation Regiment to 1 (UK) Division.
- 2 Regiment, AAC - Training Regiment
- 3 Regiment, AAC - Attack Regiment
- 4 Regiment, AAC - Attack Regiment
- 5 Regiment, AAC - Aviation support to the army in Northern Ireland
- 9 Regiment, AAC - Attack Regiment
- 657 Squadron, AAC
- 7 Flight - Aviation support to British Forces in Brunei
- 8 Flight - Aviation support for the SAS
- 12 Flight - Part of 1 Regiment, AAC
- 25 Flight - Aviation support to British Forces in Belize

INTELLIGENCE CORPS

The Intelligence Corps is the army's main tool for the gathering and collating of intelligence, and for the organization of the army's counter-intelligence apparatus.

- 1 Military Intelligence Battalion
- 2 Military Intelligence Battalion
- 4 Military Intelligence Battalion
- 15 (UK) Psychological Operations Group

JOINT NBC REGIMENT

The Joint NBC Regiment is a specialized corps of the army tasked with defence against nuclear, biological and chemical weapons. The regiment is a joint Army/RAF unit, made up of the following regular units:

- 1st Royal Tank Regiment
- No 27 Squadron, Royal Air Force Regiment

COMBAT SERVICE SUPPORT ARMS

The Combat Service Support Arms have the role of providing the services necessary for sustaining the Army.

ROYAL LOGISTIC CORPS

The Royal Logistic Corps is the largest single corps in the British Army, and is responsible for the supply and movement of material to all units. Within the corps there are 21 separate regiments:

1 General Support Regiment	12 Supply Regiment
2 Close Support Regiment	13 Air Assault Support Regiment
3 Close Support Regiment	14 Supply Regiment
4 General Support Regiment	17 Port and Maritime Regiment
6 Support Regiment	21 Logistic Support Regiment
7 Transport Regiment	23 Pioneer Regiment
8 Artillery Support Regiment	24 Regiment
9 Supply Regiment	27 Transport Regiment
10 Transport Regiment	29 Regiment
11 Explosive Ordnance Disposal Regiment	89 Postal and Courier Regiment
5 Training Regiment	

Within the structure of the Royal Logistic Corps are two squadrons that are cap-badged as the Queen's Own Gurkha Logistic Regiment, manned predominantly by Gurkhas.

CORPS OF ROYAL ELECTRICAL AND MECHANICAL ENGINEERS

The Royal Electrical and Mechanical Engineers have responsibility for the maintenance of all of the British Army's equipment. The corps provides detachments to each formation of brigade level and higher from its total of seven battalions:

- 1st Battalion, REME - 4 Armoured Brigade
- 2nd Battalion, REME - 7 Armoured Brigade
- 3rd Battalion, REME - 20 Armoured Brigade
- 4th Battalion, REME - 12 Mechanised Brigade
- 5th Battalion, REME - 19 Light Brigade
- 6th Battalion, REME - 1 Mechanised Brigade
- 7th Battalion, REME - 16 Air Assault Brigade

OTHER SERVICES

- Army Medical Services
 - Royal Army Medical Corps - The Royal Army Medical Corps has a total of four regiments in the regular army:
 - 1 Close Support Medical Regiment
 - 4 General Support Medical Regiment
 - 5 General Support Medical Regiment
 - 16 Close Support Medical Regiment
 - Royal Army Dental Corps
 - Queen Alexandra's Royal Army Nursing Corps
 - Royal Army Veterinary Corps
- Adjutant General's Corps - The Adjutant General's Corps, unlike the Army Medical Services, is a single corps; however, three of the units that were amalgamated to form it were permitted to retain their own cap badges:
 - Corps of Royal Military Police - While the majority of the Adjutant General's Corps forms part of other operational units, the Royal Military Police is formed into three regiments:
 - 1 Regiment, Royal Military Police
 - 2 Regiment, Royal Military Police
 - 3 Regiment, Royal Military Police
 - Military Provost Staff Corps
 - Army Legal Corps
- Royal Army Chaplains' Department
- Army Physical Training Corps
- Small Arms School Corps
- Corps of Army Music

SPECIAL AIR SERVICE (SAS)



Type of Service: Special Operations/Counter-Terrorism

Field of Operations: Worldwide

Arrest Powers: N/A

Executive Powers: Assassinations (authorization through Foreign Office)

Annual Funds: N/A

Number of Staff: 350 (badged soldiers)

Headquarters: Credenhill (moved from Stirling Lines 1999), Hereford

Founded: 1941 (reformed 1952)

Director of Special Forces: (Not Available)

Reports To: Foreign & Commonwealth Secretary Jack Straw (Nov 05) + Joint Intelligence Committee

Technology Availability: Above Average

Operational Remit: Is to undertake covert special operations missions in the interest of the British government around the world. It is also detailed to provide counter-terrorism capabilities both home and abroad.

A Brief History:

- ❑ 1942 The British Air Service unit is created for special operations during wartime
- ❑ 1946 The service was temporarily abandoned after the war
- ❑ 1952 The 22nd Regiment was formed as a temporary measure to deal with the Malaya emergency, it proved useful against Communist terrorists and went to become a regular unit
- ❑ 1952-60 The fight continues against the communist threat posed by disaffected Chinese elements within Malaya, mainly in jungle environs
- ❑ 1958-59 A and D squadrons are committed to war against rebels in Northern Oman who are based on the Jebel Akhar plateau, the 24th of January 1959 the SAS storms the plateau and brings the rebellion to end
- ❑ 1963-66 The SAS are involved in efforts to defeat rebels guerrillas and Indonesian forces in the jungles of Borneo, who are opposed to the formation of the Federation of Malaya
- ❑ 1964-67 A,B and D squadrons are involved in the Aden campaign against tribesman in the Radfan area and guerrillas in the port of Aden
- ❑ 1969-94 Various operations are undertaken in Northern Ireland to check sectarian terrorism
- ❑ 1970-76 SAS are intensively committed to help reestablished government control in Oman after communist guerrillas act, a hearts and minds exercise is established and the government returned
- ❑ 1980 Operations Nimrod becomes a by-word for successful CT operations with the storming of the Iranian Embassy in London to free 90 hostages held by anti-government rebels - world media give the unit unwanted fame and fanfare
- ❑ 1981 SAS help to restore deposed Gambian leader, President Jawara to power
- ❑ 1982 SAS conducts intelligence gathering and raiding operations as part of Falklands War

- ❑ 1989 – Present Day SAS commits time to help provide training to government forces in Columbia to help fight narco-terrorism
- ❑ 1990-91 SAS are heavily committed to UN-led efforts to oust Iraqi forces from Kuwait
- ❑ 1994-2000 Undertook anti-terrorist operations for NATO in Bosnia and Kosovo
- ❑ 2001 In September the SAS are at the forefront of operations against suspected Al-Qa'ida rebels in the Tora Bora mountains in Afghanistan
- ❑ 2004-06 The SAS are heavily committed to long range reconnaissance missions and special operations assaults in Afghanistan and Iraq against *insurgents*

BASICS

The British SAS was the first modern special-operations unit in existence. A substantial amount of the training given to subsequent units around the world has been modeled upon the operations and training of the British regiment. Many have indeed been trained by the SAS. The SAS is mainly known as a long-range reconnaissance unit, primarily working in small teams behind enemy lines. They are also one of the world's premier anti-terrorist squads and hostage rescue units. Each squadron takes it in turn to act as the 'crisis alert team' for counter-terrorist operations and hostage rescue missions (otherwise known as Counter Revolutionary Warfare (CRW) Squadron or the Special Projects Team); they are detailed to the CT HQ at the Duke of York Barracks in West London. The troop will remain here for six to nine months cycling between the 4 operations teams within the squad to be on active standby in case of incident. All teams carry burst radios in case of a large-scale incident. One troop is required to be on 30 minute standby, whilst another troop is on 2 hours standby. The other squadrons can be deployed anywhere in the world within 12 hours.

Counter Terrorism operations could take place on the British mainland, or anywhere in the world where British interests are under threat.

The Regiment is composed of five operational units: being A Squadron, B Squadron, D Squadron, G Squadron (G for Guards), R Squadron (R for Reserve). The original C Squadron was made up of Rhodesian recruits and was disbanded in the nineteen-sixties. Each squadron has four operational squads of 16 men each; they are further divided up into 4 man specialist units (Boat, Air, Mountain and Mobility Troops). During their deployment to the CRW Wing the following troops are created: Red Troop (Air and Mountain Troops) and Blue Troop (Boat and Mobility Troops). Each of these two troops are made up of an assault troop and a sniper team.



The service has its own communications support team known as the 264th (SAS) Signals Squadron. The unit has its own Training Wing, which are based at the operational Headquarters at Credenhill in Hereford. All men are taught Close-Quarter Battle skills; combat shooting; combat swimming; explosives; sabotage; sniping; heliborne-insertion; desert, mountain, arctic and jungle warfare; survival skills; languages; camouflage; parachuting techniques HALO and HHAHO; hostage rescue; defensive driving and trained in VIP bodyguard techniques.

The service has two additional Territorial Army units to call upon in times of need. The 21st (Artist Rifles) Regiment SAS is the oldest unit within the current operational structure (having been established during the initial phase of operations in 1946 as a reserve unit). The 21st gathers its recruits from the South of England, acting as mirror unit for the 22nd SAS, and emphasis intelligence gathering. The other Territorial unit is the 23rd SAS, which recruits from the North of England and Scotland; it carries out training in combat rescue, escape and evasion, prisoner of war rescue, interrogation and intelligence gathering. These units demand the same kind of physical fitness, stamina and technical ability as the regular SAS.

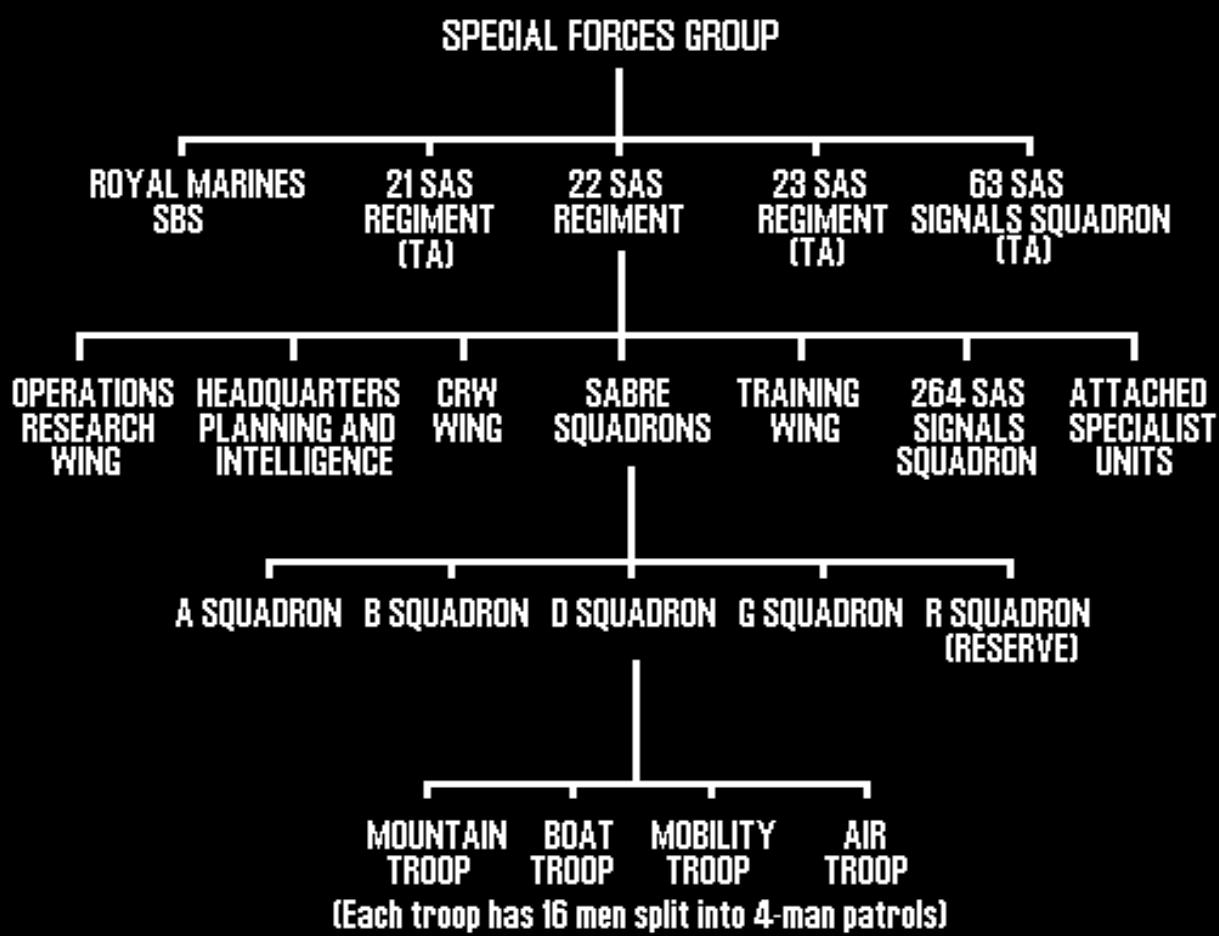
STRUCTURE & ORGANIZATION

21st SAS Regiment (Artists)
HQ (Regent's Park, London
A Squadron Regent's Park
C Basingstoke/Cambridge/S'hampton
E Squadron Newport

22nd Regiment
HQ Credenhill*
A Squadron*
B Squadron*
D Squadron*
G Squadron*

23rd SAS Regiment
HQ Wolverhampton
A Squadron Invergowrie/Glasgow
B Squadron Leeds
C Squadron Newcastle/Manchester

Additionally, L Detachment (formerly R Squadron) is part of the Territorial Army, but is assigned to 22nd SAS for the provision of casualty replacements. All of its members are ex-regular SAS, or have been regular army in other units. R Troop has a similar task to signals units.



The 22nd SAS and TA units the 21st and 23rd SAS are part of the UK Special Forces Group, commanded by the Director of Advanced Forces based in London. This was formerly titled the Director of Special Forces

PRE SELECTION

The individual must already belong to the regular corps and display a good grounding in associated skills (these volunteers come from all Arms and Corps in the British Army and small numbers from the RAF – usually RAF Regiment). They must also have a minimum of three years and three months left to serve from the date they pass selection. Recruits tend to be in their mid-twenties, being more mature mentally and physically than the raw recruits of the regular army. Because of the formidable reputation of the SAS, it is rare for individuals to be ill-prepared for the rigors of the challenge.

The Special Boat Service (SBS) has a stricter policy requiring individuals to partake in a pre-selection course called the *Junior Command Course*. The course combines physical, trade and aptitude tests. The testing is conducted at the SBS headquarters at Poole in Dorset. The course starts with a timed 32km endurance walk carrying a 23kg Bergen (backpack). After completion of the march the soldiers face a night in the open, alone and without any survival gear. The next morning they are confronted with a 48km endurance walk (including river crossings, swimming with their bergens). The soldiers finish by swimming out to a landing craft $\frac{1}{2}$ kilometer offshore. If the soldier succeeds in meeting this challenge, the rest of the pre-selection course is taken up with testing their suitability for diving activities.

SELECTION

An official memorandum by a former UK Director of Special Forces outlines the qualities looked for in potential recruits. The individuals must be motivated and have determination, show initiative, be self-disciplined, have compatibility to work in small groups, the ability to focus during long-term missions and cope with isolated conditions. The potential recruit must also have an aptitude to assimilate a wide range of skills and the ability to think laterally. It goes without saying they must also be incredibly fit (even beyond the parameters of the regular army).

The SAS Selection Training course lasts one month and is run twice a year (during the Summer and Winter). It is run at the Regiment's headquarters at Credenhill, Hereford. The selection process is divided into the three-week build up period and Test Week. The course is administered by the Training Wing and consists of road runs (increasing in distance), plus a set of testing marches out across the Black Mountains and Brecon Beacons of South Wales (especially testing during the winter months). Each soldier is given a bergen, compass and map (18kgs of weight) and a personal weapon. They are given the grid reference of the first rendezvous and left to their own devices. The process is repeated on to the next rendezvous. Unlike other selection processes, the instructors offer no form of encouragement (or criticism) – the SAS looks to encourage those with self-confidence to make their own decisions independent of command. During this time their performance is constantly appraised and some are instantly failed. At the rendezvous points they may be asked to field-strip a foreign armament, or asked questions about specific landmarks on route. The reactions and answers are carefully monitored for signs of fatigue, levels of stress and of course, accuracy.

Each day begins at around 0400 hours and ends at 2230, or even later, there is by design little time for solitude and very little time to recuperate both mind and body. As the three weeks continue a major factor becomes fatigue. Many drop out because of the culture of neutrality displayed by instructors, whilst many cannot meet the physical or mental challenges presented. It has been known for up to 90% of individuals in each intake to drop out.

The culmination of SAS Test Week is a 64km Endurance March across the Brecon Beacons, alternatively nicknamed either the ‘Long Drag’ or the ‘Fan Dance’. Each man carries a 25kg bergen and a personal weapon. They have 20 hours to complete the course regardless of weather conditions. Quite a number of the soldiers are broken by this final test (an example being the beginning of 1992, where out of 149 who started the final test, 61 failed the pass times, 59 voluntarily withdrew, 6 were injured and another 8 were ‘binned’ by instructors; only 15 were judged capable to move onto the next phase of training). The reality is that the real training has not yet actually begun, the 4 week testing process just finds those who are mentally and physically tough enough to handle the basic parameters of the role.

In an average year some 300 soldiers volunteer for Selection Training, only around 25 to 30 men usually make it through.

TRAINING

Those who pass the Selection Training Process are invited to the next stage, the SAS Continuation Training. Continuation Training last 14 weeks, during this time the individuals are taught basic SAS skills that enable them to effectively become members of four-man SAS patrols (these patrols are designed for maximum mobility and firepower). They are taught SAS standard operating procedures (SOPs) and receive instruction in standard SAS Regiment patrol skills: signaling, field medicine, demolitions and languages.

The instruction in patrol skills is crucial to the success of SAS-style units. The use of communications ensures that the patrol is in touch with other friendly units and its Command (and helps to coordinate their own units activities). The language skills are imperative in cultivating links with indigenous groups (aka ‘hearts-and-minds’ exercises). The use of demolitions is crucial in sabotage operations, and medicine is useful to the patrol, but also for treating indigenous peoples (i.e. their potential allies).

Each patrol member is assigned their own specific role: the lead scout will cover the area from 10 o’clock and 2 o’clock. The man behind covers between 6 o’clock and 10 o’clock (usually the patrol commander), another man covers between 2 o’clock and 6 o’clock (they may alternate positions). Finally, the ‘Tail-end Charlie’ is responsible for covering the rear. Continuation Training occurs at a relentless pace, with each man not just expected to know the basics but to show a degree of proficiency. An example is each man is expected to be able to transmit and receive Morse code at a minimum of 8 words and minute.

The recruits are also instructed in basic fieldcraft techniques: target reconnaissance, weapons training, ground control of artillery and aircraft fire. Each course ends with a test that all must pass (otherwise they are RTU'd back to their original unit). Continuation ends with the Combat and Survival phase, which takes place on Exmoor. The recruits learn every aspect of living in hostile environments: like building shelters, finding food and water, laying traps and lighting fires. Combat and Survival ends with an Escape and Evasion exercise. The recruits have to evade the 'enemy' overnight (generally a local infantry battalion). At the end of the exercise, each remaining individual is forced to surrender and is subjected to a Resistance-to-Interrogation exercise (like those already caught). They are subjected to different kinds of mental and physical torment (only being allowed to reveal the 'Big Four' details – number, rank, name and date of birth).

After the successful completion of Continuation Training the candidates are sent on a Jungle Training Course (4 to 6 weeks in the Far East – usually Brunei). They learn all aspects of jungle survival and successful patrol operations. The course culminates with a final exercise where the trainees are split into four-man patrols; they are given a task that will test all of the skills they have acquired over the preceding weeks. Even at this late stage of training individuals can be failed and returned to their home regiment.

Officer's Week falls directly after Jungle Training and is the ultimate test of their abilities and maturity. This critical test consists of exercises, simulations and written projects. They are designed to test the ability of the student to coordinate patrol resources and undertake operational planning. The students average only 15 hours of sleep over five days; this tests whether they can retain their clarity of forethought under extreme stress and fatigue. The soldiers' assessments are made by both SAS and SBS personnel. The assessors may include members of lower ranks who are at liberty to deride a potential officer's plans; this is particularly galling to senior members of the authoritarian military structure.

The week starts with an initial exercise that introduces the candidate to his fellow students and commanders. They talk about their background and ambitions. Then there follows a series of problematical exercises, where each student is required to come up with their own solution and answer appropriate questions. Each day, the individual is also given a written project to complete alone.

Unlike the other stages of training, the individual is subjected to ridicule for poor planning. Some may fail not because of their abilities as an officer, but because they cannot take appropriate counsel with humility and good humor. The final decision to pass the recruit is made by the commanding officers of the SAS and SBS, and the Director of Special Forces.

The last stage for both officers and troopers is a static-line parachuting course delivered at the Parachute Training School at RAF Brize Norton, Oxfordshire. The course lasts four weeks and during this time each individual makes a total of eight jumps (including one at night and one operational descent). Those, whose regiments already have a compulsory parachute component, need not attend this training. At the end of the training the fabled 'Sabre' wings are awarded to successful candidates (making them 'badged' SAS).

ADVANCED TRAINING

"Train Hard, Fight Easy" – 22 SAS Training Wing motto

The newly *badged* Special Air Service soldier serves a probationary period of 12 months. During these months the soldier is required to learn all aspects of one particular patrol skill (medicine, demolitions, communications or languages), plus the particular skills needed for the troop they have been assigned too. There are four troops in an SAS Sabre Squadron: Mountain Troop, Boat Troop, Mobility Troop and Air Troop. A soldier will generally pick up one or more additional patrol skills as they serve time in the unit (generally out of interest, or being reassigned to build up the flexibility within the unit). SAS squadrons are also rotated through Counter Revolutionary Warfare (CRW) training at Hereford. This training taught by the regiments own CRW wing teaches the soldiers all aspects of counter-terrorism including hostage rescue skills. At any one time, one squadron is also on 24-hour standby to deal with any counter-terrorist and/or hostage rescue operations.

COMPARATIVE TRAINING

British Parachute Regiment – The regiment's training ethos differs from the SAS in promoting team spirit (despite the parachute regiment also wearing the famed *winged-dagger* badge). Each individual not only wants to succeed for their own sake, but also to not let down their team-mates. Those taking part are motivated to see the team succeed as a whole, because they could potentially be paired with unknown qualities if team members are failed. The first 4 weeks of basic training are spent undertaking fitness training. The types of fitness training undertaken by the recruits, generally revolves around competitive sports, runs (without boots), development of weapons skills, drills and kit inspections. Up to the end of week 4 individuals are entitled to 'discharge by right', whereby they can quit the course by their own volition (up to 30% leave this way). Those who complete this stage are evaluated, some pass, others are *back-squadded* to begin the course all over again.

Basic training continues in week 5 to 12 with a series of punishing tests that lift the ante in terms of physical endurance, aggression and the ability to work as a team. A member of 3 Para states, "Our troops are more aggressive than any other troop anyway, and it all boils down to the training and the type of guy needed to pass that training". Week 12 signals the start of P Company, a three period that countdowns towards Test Week (or Pre-Parachute Selection). This is a continuation of the punishing physical training regime, but also the 'Trainasium' course: walkways suspended 7 meters in the air and shuffle bars 15 meters off the ground. This is used primarily to see whether the trainees have what it takes to jump from an aircraft (3 to 10% fail outright this discipline). The Stretcher Race last for 80 minutes and is run over a 12km course, in which teams bearing a 75kg steel stretcher (on which each member is required to be carried in turn). The famed red beret is awarded after the completion of Pre-Selection, however training is not over.

The successful recruits are sent on a 20-day parachute course at RAF Brize Norton

The newly *badged* Parachute Regiment soldier will partake in the M&AWC course, the 16-month course takes in all aspects of mountain and arctic warfare. The soldiers undergo an entire winter in Norway completing Arctic Warfare tasks and are then sent to the Ben Nevis area of Scotland to complete the Pathfinder Course. They are then detailed to complete the static-line parachuting course at RAF Brize Norton. The final months of the course are spent in the Lake District in Cumbria, learning and teaching Alpine techniques; they are finally tested on these skills in Switzerland (Exercise 'Iceflip'). During this long course the soldiers are continually assessed (in both classroom and field).

Generally, the best students end up in the selection course for the elite Pathfinder Platoon, comprised of only 30 men from the entire regiment. These soldiers are generally tasked in wartime operations with performing 'lighting up the dropping zones' and deep-penetration raids and patrols.

The three-week selection course is fiercely contested by all. It comprises of the usual endurance walks and assault courses, but with greater tactical emphasis. The course culminates with the volunteers 'tabbing' 50km across the Welsh mountains or the wilds of Dartmoor's North Moor – laboring under the weight of at least 25kgs of equipment. The selection process is tough, even by special operations standards, with a pass rate generally below 10%.

The Royal Marines second phase includes more marine-oriented tasks like the testing of seamanship, amphibious operations, rapid deployment from marine craft and mock cliff assaults. Endurance continues to be tested with 10 to 14.5km speed marches, longer marches over Dartmoor – the final march being 48km across Dartmoor in full kit – with recruits needing to complete the course in less than 8 hours. If the student completes the course in the allotted time, they receive the coveted green beret.

Since 1994 any Royal Marines wishing to join the SBS have had to pass SAS Selection Training. Specialist Training within the SBS is divided up between aptitude tests and trade training (generally focussed upon developing covert waterborne operational skills). Training includes beach survey and photography skills, endurance canoeing and swimming exercises, small boat training, parachute descents into the sea, coastal and underwater navigation, and astro-navigation.

WEAPONS SKILLS

SAS weapon choice is generally dependant upon the specific type of operation the Regiment is called upon to perform. Compared to US Green Beret units (which has 12 man A-teams), the four soldier patrols of the SAS carry relatively little in the way of heavy machine guns - the major weapon of choice being the trusty M16 Assault Rifle. The M16 is suited to long-range reconnaissance roles, the rifle being light and reliable is easily carried, but it also packs sufficient firepower to repel minor attacks on route. The latest version of the M16 is the M16A2; it can fire single shots, and also has the capacity to fire 3 shot bursts – which is a huge asset for teams carrying limited amounts of ammunition (the automatic function is generally disabled). The M16 usually has a M203 grenade launcher attached for added firepower.



Another particular aspect of training is becoming familiar with the weapons of choice of foreign powers; the idea is that the soldier can successfully improvise when their own ammunition supplies are becoming low. Submachine guns are sometimes employed in short-range hostage-rescue work (usually a Browning .50), although the Heckler and Koch MP5 submachine gun is fast becoming the world standard for (CRW) Counter Revolutionary Work.

The basic principle for any special operations force behind enemy lines is to avoid enemy contact, or until it becomes necessary, like in sabotage operations. Some missions require a short engagement with the enemy in a firefight, whilst other friendly agents destroy a key enemy installation or asset. Generally, there is an initial shock force that hopes to break the enemy's resistance and suppress any potential for return fire. The sabotage unit will be detailed to move in for closer engagement (hopefully covertly), this patrol will seek to implement their specific sabotage objective, and finally all forces will make a tactical retreat.

The Royal Marines employ a similar philosophy in using overwhelming numbers, although their operations are generally more man-powered based, with the use of more conventional army tactics. The Royal Marines place a high importance upon sniping skills, usually at long range before entering into close-quarter combat.

The SAS uses the Accuracy International PM 7.62mm caliber rifle for specific sniping related missions, with an accuracy of up to 1000meters; it also comes in a suppressed fire version (accurate to up to 300m). The troopers are also provided with Sig-Sauer P226 pistol for additional personal protection. Finally, the Gimp (GPMG) General Purpose Machine-Gun is used as a standard machine gun; it has an effective range of around 800m handheld, or 1,800m from a fixed position. A newer option is the lighter Minimi machine gun, weighing only 6.8kg; although lighter, it is less effective as the 5.56mm ammunition lessens its stopping power and distance.

Studies have shown only 15% of infantrymen fire their weapons in engagements with the enemy; this ratio would prove disastrous for any special operations unit. Even regular soldiers who do fire their weapons often fire erratically and avoid direct combat with the enemy through either stress or fatigue. The primary goal of SAS weapons training is to make the special operations soldier familiar with operating under close combat conditions. The Standard Operating Procedures (SOPs) stress the importance of identifying a target and moving into a safer tactical position, the actual firing upon the enemy is just one of the concerns to weigh up. Head-on contact drills stress the importance that each of the four soldiers take up a tactical position where they won't hit a fellow member of team with return fire (usually body-line shooting, two shots or double-tap into the upper body of the opposition).

The famous Killing House developed at Hereford, and now replicated worldwide, is a rubber lined multi-storied building where contact drills are practiced. The soldiers are required to keep their weapons clean and in optimum working order. Another ‘trick of the trade’ is to have the last two bullets in a magazine as tracer rounds, which alerts the soldier to change magazines. An elite trooper can draw, aim and fire a full magazine from a pistol in under 3 seconds.

The Royal Marines in comparison complete an ML2 Course during training that ensures a similar high degree of competence to that of the SAS, however, the lack of training in similar foreign weaponry of other forces may directly hamper their flexibility in behind enemy lines operations.

SAS WEAPONS & KIT

The SAS use most of weapons and kit favored by the regular British Army. There are reasons for this including:

- It helps to preserve the anonymity of the special forces
- It helps in re-supplying its unit from general army stores
- It helps new recruits acclimatize after transferring from regular forces

The SAS favors the M16 assault rifle over the British Army standard SA80. Its proven ability in jungle environments during the Vietnam war and its ability to fire single or double shots, plus its compactness, accuracy and reliability make it the front-line weapon of choice. It also allows for an M203 40mm grenade launcher to be attached for added flexibility. The SAS may also use the standard SA80, or even AK47s, when attempting to blend in with local forces (CRW operations).

The Heckler & Koch MP5 is favored for anti-terrorist work. Its closed bolt action allows for unusually accurate firing, and its compactness is often necessary in tight environments. It is favored by most anti-terrorist forces around the world and is considered the best and most reliable of its type. The P226 Sig-Sauer is a modern semi-automatic pistol favored by the SAS. Its 15 shot capacity and its single or double action firing make it the better choice for personal protection, than the once favored Browning High Power 9mm. It also uses the same ammunition as the H&K MP5 (9mm parabellum).

The FN General Purpose Machine Gun (better known as the Gimpy) is favored for heavy machine gun fire. The old .50 Heavy Machine Gun is also still utilized, sometimes mounted upon Land-Rovers. The Mk19 40mm Grenade Launcher is also utilized in this way.

The M72 LAW 66 Rocket, 81mm L16 Mortars, Milan Missiles, Stinger Missiles are used for long-range destruction of foreign key assets. Claymores are utilized to booby-trap sites and to also guard temporary campsites. Flashbangs, CS gas grenades and smoke grenades are used for CRW and anti-terrorist operations; they help to disorient the enemy. Fuses, detonators and plastic explosives (like the L9A1 Barmine) are used to sabotage enemy assets. Other devices like door rams, portable oxy-welding torches and the famous Harvey Wallbanger cannon are used to gain entry into secure locations.

Modern electronics are relied upon by the SAS in the areas of navigation (GPS systems like the Magellan NAV 1000M), night vision (image intensifiers, thermal imagining) and target designation (Paveway II and III models). The SAS favors the use of Clansman and Bowman communications devices.

Other essential equipment options are bergens (backpacks), medical packs, compasses, two sets of clothing, plastic bags, utility knives and rations.

The Land-Rover is a quintessentially English and SAS tradition (harking back to the early 1950s). Many variations exist in use today. The model favored today is the Land Rover 110. It has a V8 petrol engine, its bodywork is stripped down to bonnet level, and it has mountings added for a variety of weapons – typically two GPMGs, or a GPMG plus a .50 machine gun, Milan firing post, or Mk19 grenade launcher. Extra stowage racks are fitted for large quantities of food, water, personal kit, weapons, ammunition, communications and other technical equipment. A land rover is typically crewed by three soldiers: a driver, commander and gunner. Camouflage nets and poles are carried if the vehicle needs to be hastily hidden.

The Regiment has experimented with Light Strike Vehicles (LSVs); these dune buggy style vehicles are much favored by the U.S Navy Seals. They are problematic in they cannot carry anything like the equipment a Land-Rover can, but this tends to suit the Navy Seals type of lightning operation.

The SAS also use motorbikes and Bedford trucks. The Bedford trucks are occasionally dropped behind enemy lines, with the Land-Rovers, from C130 Hercules transport planes.

HOSTILE ENVIRONMENTS

Following Continuation Training the SAS goes to the Far East to learn Jungle Training. This is the start of a process that sees the soldiers learn to operate efficiently in a number of different combat environments, not just basic survival skills, but also specific combat tactics.

In jungle warfare poor visibility is of key importance (the gloom means visibility is down to 50 meters or less – 160 feet), combat usually then takes place at close range - presenting its own series of problems. There is generally two types of jungle to contend with, the first is Primary Jungle, which contains large trees that grow to a height of around 60 meters (200 feet) before forming a thick canopy that leaves no light for ground foliage. The second type is Secondary jungle, where the canopy is less thick allowing sunlight to hit the ground meaning ferns, grasses, vines and shrubs grow up to a height of around 3 meters (10 feet). Such conditions mean poor visibility, slow and arduous movement and a high potentiality for being ambushed.

Water supplies in jungle environments are often abundant but often polluted; which is highly problematic considering individual's sweat profusely in such humid surrounds. Soldiers are taught they need two sets of clothing, one wet and one dry. The wet ones are worn during movement: the dry clothes are for sleeping in. A plastic bag is used to store the dry ones. Disease is rife in such conditions, all soldiers have to guard against getting snagged on vines, bitten or grazed. Infection rates are accelerated in humid conditions. All troopers are trained to build A-frame shelters with mosquito netting, the soldiers are also drilled to spray on mosquito repellent each morning (on the face, clothes and arms) and finally, they are told to take their Paludrin anti-malaria tablets daily.

The key to survival in this environment is moving silently, detecting the enemy first, shooting accurately at quickly moving targets. The SAS teach soldiers to use the 'Belfast Cradle' technique, whereby the soldier holds his weapon in his crooked forearm when moving about (slinging it on one's back and retrieving it could mean the difference between life and death). *Shoot-and-scoot* is a SAS designed response to a chance encounter with the enemy, upon contact the patrol lays down a heavy barrage, after which they each undertake a tactical retreat back through different routes to a prearranged rendezvous. Hopefully, the enemy will believe a greater force has just fired upon them and seek to either retreat or dig in for a firefight (i.e. not following the unit). Such techniques are also employed by the Australian SAS, which during its campaigns in Borneo and Vietnam performed more than 1400 patrols, having 298 contacts with the enemy killing over 500; for the loss of only one man through wounds sustained in action. The United States Navy Seals estimate that one Seal is equivalent to ten regular soldiers; the SAS although carrying slightly less firepower, is considered almost as deadly.

Navigation in jungle environments is tricky, the soldiers are taught to use a method involving the use of a compass, pacing and being able to match features on a map. To avoid ambush the SAS use a technique called *cross-graining*, which involves moving up and down ravines in zig-zag movements; it makes it harder to spot the tell-tale signs of movement that are hard to obscure in muddy ground.

Each soldier needs up to seven liters of water moving in a jungle environment daily. They may also need additional salt tablets. The soldier will generally carry water purification tablets, as opposed to vast quantities of water.

Each troop, in such an environment, will move around 100 meters (328 feet) every hour. Every 20 minutes the patrol stops to listen out for enemy activity. If contact is made, combat will generally be engaged at around 5 meters (16 feet) distance.

In tropical climates, soldiers are required to cover up, the primary problem here being scratches, insect bites and stingers. In such humid conditions wounds can quickly fester making it imperative to reduce the above complications. Fluid loss is also a problem in such humid and hot conditions, not only from a health aspect, but also because clothing can quickly rot. Despite their being a canopy of trees above, the fact is most of the heat is trapped underneath it; water evaporates from the lush surrounds creating a humid atmosphere, and within an hour of exertion a soldier will be saturated with moisture and sweat. Clothes are usually loose (baggy trousers, long-sleeved cotton shirts, canvas boots and jungle hats).



Mountain and Arctic warfare skills are taught to the SAS by the Royal Marines Regiment. Members of the 22 SAS (plus the Territorial Army units and 21st and 23rd SAS) attend the German Army Mountain and Winter Warfare School at Luttensee, near Mittenwald, Bavaria. The Army Mountain Guide course seeks to familiarize the men with the specific problems presented in these environments; so they can advise commanders and fellow soldiers alike. The course involves an initial selection week, plus five weeks of intensive rock training at Oberreintal, on the Wendelstein. The troops live in tents in the Alps and spend up to 10 hours a day conducting climbs. The course continues to Chamonix in the French Alps, where specific training is performed in ice-climbing techniques. Also during this phase, a tricky climbing exercise is carried out on the famous Mont Blanc. Skiing is also practiced during the course: the candidates are given six weeks to gain ski skills to an advanced level before undertaking the German Ski Association Instructor's Test. If the test is passed, another 3 to 4 weeks are spent on the high alpine course in the Gran Paradiso region of Italy. The final test is held back at Luttensee, and the successful candidates are awarded the Mountain Guide certificate and associated badges.

The particular problems associated with operations in mountainous regions includes high winds, inclement weather, difficult terrain, lack of shelter, lack of water and virtually no food sources. Most SAS units operating in such terrain are equipped with climbing kits, sleeping bags, warm clothing and bivi-bags. Some glacial areas can experience winds up to 80km/hr (50mph), which makes it impossible for any kind of semi-permanent shelter. This can lead to whole operations being abandoned. Such high winds can lead to hypothermia and frostbite.

Skills taught for operations in mountainous areas include rock climbing, rappelling, belaying and obstacle negotiation. Soldiers are taught mountain walking; that seeks to minimize any hazards associated with rock falls, including stepping over obstacles than stepping upon them (this lessens injuries, but also stops excessive noise that can carry in mountain regions).

The Royal Marines also send their Commando Brigade for exercises in Norway; all personnel undertake the 3-week Arctic Warfare Training Course, which teaches survival and fighting skills in Arctic regions. The Marines are also taught elementary ski techniques by Mountain Leaders (MLs) and Military Ski Instructors (MSIs). The MSIs also teach cold-weather survival and the art of building 10 to 4 man shelters and snow holes. On a usual course the students are subjected to 11 days and 4 nights in the field. Those soldiers who have not been deployed to Norway in the last 12-months or lacking in such skills are referred to a one-week refresher course.

The training of the raw recruit continues for the good part of 3 months, the next phase of training continues at Mo-i-Rana in Norway. This section of the training concentrates upon individual battle-drills; patrolling; camouflage and concealment; ambush and anti-ambush drills. During this phase the Special Boat Service (SBS) are called upon and the Mountain and Arctic Warfare Cadre personnel to assist in training. These additional units are deployed in exercises to be the opposition forced. In the various exercises undertaken the opposition force is to be infiltrated by land or submarine; reconnaissance on opposition territory; raid enemy command posts; cut the lines of enemy communication; trap retreating enemy forces; strikes against supply and demand munitions depots; and attacking opposition units of rotary and fixed wing aircraft.

Special focus is paid to developing skills to disrupt airfields, which is a key activity for such commando type units in wartime.

The SAS started its operational life in WWII under the command of David Stirling in the desert campaign in Northern Africa; it is no surprise to note their excellence in desert warfare. The SAS uses the *Empty Quarter* (or Rub' Al-Khal) of Saudi Arabia for such desert training. The Empty Quarter is the largest sand desert in the world, unbearably hot in the summer and freezing in the dead of winter. Sand dunes require specialist knowledge to navigate without getting stuck, when traversing dunes the experienced driver will attempt to climb it on the foot-side first to satisfy themselves that it is climbable. Tire pressure can be reduced on sand to give better traction, but this runs the risk of them overheating. Generally, driving over rocky desert is severe on tires, springs and shock absorbers alike. These issues are usually taken into consideration when planning desert operations. In high temperatures vapor locks can occur in fuel systems, batteries become unreliable, fuel oil and coolant filters become blocked with sand and dust.

The vehicle training in Saudi Arabia, Oman and the United Arab Emirates is used to keep the men up to combat readiness. One aspect not readily apparent is the physical exertion required to drive in such demanding conditions; one can risk one's life in areas of high temperatures, especially without access to shade and water. Dehydration, sunstroke and severe sunburn can also hamper the operational capacity of team if not properly dealt with. What isn't readily apparent to the civilian is that deserts can also be cold and wet places. Fog, sleet and low cloud can disorient a team just as much the effects of dehydration, conditions like these were experienced by some special operations soldiers during the first Gulf War.

Some of the other factors in hostile terrain operations include problems regarding boots, during the war in Northern Oman in 1959 soldiers were generally issued standard-issue rubber-soled army boots. However, in such dry and rocky terrain the boots quickly wore down leaving the screws that hold them together exposed like football boot studs. Frequent drops were subsequently made to re-supply the SAS with boots. The SAS tailors their kit and clothing to each different hostile terrain. In the desert heat soldiers wear clothing that will trap a layer of air between skin and clothing, this helps keep the body cool and limits perspiration. Desert clothing is usually lightweight cotton (long-sleeve shirts and trousers) and headgear is usually worn to trap cool air underneath (like the Arab *shemagh*). Because of the variable weather conditions between day and night in desert areas, extra clothing is usually taken (like Goretex jackets, gloves and arctic smocks).

Water becomes an issue in desert environments, a soldier can consume up to 14 liters (three gallons) a day. Extra salt needs to be added to account for its loss in sweating. Soldiers can sometimes become undisciplined with water usage under such conditions. Snakes are a problem in desert environments with their predilection for crawling into partially opened sleeping bags: to enjoy the soldier's body-warmth. The same can occur with boots. Scorpions and spiders also crave such places. Lice, mites and flies can carry diseases like scrub typhus and dysentery. Therefore, discipline in cleaning cooking and eating utensils becomes important.

Weapons maintenance is essential in desert environments; weapons can become clogged with sand, leading to dangerous malfunctions. Excess oils need to be removed when cleaning occurs, to avoid an abrasive paste building up that can damage the action of a weapon. Cling film and condoms can be used to make a make-shift barrier against sand and dust for weapons and radios.

Soldiers are trained to be able to build a 'desert-still', which can collect up to a liter of water per a day. The device is constructed by digging a one-meter deep hole, putting old vegetation, waster water, urine or any other liquid available and placing a container at the center. There is usually a drinking tube attached to the side and a plastic sheet is placed above, with rocks put on the side to hold it down. Finally, one rock is placed in the middle to filter the condensation into the container.

In Polar regions the biggest problem becomes wind-chills; basically when wind and cold combine to produce extremely cold conditions the body doesn't function well: if body temperature is reduced or increased by a couple of degrees it has serious effects on the body. Intense conditions can numb the brain and body leading to accidents or poor judgement. Under such conditions negating the effects of wind chill become paramount, so clothes are usually worn in layers and are loose fitting (this helps to keep blood flowing freely, and helps to prevent frostbite). A complication is overheating, if sweat is produced it often freezes in the clothing layers, leading again to frostbite. Cotton long johns, Goretex smocks, 'fitzroy' jackets, gloves, wooly hats and Royal Marine cotton trousers are usually favored under such conditions. Cotton socks are usually worn under nylon ones, as feet will perspire under any activity (especially encased in waterproof boots); so the cotton ones can be removed and wrung out during periods of rest. If left unattended the individual can get 'trench-foot', which can incapacitate. Headgear is important as 50% of body heat is lost through the head region, a standard issue Arctic cap with fold down flaps is usually preferred.

Exposure to wind can freeze exposed flesh in minutes (even seconds), immersion in cold waters can mean death in under 20 minutes; making it vitally important that one's comrades alert you any existing problems with your clothes and kit. Shaving is often discouraged in such environments, as shaving tends to remove the natural oils found in the skin that help protect from frostbite.

Low temperatures can also mean weapons sometimes malfunction if it is not cleaned properly or if ice has formed on the working parts. All lubricants have to be removed when cleaning occurs, even taking a weapon into a warm environment from the cold outside can cause moisture to form on the various working parts. Ammunition can also be affected by ice and condensation, it is advised to store it off the ground in its sealed boxes; radios are often affected in the same way.

In most of these terrain types a soldier's kit will include climbing equipment, lightweight sleeping bags, sleds and spare bivi-bags, mainly to aid the manning of long-term Observation Posts (OPs).

There are always specific operational issues in different hostile climates that need to be accounted for in training, an example being going from jungle operations to desert ones; a soldier needs to retrain his eye to shoot at longer target ranges and to adjust to wider patrols patterns. Other issues can include greater stress in remaining light-footed in rocky, metallic outcrops terrain (nail shod boots create excessive noise). Climbing up deep ravines often needs the employment of ropes, which can prove exhausting for even fit troopers. Extremes in weather can be a complication in desert climates (hot days, freezing nights).

OPERATIONS

The SAS has a wide variety of wartime roles including intelligence gathering, counter-insurgency warfare, raids, ambushes, behind-the-lines operations and a range of long-range reconnaissance functions. The SAS also carries out counter-terrorist and hostage-rescue activities.

BEHIND ENEMY LINES

Working behind enemy lines is a particular specialty of the British SAS, they are often called upon to undertake long range reconnaissance patrols in hostile territories: generally ahead of the main force in wartime operations. The unit was conceived by the regiment's founder, David Stirling, in 1941 to undertake long-range reconnaissance operations. They were trained to be able to work unsupported in small operational groups (4 man patrols). A particular focus of training is to maximize the time periods a soldier can maintain an OP (operational post) position covertly. The information is sent back to command via long range communications equipment, usually to help plan the activities of the main battalion force. After this intelligence phase of the war, the soldiers can be returned to hit specific targets of importance behind enemy lines.

To perform these long-range reconnaissance activities, specialist training is given to the recruits in parachute techniques like HALO (High Altitude Low Opening) jumping, training in survival skills and training in the use of camouflage. A particular skill in camouflage is avoiding being silhouetted against the skyline. Other operational issues include avoiding bridges, roads and tracks: as they are usually booby-trapped or guarded. All maps carried by the team are not marked, soiled or folded in any way to avoid compromising the operation if lost, or the soldier is captured. Before insertion, each soldier is briefed as to the prevailing weather conditions, drop-off points, and known enemy positions and forces. These briefings can take up to 3 to 4 hours, as things need to be committed to memory and failure to do so could lead to calamity and/or death; to not only the offending soldier, but the entire team. The patrol once inserted will move quickly away, from the dropzone, to reduce discovery. This is often difficult considering the 60kg of weight the soldier has been lumbered with. Sometimes, the patrol is inserted with a vehicle. Operationally, once the team is on the ground they are in charge of their mission; this task generally falls to an SAS corporal who could radically change the mission according to prevailing conditions. In larger patrols a troop leader will generally be present (usually a captain), or a squadron commander (major). In comparison to other special operations units around the world, the SAS soldier has been given a higher degree of autonomy over their actions.

The process of transmitting the reconnaissance reports back to command presents its own problems. Firstly, normal radio transmissions can be intercepted; therefore, the PRC319 operations set (used by both the SAS and SBS) encrypts its information. Secondly, the act of continuous transmission (even if not unencrypted) presents an operational problem; the PRC319 unit has its own small computer keyboard, where information is stored and 'burst' transmitted to reduce the chance of interception. The PRC319 unit consists of four detachable units: a transmitter/receiver, an electronic message unit and two antenna tuners. It also has a pocket-sized electronic unit for remote operation. The unit can store up to 20 preset channels and, of course, the unit is sealed against dust, rain and water immersion and is extremely durable (including withstanding being dropped by parachute).

Training in the development of suitable Observations Posts (OPs) sites is often crucial to a mission's success. One problem of long-term OP sites is soldier's become bored, the comparative lack of space to move, campfires cannot be lit so foodstuffs are invariably cold and frost-bite can strike on long nights of exposure to the elements. During the Falklands War, SBS troops were detailed to observe the San Carlos area, once the troops got to their position they had to dig a camouflage position into the frozen soil, they could only work during the night (or be seen), they cut out sods of soil and laid it upon chicken wire frames, they were then woven with hessian to construct the standard OP shape. The soldiers had to be careful not to spread the soil over the general area (another telltale give away), they had to replace the sods of turf each morning (because they dry out and fade). Living under such conditions can be intolerable long-term for even the hardest of soldiers.

MOBILITY TROOP

The SAS has a dedicated troop designed to assist in land based insertions; such a specialist team setup is quite rare in modern special operations groups. David Stirling insisted from the beginning that the SAS should be able to successfully arrive at their targets by air, land and sea. The first operational role for the SAS was during the Second War II in North Africa; during this operation the team was detailed to drop behind Axis enemy lines to destroy enemy airfields at Tmimi and Gazala. The team was dropped from parachutes just off target, in the process, many men were injured and the mission had to be abandoned. Thereafter, efforts were made to transport the troops to and from the target; the Long Range Desert Group facilitated this process. Today this role has been formalized into the Mobility Troop (part of SAS Sabre Squadron). The team specializes in operations using all manner of land-craft including Land Rovers, dune buggy-type vehicles and motor cycles.

A major problem in land-borne operations is finding sturdy vehicles that can operate in all conditions. Amongst the chief concerns in finding reliable operating vehicles is finding ones capable of handling intense heat, are immune to engine problems caused by sand, sturdy enough to handle the corrosive effects of dust on the vehicle. Another factor is that temperatures can fall so low that grease and petrol can freeze solid in the engine block. Generally, vehicles are only used in desert and grassland environments; snow, jungle and mountainous terrain usually requires walking, helicopter insertion or the use of a fixed wing aircraft.

Issues of payloads capacity becomes paramount in the use of vehicles, often the vehicles only carry enough fuel to reach its destination and return, or occasionally vehicles are only required to reach their destination and another means is used for extraction i.e. helicopter, or commandeering a foreign vehicle. The vehicle will generally be required to house heavy armory, water supplies, troops and armaments; which often means weighing up equipment against fuel considerations. The lighter to the payload can also mean the faster the troop reach their destination, which could prove critical. Operational considerations often come down to trading off high speed against a high payload capacity.

The type of vehicle selected by the SAS for operations is heavily dictated by the role of the special operations squadron, the vehicles used are generally light on armor and only moderately resourced by firepower. The SAS force is not expected to hold ground like a conventional force (the very last thing you want do to behind enemy lines), the vehicle's mounted firepower is for engaging targets or opportunity, or for covering themselves during a rapid extraction. The vehicle also needs to have the ability to carry their own supplies, as they work in areas where there are no friendly depots to drop in upon. Very occasionally, Bedford trucks are also dropped by plane to aid in carrying supplies on longer-term missions. Parachutes are sometimes used to re-supply units behind enemy lines; however, this can cause complications if the enemy spot the parachute (potentially compromising the whole operation). Besides, airborne support and air superiority during war can never really be planned for.

The troop has traditionally had a long association with Land Rover, during their many desert based campaigns the legendary 'pink panther' Land Rover was painted to blend into the scenery. Since the 1980s the long-wheel based Land Rover One-Ten has been used. These operate at low speeds on mud and sand, but can drive fast on roads. They have a good power-to-weight ratio (important for keeping insertion costs down) and a good underbelly clearance. Their reliability is unquestioned, and they are well-balanced vehicles, meaning they are unlikely to flip over on soft or rocky surfaces.

Land rovers are usually fairly well armed with combinations of Browning sub-machine guns, GPMGs, Mark 19 40mm automatic grenade launchers, Milan anti-tank missiles and/or Stinger surface-to-air missiles.

The Land Rover Special Operations Vehicle (SOV) is a larger vehicle built especially for SAS operations. The vehicle generally has a crew of six (compared to 3 in One-Tens); the SOV has machine guns front and rear (additional to the twin mounts on the pulpit), an 81mm mortar, and mounts for personal weapons. Additionally, Milan or TOW (Tube-Launched, Optically tracked, Wire-guided) anti-tank missiles or a 30mm cannon can be mounted on the pulpit (replacing the twin machine guns).

In recent years, the SAS has used Longline Light Strike Vehicles (LSV), which is a modified version of the American Fast Attack Vehicle (FAV). These are essentially military grade dune buggies. They are generally used for speedy reconnaissance missions, ferrying troops quickly and clandestinely behind enemy lines; they are generally smaller than a FAV and more streamlined camouflage wise. The buggies can only carry a payload around $\frac{1}{2}$ of the capacity of larger vehicles; therefore limiting their operation radius unless they can be re-supplied. These vehicles cannot house or carry as many weapons as normal military jeeps and they are less comfortable for their crews; dune buggies generally being open to the elements and having exposed engines. Such vehicles are primarily valued because of the speeds they can generate in desert environments (around 48 km/hr); they can climb 60% slopes and remain stable on 40% side inclines. Such vehicles generally have an operational range of around 500km.

Transporting these vehicles to their destination is problematic, thankfully the SAS has access to the C-130 Hercules transport aircraft (around 60). The C-310 Hercules can accommodate any Land Rover or LSV vehicle in its fuselage. Refueling probes on the aircraft mean that the vehicles can be deployed anywhere in the world, and they can be dropped by parachute if necessary.

Training of the Mobility Troop initially takes place at Hereford, where a dedicated workshop exists and purpose built driving installations. This is followed by intensive training at the Royal Corps of Transport and Royal Electrical and Mechanical Engineers establishments around the UK (like the School of Army Transport at Beverley in Humberside). Training will then shift to Middle Eastern countries like Oman and the United Arab Emirates. Efforts are made to make the troop members accustomed to driving in physically and mentally demanding conditions. The training focuses upon the imperatives of avoiding the tracks of the preceding vehicles (in case of bogging), skills needed to drive in dune areas, choosing the best ground to traverse, selection of proper gear ratios and developing an understanding of the capabilities of each vehicle. The drivers are also taught to gain maximum advantage out a vehicle's momentum, and gear changes to avoid sudden acceleration and braking (also to help preserve petrol and avoid engine wear). Drivers also develop specialist areas of knowledge like understanding how to distribute payload weights evenly in vehicles to avoid sinking in soft surfaces, avoidance of rocky areas to negate excess wear on the vehicle and avoiding cacti and other thorny bushes that may puncture tires. These issues may seem inconsequential, but carrying spares is often a luxury a team doesn't have; any time taken up for repairs could leave the team comprised behind enemy lines.

Navigation is an important skill taught to all drivers; from using GPS system technology through to learning solar and astro-navigation, it proves vital to the success of most missions (especially when maps are deliberately bare of identifying markers).

BOAT TROOP

The SAS Boat troop specializes in all aspects of using of small boats, canoes, combat swimming and diving. There is generally a high degree of similarity between the training of the Special Boat Service (SBS) and the Boat Troop. The SBS role in wartime activities is reconnaissance, small raids and sabotage. There are only four Boat Troops within the SAS (some 64 men) compared to five squadrons within the SBS. Behind the glamorized role of blowing up ships in foreign harbors, the SBS and Boat Troop role involves many considerations not understood by the general public. The teams ferry equipment and explosives into combat zones in a buoyancy bag, partially filled with water to make it weightless underwater (important as a limpet mine weighs in at around 15kgs). Once inside the harbor the diver will make use of any currents to drift from target to target (to avoid creating swirls in the water that may betray their presence). Knowledge of the best location to place mines is a crucial skill when attempting to destroy heavily armored ships, and any specific target on board a ship (all divers are made familiar with the specifications of most hull designs). Special consideration is paid to find out if the ship is about to set sail, as divers may be fatally pulled into the propellers or underwater suction openings along the hull.

Before any sabotage mission is enacted, reconnaissance operations will have been undertaken. Generally, before any invasion activity during wartime, the SBS or Boat Service will be deployed to look for any prospective beach landing sites for use by conventional forces. Such reconnaissance operations seek to identify the slope of the beach, the depth of water, any underwater obstacles, sea conditions and enemy defenses. This process may involve a hydrographic survey, beach survey and a surf report. A surf report will generally require a pair of scout swimmers, the swimmers will remove their face masks (to prevent reflections off the lenses to enemy guards), they then record the average and maximum wave heights, the length of time between waves and the angle the waves hit the beach. A hydrographic survey is usually performed at night and involves scout swimmers working in two-pairs, a couple of guide swimmers attempt to maintain a fixed position, when the first scouts reach the beach they will investigate the composition and gradient of the beach. The survey will take note of any reefs, shoals, currents, kelp or seaweed accumulations, wave patterns and any underwater defenses. It may seem inconsequential to worrying about such particulars, but beach landings are extremely problematic at the best of times. Such landings can involve a great loss of life, to say nothing of troops being swept sideways by a rip onto a reef, or troops getting tangled up in kelp whilst the enemy troops pick them off one-by-one.

A Royal Marine officer named, Major Ewen Southby-Tailyour had been stationed at the Falkland Islands before the Argentinean invasion in 1982; he had previously been trained as a landing craft officer and had in his spare time made a comprehensive survey of the island. This survey consisted of over a thousand slides and a hundred page notebook of notes and sketches of the various reefs, landing sites and yachting anchorage's on the island. This proved invaluable to British Forces seeking a safe harbor to land its troops.

Maritime insertion requires specialist equipment; one essential is a closed circuit breathing apparatus system like *Oxymax* and *Drager Lar V* (as utilized by the SAS and SBS). Standard systems are noisy and let lots of bubbles escape into the water. The specialist closed-systems remove the exhaled carbon dioxide and recharge the remaining nitrogen gas with oxygen. Therefore, one cylinder can last up to 4 hours; problems do however exists in that the system cannot stand high pressures and limits the dive capabilities to shallow waters. Additionally, the system can cause severe bronchial asthma in divers over time.

In terms of the range of operations, most military divers are expected to be able to swim underwater to a distance of 1.5km; adding to this operational distance is the use of various swimmer delivery systems that can substantially increase operational ranges (and reduce the need for close insertion). The Submersible Recover Craft (SRC) is such a device developed by UK firm *Souter Copland Composites* for the SAS and SBS. The unit is a fast offshore assault craft that is powered by twin outboard motors and can cruise at around 30 to 45 knots; the unit can be transformed into a submersible that can travel underwater at 2 to 3 knots (with a range of around 10kms). Such devices are used in clandestine insertions, anti-drug operations and can even be mounted with weapons like a machine gun, 30mm cannon or surface-to-air missiles.

There is also a Submersible Recovery Bag (SRB) produced by the same firm that allows the unit to be refueled on route if necessary; it can be anchored and can submerge a payload down below the water to a preset depth.

Larger vehicles are still in use despite the benefits of swimmer delivery systems, they present an opportunity to quickly insert a large well-armed force; but the payoff is they are noisier and less covert. The SAS and SBS favor the *Gemini* rubber inflatable and the *Rigid Raider*. The Gemini craft is powered by a 18 or 40 horse-powered outboard engine. The Gemini comes in three different sizes (12-man, 10-man and eight-man). The Rigid Raider craft is powered by a high-performance 140 horse-powered outboard engine.

Problems exist with the use of light surface craft, they are vulnerable in heavy seas and in high winds; they are also dependant upon one or two outboard engines (never the most reliable of devices). The problem of unreliable engines can be further exacerbated by the carrying of heavy payloads that the soldiers need to carry into operational zones. Another offset is the rigidity of the hull, even though these devices are built to repel small arms fire (they have internal methods to keep it inflated); it may also be in the interest of the team to be able to quickly cover hard-ground with the boat in hand. It may be that in swampland or delta areas multiple rivers exist that need to be traversed.

Canoes have had a long association with special operations units. Canoes were effectively used during the Second World War; the particular benefits of canoe use include that they can be dismantled or dropped by parachute, they can be hauled easily out of water and carried overland, they rely on human effort and therefore; don't break down. Canoes are also difficult to spot on radar screens. The SAS and SBS use the two-man *Klepper* canoe, which is built with a wooden frame and has been in use, virtually unchanged, since the 1950s.

In terms of boat training, SAS soldiers are taught at SBS training facilities; as well as SEAL training establishments in the United States. Combat diving and canoeing is conducted at Poole, Portsmouth and at Horsea Land near Portsmouth. Marine communications, demolitions, reconnaissance, observation posts, survival and camouflage tasks are taught at Poole and tested on Woodbury Common, and Dartmoor. All of these skills are combined in small boat exercises on the lochs of the highlands of Scotland. The units also partake in NATO exercises from time to time.

The SBS Boat Troops are tasked with Maritime Counter Measures, and their training is regularly tested each year in the North Sea (the so-called 'Purple exercises'). The SBS teams also receive training in counter-terrorism like their SAS counterparts. These skills are incorporated into exercises at Poole, involving hostage-rescue scenarios that may involve ships and oil-rigs.

Problems exist in terms of the perceived effectiveness of marine operations in the 21st Century; the general belief is that the days of boat-insertions have been replaced by helicopter-insertions - that boats are in fact throwbacks to the days of Empire and epic naval battles. Another issue is that a number of Third World nations now employ Western contractors (who are generally former special-forces operatives), who train their special forces. A team in an inflatable on rough waters is comparatively a sitting duck if spotted, in comparison to a heliborne team that can recall its ride and can be evacuated in a relatively short space of time.

AIR TROOP

The Air Troop facilitates the insertion and extraction of teams into operational areas by air. Each of the SAS troops are parachute trained, but each Sabre Squadron has their own Air Troop, which specializes in free-fall parachuting. As all soldiers are rotated through the different troops, it is expected that experienced soldiers may well have gained skills in free-fall parachuting, and abilities to work with helicopters.

The SAS recruit is introduced to parachuting during the last phase of Continuation Training. The traditional static-line parachuting, as practice primarily during this four week training period, involves soldiers leaving the aircraft, and the parachute opening up at a predetermined height via the static-line that is connected to the aircraft. This process generally simplifies an operation fraught with some difficulties. This technique is rarely used today by special operations teams, but still employed by commando-style units. Instead, the use of High Altitude, High Opening (HALO) or High Altitude, High Opening (HAHO) techniques is favored, which the SAS teach to all its recruits after Continuation Training.

The HALO technique dictates that troops are exited from an aircraft at around 10,000m and they free-fall to an altitude of around 760 meters, where their chutes are deployed automatically. The advantage of this technique is that teams can be dropped at night at a safe distance; they are usually undetected by Anti-Aircraft Teams. The soldiers generally land together at the drop-zone and experience little drift due to the rapid descent whilst free-falling. To master this technique troops are sent off to a six-week HALO course at Brize Norton. Each student during the course will make around 40 descents; they are taught how to jump both day and night, whilst carrying up to 50kgs of equipment. They are also taught how to cope with the associated problems in HALO operations like ice forming on goggles, the dangers of mid-air collisions and the general difficulties associated with maneuvering at speed. Despite the intensive training in HALO techniques, rarely is it used operationally by the SAS; as superiors consider it an excessive risk, in stark contrast to their American counterparts.

The SAS sees HAHO parachuting as a way of increasing the capacity of the Regiment in airborne insertion. The technique involves exiting from the aircraft at around 10,000meters, the trooper will then fall for around 8 to 10 seconds, and then open the chute. The trooper will attempt to steer the parachute to the drop-zone; he can travel up to 40km in the descent and could be in the air for up to eighty minutes. This means the aircraft can remain outside of enemy radar reach, and reduce the chances of the operation being compromised.

The development of the helicopter has had a profound effect on the mobility of all military forces over the years, but more specifically, it has become essential part of most special operations missions. During the Second World War, SAS teams were inserted into operational areas by parachute from airplanes; larger items like jeeps were packed into crates and also dropped by parachute; unfortunately, some of the crates ended up impacted in large holes in the ground, if the parachute didn't work successfully. During the first Gulf War there were no SAS parachute insertions, most troops were inserted by heliborne missions. This was due to the luxury afforded to the coalition forces; unchallenged air supremacy.

The helicopter is suited to special-forces operations, because it can land and take off vertically, hover, fly at low speeds and make severe turns. These abilities allow the helicopter to make maximum use of terrain cover and take advantage of the poor performance of radar at low altitudes. Another advantage in terms of radar is that objects below the horizon, or large natural objects, cannot be detected until they are near; pilots with great skill can pick their way through ravines to boost their chances of not being detected, or seen. The disadvantage of a helicopter is it is noisy, although efforts can be made to reduce the sound of engines and rotor blades. However, helicopters are vulnerable to ground fire and have comparatively low speeds due to rotor aerodynamics.

The SAS have a long association with using helicopters going back to missions in Malaya from 1948 to 1960. Today, the Regiment uses a number of different helicopters and aircraft that are supplied by the Army Air Corps 'S' Flight and the RAF's Special Forces Flight, which is part of No.7 Squadron based at Odiham. The types of helicopter include the CH-47 Chinook, the Westland Sea King and the AH-7 Lynx and Gazelle. The SAS primarily uses helicopters for insertion and extraction tasks.

Fixed-wing aircraft have traditionally been designated the role of a platform for commando parachuting tasks, although helicopters can also be used. Of course, it would be impossible to undertake HALO and HAHO missions from helicopters, because it wouldn't be able to reach the necessary altitudes. The SAS uses aircraft supplied by RAF Special Forces Flight, 47 Squadron (based at RAF Lyneham). These operations primarily use C-130 Hercules long-range transports, which are also used by the Parachute Regiment. These fixed-wing aircraft are also relied upon for non-parachute duties like supply, deployments to areas prior to missions and evacuations. The Hercules is in use worldwide by armies, and commercial interests, because of its ability to carry equipment, but also for its ability to take off and land upon poorly maintained airstrips. The transport is also fitted with a probe for aerial refueling, giving it theoretically an unlimited range. The aircraft has a comparatively large payload capacity and has an all-weather capability. Of course, it is a very rugged transport that once reaches the end of their operational life in the military, are often sold on to ally nations in the Third World.

For the purposes of HALO and HAHO parachuting, there are a number of equipment requirements that need to be met. To undertake parachute jumps from 10,000 meters in the air, the individual requires the use of a breathing apparatus, gas canister and a helmet that has a headset inset with an altimeter. To undertake HAHO missions, the individual needs a steerable wing and foil canopy parachute; normal parachutes do not allow for either the steering capabilities, or has a low glide capability. If the soldier only had access to a standard parachute, it would mean the trooper would only remain in the air for a maximum of ten minutes, and therefore, limit the gliding capacity to a maximum of 5 kilometers (only in high winds). The SAS use the *GQ 360 nine-cell flat ramair* canopy model, which has the same aerodynamic qualities as an aircraft wing; meaning they can remain airborne for up to eighty minutes and travel up to 40kms. HAHO teams can therefore leave the aircraft outside of enemy territory and drift towards the DZ (drop-zone). Most missions are carried out at night, this presents particular problems for the team including; the team usually tries to stick into a tight formation in the air, potentially tangling guide ropes and parachutes in the process. Some parachutes are designed to be slightly luminous so that other men can remain in visual contact with the rest of the team. There is also the problem of drifting off-course; SAS soldiers carry a chest-mounted navigation pack, which consists of a GPS -system. There is at such heights the possibility of asphyxiation and frostbite, basic temperatures at a height of 10,000m might be as low as 50 degrees F, layers of warm clothing, gloves and balaclavas are employed, and bottles of oxygen are carried as standard.

HALO parachutists have slightly different needs; these troops only require 2 to 3 minutes of oxygen. Problems can arise in the form of stress-induced hyperventilation and barometric trauma (basically air in the intestines, ears and sinuses expand in response to the lower air pressure of high altitudes). Wind-chill becomes a major problem as troops plummet at a rate of 192km/h; ice may form on goggles and the altimeter. The parachutist may attempt to rub the ice off, but in turn they run the risk of destroying their falling symmetry; they will start to tumble if this happens and it may be near impossible to retrieve the situation. An additional problem is the weight carried (up to 55kg), which means they may have even less possibility of regaining their flight symmetry.

Despite the use of sophisticated avionics that allow for nap-of-the-earth flying and a number of electronic countermeasures that degrade the effectiveness of enemy radar, transmitters and weapon-guidance systems, the planes used in special operations missions are essentially transport planes. This means they are still relatively easy to shoot down if discovered. Helicopters are even easier to shoot down. The role of parachute missions and heliborne missions may gradually be coming to an end with the implementation of more sophisticated radar capabilities; that are even able to pick up individual soldiers as they float towards ground harnessed in parachutes. It may be necessary in the future for SAS-style forces to revert to land based insertion techniques; limiting the scope, time-frame and efficiency of future special operations missions.

COUNTER-TERRORISM

The British SAS has been at the forefront of many of the innovations in the field of Counter-Terrorist/Hostage-Rescue (CT/HRU) over the years. The need for specialist taskforces developed during the end of the 1960s and early 1970s when a number of international terrorist groups, mainly headed by Palestinian factions, attacked a number of Western (and Israeli) targets. Images like the massacre of eleven Israeli athletes at the Munich Olympic Games village in 1972, sent shock waves through most European governments. The British Prime Minister Edward Heath ordered that a specialist unit be created to deal with the terrorist threat. One year after the Munich attack the SAS's Counter Revolutionary Warfare (CRW) Wing was established at Hereford; the Regiment had been thinking about such a unit since the 1960s under its then Commander, Colonel John Waddy.

Hostage rescue was a logical extension of the Regiment's CRW responsibilities. Counter Revolutionary Warfare involves more than just counter-terrorism including; infiltrating enemy territory; intelligence gathering; ambushing and harassing insurgents; sabotage; border surveillance; implementing 'hearts and minds' initiatives; and training and liaising with friendly forces. Many of the Regiments soldiers were already trained as bodyguards and had seen action after being sent on foreign assignment to Aden in 1967. The CRW Wing today trains all troops from the Sabre Squadrons in counter-terrorism and hostage-rescue techniques.



A major aspect of SAS counter-terrorist training is practicing Close Quarter Battle (CQB) techniques. This includes a six-week marksmanship course, but the main focus of training is exercises within the legendary 'Killing House' at Hereford. The Killing House is a three-storey building with rubber coated walls (to absorb ricochets), tight corridors, and small rooms containing obstacles and various targets. The aim of using this building is to develop effective coordination amongst assault teams within CT operations, and to develop individual restraint in the discharging of weapons: that could cause the death of fellow soldiers or one of the hostages. The rooms are laid out to simulate different types of building environments. Hostages are often mixed in with terrorist (either dummies or targets), who are armed with a variety of weapons to test the individual's reaction times: the terrorist with a gun is always engaged first as they pose the immediate threat.

The use of live ammunition and ‘live’ hostages amplifies the realism, although since an SAS soldier was killed after awaiting rescue, this practice has been severely curtailed. Some of the dummies are electronically operated, thus in some scenarios three figures with their backs to the wall will suddenly swing around and one will be armed. The process hopes to increase the reaction time and ability of the soldier to delineate between friend or foe. As the soldiers progress through the course, the lights will normally be switched off prior to assault; this is a standard operational technique to disorient targets. Smoke, gas and obstacles are introduced to disorient the team members; there is even simulated shooting and screaming.

Once training has finished the individual will have fired off 5,000 live rounds in the famed Killing House; the drills are practiced until every soldier has become an effective member of the Sabre Squadron’s Special Projects Team. There is always a squadron on 24-hour standby for intervention duties (one troop on thirty minute standby, another on 2 hour turnaround). Each team is divided into four-man assault squads, during operations this can be further divided into 2 man teams. Each man is assigned an area of the room to clear when entering hostile rooms. It is estimated that the first 4 seconds upon entering a room are the most critical, success only comes with such dedicated training.

Counter-terrorism work demands a wide range of specialist weapons and equipment. Assault team members storming buildings must have protection from heat, fire, smoke and blasts; they must also wear body armor to protect against bullets. All SAS assault teams wear GD Specialist Supplies manufactured suits made from Nomex. The suit incorporates a respirator, hood, and flame barrier felt pads for the knees and elbows. Fireproof gloves are also issued. In terms of body-armor the SAS currently use *Armourshield’s GPV (General Purpose Vest) 25'*. In addition, a series of ceramic plates can be worn over the vest, which help give protection from high-velocity and armor-piercing rounds. There is a payoff for such protection; the ceramic plates individually weight up to 4kgs each. Despite the weight, most hostage-rescue teams employ some sort of ballistic armor.

Headgear is an essential part of the overall protection system, the SAS are equipped with the AC/100/1 helmet; this is designed to be fitted over a headset and respirator. The helmet is made of multiple layers of ballistic-resistant, composite materials. The design incorporates high impact trauma lines to dissipate the energy of any blow (i.e. bullets, falling debris ‘etc’).

Before the CT team enters a building, tear gas and colored smoke is propelled into the building, to disorientate the terrorists. Additionally, explosives may be used to effect an entry; stun grenades and flash-bang grenades may also be used to hopefully stun the opposition; shotguns may be fired containing solid slugs that may blow the door from its hinges. This method of entry may prove slightly problematic in that it may ignite curtains, carpets and other flammable furniture. Ignition of some room elements, like plastics, can create noxious plumes of black smoke. Although, this can work to the teams advantage if they are geared up with personal oxygen supplies. Respirators are normally used by Counter Terrorist teams in assaults.

Communications becomes important during an assault, the use of SF10 communications by the SAS allow for direct speech at short range and by radio, via a microphone mounted in front of the mouth. The microphone is linked to a radio transmitter. These microphones use electronic suppression routines to dampen gunfire; along with dampened secured headsets, the team leader can maintain a consistent, normal conversation with his team.

Other piece of equipment much prized by hostage-rescue teams is an abseiling kit; usually comprised of a rope, harness and descender. A technique used by most hostage-rescue teams is to land upon the roof of the target building, or to move across other adjoining rooftops to the target, and abseil down the side and smash through the windows. The SAS have had a long association with such operations, most notably the storming of the Iranian Embassy in 1980. Before any such heroics, the unit will collect as much intelligence concerning the whereabouts of the terrorists and hostages. Often this is facilitated by the use of thermal imaging systems. Spotting a terrorist heat blob from a hostage can be as simple as seeing a long cold blob emanating from the torso region of the target: guns are colder than the heat of bodies. Similarly, using nightscopes can yield results in identification through darkness and dense smoke. Parabolic microphones may also be used to catch conversations from inside the building, and usually telegraph the terrorists intentions and their states of mind. Sometimes the use of fiber optic light scopes may prove handy; the cabling is fed through a drilled wall into an adjoining room, hopefully giving a panoramic view of proceedings.

The choice of weapons is important in CT operations; generally, the team will want to stop any target quickly with deadly force. To this end, the weapon must have the required stopping power; but be compact, reliable and accurate. The ability of the weapon to be fully automatic, have good balance and feel are other factors to be considered. Sub-machine guns prove the most effective in CT roles; the SAS favors the Heckler & Koch MP5 that is equally valued by other CT units and bodyguards. There are many reasons why it is favored. The H&K MP5 fires from a closed bolt position; normally in open bolt weapons the bolt chambers the bullet as the trigger is pressed; closed bolt weapons have already chambered the bullet automatically before the next firing occurs. This means the targeting balance isn’t thrown out when the chambering occurs; therefore, greater accuracy is achieved. Secondly, the MP5 is a very reliable weapon; having a weapon that jams or misfires may well prove fatal. There is also available a shorten version of the MP5 called the MP5K; that is favored by the SAS.

Another weapon favored with CT units, and the SAS, is the Browning High Powered Semi-Automatic Pistol; this is generally used as a backup personal weapon. A high powered pistol is also utilized when the point man wishes to lob in a stun grenade upon entering a hostile room (i.e. in the other hand), or it is handy when fighting in confined spaces.

Various grenades have been developed to aid CT operations. The stun grenade originally designed by the SAS, produces a blinding flash and loud bang (hence its nickname the *flashbang grenade*); it disorients the terrorists long enough for assault team members to enter the room and the gain advantage in combat. Smoke grenades are also effectively utilized to disorientate, and traditional grenades may be useful in removing debris from the door/window or in causing diversions.

Other items employed are assault ladders (often cut to size) to enter things like airplane fuselages; the *Harvey Wallbanger* is a SAS developed projectile cannon that hits a wall with a large water sac; hopefully, toppling the wall. The SAS also has at its disposal various thermal lances, cutting devices and various door-breaking implements.

The various CT units around the world share a lot of intelligence and hardware, being essentially in the same business and employing similar tactics; it is not uncommon for operations to be staged in concertina (as in SAS assistance given to GSG 9 in Mogadishu in 1977). The British SAS has helped in the training of many CT units of the Commonwealth over the years: the Australian SAS is modeled after its unit sister service.

The SAS has a section at Hereford called the Operations Planning and Intelligence cell; nicknamed the ‘Kremlin’, which keeps track of the activities of some 300 terrorist cells worldwide. This group actively seeks to liaise with other Counter-Terrorism organizations around the world. There is an exchange programme for officers between the likes of GIGN, GSG 9, the FBI, NOCS, Delta Force and GEO. Some of these groups have been assisted in their development by the SAS, and these historical ties have helped to establish a healthy level of rapport between these groups.

The actual planning of counter-terrorist operations is an art in itself; many factors determine the type, the timing and secrecy of the operation. Once the call has been put out, the troop is deployed to the area. Usually the SAS is only called in if the local police think the situation is dire enough; there are plenty of police sniper units for single gunman-style threats. The team is assembled near the location and an ‘immediate assault plan’ is put together; generally this plan is only enacted if the situation quickly deteriorates. After discussions with the police and emergency services are undertaken, the incident team will start to dedicate themselves to sourcing specific intelligence. Elsewhere, the relevant politicians are informed; and other crisis authorities. If the situation develops into a stand-off situation, efforts are made back at HQ to construct a model of the building and a dedicated search is performed on the terrorist group and the building. If the crisis is serious enough, a meeting may take place in the Cabinet Office Briefing Rooms (COBRA). This crisis committee is comprised of the Prime Minister, senior cabinet officials, senior members of the Ministry of Defense, MI5, MI6, GCHQ and the SAS.

As the time ticks down police sniper units will move into position on adjoining buildings; the SAS troops will move into position around and on top of the target building. Political machinations are often lengthy and the situation needs to be carefully monitored as terrorists become increasingly frustrated and edgy; usually microphones and binoculars keep the team up-to-date. Finally, the situation will come quickly to a head and the assault will need to take place. It doesn’t end there however; an important task is to quickly establish that all the terrorists have been neutralized, and that the exposed hostages are taken out of the burning, and potentially booby-trapped, building.

COUNTER-INSURGENCY

Over the last 60 years a number of countries once ruled over by colonial powers have sought to overthrow their foreign rulers; counter-insurgency (nicknamed COIN warfare) actions have been undertaken using guerrilla-style tactics by a small volunteer force. British troops have fought a number of such campaigns in the 1950-60s in places such diverse as Kenya, Malaya, Borneo, Cyprus and Aden. Even today, in Iraq there are forces fighting to overthrow the United States occupation of their homeland. Counter Insurgency actions seek to reestablish control in such territories.

Revolutionary warfare relies on guerrilla tactics and subversion, not open warfare. The aim is generally to replace the existing government with one of their choosing. They may seek to impose their own rulers, tax collection activities, conscription practices, religious values, and intelligence gathering operations. This effectively erodes the legitimacy of the existing government. The movement may use persuasion or terror to achieve their aims. Conventional military responses generally prove ineffectual or prove uneconomic. Besides, such policies may further alienate the support of the civil population, who may end up in the firing line, and civil discontent may lead to more recruits for the insurgent cause.

Such discontent can occur through ructions in the political, social, economic or the religious life of a country. This may manifest in violations of the rights and privileges of citizens, oppression by one group by the dominant one or occupying force, or the threat to life and freedom of the populace. Resistance may come from a prior attempt at revolution, or liberators, that failed to deliver a series of set goals. Resistance may be deliberately inspired by external sources (i.e. foreign governments). Resistance may be passive or active; passive resistance may only need leadership to become active.

The British and Americans developed strategies to match such actions by harnessing guerrilla-style fighting methods themselves, and also by training indigenous forces to do the same. As a result of the Malaya campaign, the SAS assumed a Counter Revolutionary Warfare (CRW) role: the same as COIN warfare. They nicknamed such operations as *heart and minds* exercises. The strategy was developed initially by the Military High Commissioner in Malaya, General Sir Gerald Templar. These operations seek to gain the trust of the local community by learning their language, customs and sharing their lifestyle. In Borneo (1963-66) the British lived with the natives for months at a time and assisted them with medical care; out of this friendship, the tribesman gave them vital information on the enemy.

Another way of undertaking such guerrilla-style operations is to sponsor another group to do it. The handing over of arms, training and/or information is often enough to inspire a group to rise-up against their oppressors; the intelligence handed over needn’t be real, just what the group really wants to hear. Less politically provocative actions might include support for rebuilding programs, aid in schooling and the setting-up of a dispensary for medical aid.

Efforts may be made to use intermediaries to force high-profile defections from the enemy camp, or even offering the weaker minded enemy agent immunity from prosecution, money or position for their complicity.

In some situations the special operations force is attempting to overthrow the regime of a hostile government; not so much counter-insurgency, but insurgents themselves (often by proxy through their local agents).

It is hoped that by providing the locals with essential resources and firepower, it may lead to a greater level of trust and understanding between the groups. The next stage of this adoption is to essentially become the new local government by offering various forms of aid and structure to war-torn communities. The native fighters are more likely to hold true if they can see their families are safe and fed in their absence; then the new recruits will quickly need to be blooded in an easy combat, as to not destroy their morale. These ‘blooded’ troops will start to feel they are on the winning, and benevolent, side. It may be an entirely cynical exercise, but the underclass of any country generally have little to lose in the attempt.

Despite all the planning, using foreign soldiers can have unexpected consequences and problems; an example is the British Army Training Team’s (BATT) operation in Oman in 1970. After the overthrow of the friendly Sultan by his son in Oman, the Dhofaris region needed to be won back to restore his order and therefore, British Oil supplies. After establishing a *firbat* irregular unit of locals they found that the Dhofaris believed in a strict form of Islam; they believed that if they received anything, it was God’s will that they have it. And not to be implicitly grateful to their British counter-parts. Further problems soon arose when an attack was about to be mounted onto the Jebel Dhofar region, only to be halted mid-fight by an observance of the Islamic religious festival of Ramadan. Despite such setbacks, the sultan was restored to full power by 1975 for the loss of only 12 SAS soldiers. A small price to pay for uninterrupted oil supplies to Britain in a time of oil shortage.

OPERATIONAL TACTICS

The basic philosophy of all elite special-forces units is to infiltrate in small teams behind enemy lines, and cause disruption and destruction disproportionately large for their size. Special forces are therefore not required to fight in conventional battles; in fact, special-force teams are detailed to avoid contact (unless odds are overwhelmingly favorable). Special Forces do not attempt to hold ground, either; they are detailed under these circumstances to beat a hasty tactical retreat. Such highly trained troops would prove useful in skirmishes, but they can achieve more with the element of surprise; further problems occur in terms of the limited amount of ammunition such small teams can carry (meaning they couldn’t hold their position for long even if they wanted to). The smallest tactical unit within the SAS is the four-man patrol, instigated by the Regiment’s founder David Stirling, during the early days of WWII. This decision was based on his own experience being detailed to larger-scale patrols in ineffectual raids on the North African coast. The four-man patrol is thought to be ideal for maximizing surprise, mobility and firepower.

The Royal Marines, in comparison, employ conventional tactical units of sections, platoons, companies and battalions, although they call their battalions, commandos. The more specialized groups within the Marines like the Special Boat Service (SBS) employ 4-man teams like the SAS, which can be readily combined into eight-man troops, or even larger units.

The SAS 4-man patrol is not as big as other special-forces, especially compared to their United States counter-parts, which has a serious impact upon the amount of firepower they have at their disposal. Having heavy firepower is an advantage in being able to lay down heavy fire if the team is ambushed. Firepower is useful in raids; it also gives patrol members an increased sense of security. Such firepower may persuade the enemy that a larger fighting force has been engaged and they may call off the engagement. That said, the average SAS patrol in the Falkland Islands had at their disposal three assault rifles, one GPMG and four Browning High Power Handguns. Each trooper carried three types of ammunition (5.56mm for assault rifles, 7.62mm GPMG ammo and 9mm for pistols). Along with other essential items, this meant that each soldier was carrying around 60kg of kit; in the first Gulf War Bravo Two Zero members reportedly carried 95kg.

During wartime, SAS patrols tend to focus on intelligence gathering activities, at least initially. They are expected to infiltrate into enemy territory and setup Operational Posts (Ops) and they can be detailed to remain ensconced at key sites for many weeks. Under such conditions, a team needing to resort to weapons will be deemed to have failed in their task; it has allowed itself to be discovered by the enemy. Because of the continual training regime of the Regiment the soldiers develop a vast array of skills; meaning that they can undertake a wide variety of tasks including intelligence gathering, sabotage, ‘hearts and minds’ exercises and long-range patrols. The soldier is trained to use both friendly and hostile weapons, they are taught to administer basic field medicine and are proficient in the handling various forms of military equipment. Each member will have at least one specialist patrol skill (signals, demolition, medicine and language).

Communications skills ensure that the patrol is always in contact with its headquarters. Language skills are important in establishing contact with friendly and not so friendly locals; this skill also proves useful in undertaking successful *hearts and minds* operations. Demolitions is an essential skill for sabotage operations. Medical skills are most useful for achieving hearts and minds objectives, but also to preserve the troops a long way from field hospitals. The blend of skills is at the heart of the success of the SAS.

The SAS four-man patrol is thought to be the best-trained special-forces team in the world. The degree of cross-training done, the high proficiency levels achieved and the equipment and operational support given to the teams are the main reasons given for such a bold claim. The acid test, for such claims, is thought to come when a team loses a member; other special-force units could potentially lose a vital team member (given the degrees of specialization required in their units). An SAS patrol only loses a fraction of its resources when it loses a soldier (in Borneo, due to the Regiment being over-stretched three-man patrols were frequently used with no large loss in operational effectiveness).

7 SQUADRON CHINOOK (ROYAL AIR FORCE)

The RAF has two Special Forces Flights. The SF Flight in No.7 Squadron at RAF Odiham is equipped with Chinook HC.2 helicopters (equivalent to the U.S CH-47D). This flight provided air support for the SAS in the Gulf War; including the ill-fated Bravo Two Zero Company. Its pilots are trained in low-level flying techniques and in the use of passive night goggles; their load-masters are trained in operating 7.62 Mini-guns, as well. The RAF have signaled their intentions to upgrade to HC.3 Chinooks soon; these have wider fuel tanks, air-to-air refueling probes and radar. The Flight also has the use of Hercules C.1 and C.3 Transport aircraft; these have seen service since the late 1960s. The RAF is busy replacing this aging fleet of fifty Hercules with the C-130: known locally as the C.4. All Hercules are based at RAF Lyneham.

M FLIGHT 848 NAVAL AIR SQUADRON (ROYAL NAVY)

This Fleet Air Arm also provides a small Special Forces support role in the form of M Flight of the 848 Naval Air Squadron. The 848 is one of three Naval Air Commando squadrons; they are all based at Yeovilton in Somerset (HMS Heron). M Flight fly Sea King helicopters (HC.4). This Flight mainly operates in support of SBS, like the raid on the British Embassy in Kuwait City

NO.8 FLIGHT (BRITISH ARMY)

The No.8 Flight of the Army Air Corps operates in support of the 22nd SAS Regiment. The Flight is located at Netheravon: the center of Army flying, and has at its disposal four Augusta A109 helicopters (two of which were captured during the Falklands War off the Argentineans). The A109 helicopter has a short range, but a high speed; so it is generally used in support of counter-terrorist teams. The SAS has also been supported in operations by Army Lynx and Gazelles helicopters from various squadrons, as well as RAF Pumas.

15 (UK) PSYOPS GROUP

Since 1945, there have been many ad-hoc military and civilian PSYOPS organizations in the British Army. In 1991, the United Kingdom formed a Shadow PSYOPS capability known as 15 (UK) PSYOPS Group (Shadow).

ROLE

The role of the current 15 (UK) PSYOPS Group is to influence attitudes in order to affect behavior in support of a military commander's mission. It is performed with due deference to culturally sensitive issues, and truthful and attributable activities are directed and disseminated by various means to an approved target audience.

THE GROUP

The tri-service Group consists of Regular and Reserve Officers, and Other Ranks. It provides operational support, planning, media production, logistics and technical support. Its members consist of photographers, media producers, journalists, intelligence analysts and various civilian support staff. The Group has been involved in military and peacetime exercises throughout Europe. It currently has around 40 Regular and 28 Reserve members. The Reserves are drawn from all ranks of the Royal Navy Reserves, Territorial Army and Royal Auxiliary Air Force. These professionals may have qualifications or experience in graphic design, film editing, or radio broadcasting; others may provide vital technical or support trade requirements.

EQUIPMENT

The Group has a full range of professional, air-portable, multi-media equipment, plus support equipment and vehicles at its disposal.

TRAINING

The Group also provides training in PSYOPS to other UK, NATO and other non-NATO forces and organizations. The Military PSYOPS Courses include:

- PSYOPS Planner's Course (3 intakes a year)
- Tactical PSYOPS Team Course
- PSYOPS Operator's Course

CASE STUDY – OPERATION GRANBY

Operation Granby was launched during the first Gulf War in 1990-91 in response to Iraq's invasion of Kuwait in August. A coalition of PSYOPS units met to provide a framework for approaching the needs of the operation. The activities identified included:

- Counter-Propaganda: Iraq had set up several radio stations like the "Voice of Peace" (also known as 'Baghdad Betty') to broadcast to Arab coalition forces in the Gulf region. Efforts were made to counter via the allies 'Voice of the Gulf' station.
- Leaflets: The winning of early air supremacy by the allies allowed for 29 million leaflets to be dropped by PSYOPS units. These encouraged Iraqi forces to surrender. Other leaflets were dropped to deliberately deceive - some giving credence to Iraqi command fears of a marine assault east of Kuwait (false).
- Loudspeakers: US troops deployed loudspeaker teams to negotiate the surrender and withdrawal of enemy formations.

It is suggested that up to 40% of all surrenders, defections and desertions occurring during the war could be attributed to some degree of coercion by allied PSYOPS activities. This success led directly to the establishment of a permanent PSYOPS capability; namely the 15 (UK) PSYOPS Group.

THE PARACHUTE REGIMENT (THE PARAS)



Motto: *Utrinque Paratus* (Ready For Anything)



UNIT PROFILE

Primary Role: Airborne Infantry
Secondary Role: Light Infantry

The Parachute Regiment was created in 1942, after Winston Churchill ordered its formation in June 1940. No.2 Commando was selected to meet the paratrooper needs. They began training at Ringway, near Manchester. The unit was re-designated as the 11th Special Air Service Battalion. Later in 1941, the airborne troops became the 1st Parachute Battalion, and soon further battalions were formed. In 1942, the Parachute Regiment was formed as the home for all the various parachute regiments. Seventeen battalions were raised during the war: the last three did not see service. Such units were used extensively in each theatre, including in Europe at Normandy, Arnhem and Ardennes.

The Parachute Regiment became a permanent part of the British Army in 1949: it was transferred from Army Air Corps. The Regiment has served in most of Britain's overseas commitments since the Second World War, including the Suez crisis, Borneo, Aden and the Lebanon crisis in 1958. The Falklands War in 1982 saw sustained fighting for the regiment, including the pivotal capture of Goose Green. After the war, it was decided that British Forces needed a proper airborne capability. At this time, the 5th Infantry Brigade became the 5th Airborne Brigade. It was to contain two battalions of Paras, a Gurkha infantry battalion and supporting elements (like the 7th Parachute Regiment Royal Horse Artillery). The Regiment served in Kosovo and Bosnia during the 1980/90s. The Regiment has also had tours of duties in Northern Ireland.

RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING

OFFICERS

The majority of men applying to join the Paras as officers are in their last year of University, although some come from straight from school or jobs in civilian life. A number of applicants come others ranks within the Army, although it is stipulated that they must be under 25 years of age. The applicants are invited for a familiarization visit to one of the battalions, and may participate in a Potential Officer Course run at Regimental Headquarters. Often the applicants are invited to spend a day or two with a NCO officer, observing training to see if they are suited to the job. If the individual passes the POC interviews and the Regular Commissions Board tests, the applicant will attend the Royal Military Academy at Sandhurst. The cadet is 'sponsored' by the Paras to undertake the same Common Commissioning Course as the cadets of all the armed services (the exception to the rule being professionally qualified officers like lawyers or doctors serving in specific professional roles within the service).

The course is structured into three 14-week terms that are separated by 3 weeks of leave. The course covers aspects of leadership, platoon tactics, map reading, arms training, drills, communications skills, military administration and organization, and professional academic studies (i.e. military history and defence policy). The leave periods are spent doing what the British Army calls 'adventure training', doing things like rock climbing, parachuting, scuba diving or sailing.



After the officers complete their 'passing-out' ceremony at Sandhurst; the Parachute Regiment officers have to pass the All Arms Pre-Parachute Selection Course or 'P Company'. P Company is based at Catterick and is staffed by five NCO instructors and commanded by a Major. Here they are joined by sappers and gunners who hope to join the parachute-trained units, and by officers transferring to the Paras from other regiments.

The first half of the 3-week course is entitled the Buildup Phase, during this period the candidates do running exercises and gym work in the mornings, and march in full kit in the afternoons. Test Phase starts on the Thursday of the Second Week. The first test presented to the recruits is the Steeplechase: a 3 kilometer obstacle course/run. This is followed by the Log Race: eight-men are detailed to carry a 72kg (160lb) log over a course. The Ten-Mile Bash is a 16km march to be completed in 1 hours and 45 minutes. The Assault Course requires the individual to complete 3 laps of the circuit within a fixed time frame. The Confidence Course is carried out on a *trainasium* (high scaffolding covered with black netting) to see if the participants can handle operating at heights. *Milling* is a test that pits two competitors against each other in a boxing ring, for one-minute the boxers must not flinch, dodge or weave the blows of their opponent.

On the next Wednesday, the candidates move on to Brecon Beacons in Wales for a final series of tests. The first is known as Endurance 1 and is a 29km forced march in full kit over the crags of the barren landscape. Day two presents the 18km forced march over the Pen-y-Fan mountain area, known as Endurance 2. After 30 minutes rest, the participants must do a 16km speed march over the hills of a nearby mountain. The final test is another stretcher race; in this test, teams of twelve must run with a 90kg (200lb) steel stretcher for 11km. The competitors are assessed on individual effort. The pass rate of the P Company is roughly 45%.

Officers who do not pass P Company, are forced to transfer to another regiment. The rest complete the Basic Military Parachute Course run by No.1 Parachute Training School at RAF Brize Norton. During this four-week course, the candidates are split into groups of eight; each group is allocated their own Parachute Jump Instructor (PJI). The first jump will be from a Syyvan aircraft and the next seven from a Hercules C-130. It progresses from a ‘clean fatigue’ daytime jump to a full equipment jump at night. These Lieutenants are now ready to join one of the Parachute battalions (they will usually be posted to a rifle platoon). After about six months on the job, they will be detailed to complete a three-month Platoon Commanders’ Battle Course that is run by the Infantry Training Centre in Wales. New officers generally spend the first two years of service as platoon commanders.

OTHER RANKS

All candidates wanting to join the Paras are put through the Parachute Regiment Assessment Course; this seeks to find suitable candidates. They may also attend an ‘insight’ weekend to find out more about the Regiment. Most recruits are aged around 17 to 18 years old, some may already be junior soldiers at the Army Foundation College. Recruit training is divided up into two phases, the Common Military Syllabus – Recruits (CMSR) and the ‘special to arm’ training. Both courses are approximately 14 weeks in length.

The CMSR in the British Army is conducted at five different Army Training Regiments; the one devoted to Para training is located at ATR Lichfield in Staffordshire. At Staffordshire, the regiment has its own company; it is run and coordinated by Para officers and NCOs. Here the recruits learn basic fieldcraft skills like basic fitness, army drills, discipline and turnout, military knowledge, first aid and weapon handling.

From Lichfield, they head to the Infantry Training Centre at Catterick, North Yorkshire. During Weeks 1 to 10 at Catterick, the trainees undergo endurance and speed marches; undertake fieldcraft exercises; and continue marksmanship exercises that eventually move on to incorporating range field firing. The Weeks 10/11 (the 10 days thereof) are designated as P Company’s Testing Phase; the recruits must pass the same tests as the All Arms Course. Success at this stage means the recruit is able to wear the maroon beret of the Regiment. Week 12 is known colloquially as ‘Exercise Mole Mania’ week, this is a five-day live firing exercise. The recruits live and fight in trenches in the defensive phase, and also offensively carry out day and night platoon attacks. Week 13 is devoted to field firing, including training in the proper use of grenades, mortars, anti-tank missiles and medium machine guns. Also taught during this phase is Close Quarter Battle technique and platoon tactics. Week 14 is devoted to drill exercises and preparations for the passing-out parade.

At the completion of the second phase of training, the Paras are detailed to attend the Basic Parachute Course at Brize Norton. After this, they will usually join a rifle platoon within the parachute battalions. Later, they have the opportunity to specialize in mortars, anti-tank missiles or sniping. Most of these specialist training opportunities are coordinated by the Infantry Training Centre at Warminster. Promotion to Lance Corporal occurs after passing a 3-week cadre course run by the battalion itself. Those seeking to become corporals need to pass a 6-week Section Commanders’ Battle Course in Wales, and the 6-week weapons and range qualification course at Warminster. Those attempting to become a Sergeant usually need to pass a written exam and have qualified as an instructor, along with completing the Platoon Sergeants’ Battle Course.

ORGANIZATION

Regimental Headquarters: The Headquarters is located at Browning Barracks, Aldershot. This command structure consists of the Regimental Lieutenant Colonel, a Recruiting Officer, a Recruiting Warrant Officer and a selection of clerks responsible for the administration of the Regiment. The Colonel Commandant is usually a high-ranking former Para; the Recruiting Officer is usually a retired Major.

Battalion Organization:

- 1st Battalion, The Parachute Regiment – 1 Para
- 2nd Battalion, The Parachute Regiment – 2 Para
- 3rd Battalion, The Parachute Regiment – 3 Para
- 4th Battalion (Volunteer), The Parachute Regiment – 4 Para (V)

PATHFINDER PLATOON

1st and 2nd Para are based at Aldershot in Hampshire and form part of 16th Assault Brigade (along with the Pathfinder Platoon). 3rd Para is located at Kent and contributes to the Allied Command Europe Mobile Forces (Land) or AMF(L). There is an administrative Regimental Headquarters at Aldershot. 4th Para has its headquarters located at Leeds, but it has companies and detachment scattered throughout the UK.

BATTALION ORGANIZATION

Each of the regular parachute battalions has a headquarter company, three rifle companies, a patrol company and a fire support company; each battalion comprising of around 550 men. Each Headquarter Company is comprised of the Battalion Headquarters Platoon, which includes the Provost Section (regimental police), the Medical Section, the Orderly Room, the Quartermaster Platoon and the Motor Transport Platoon. There are also two non-Para sub-units including the Catering Platoon from the Royal Logistics Corps and the Pay Section unit from the Adjutant General’s Corps. The Support Company has three platoons known as Mortar, Machine Gun and Anti-Tank. The Mortar Platoon consists of four different sections; each of these has two 81mm mortars and a Mortar Fire Control (MFC) party. An MFC party is usually attached to each of the rifle companies for exercises and operations. The Machine Gun Platoon has six 3-man gun detachments, each with access to a 7.62mm General Purpose Machine Gun (FN MAG) that operates in a sustained fire role (using a tripod and mortar-style dial sight). There are, additionally, four .50 Browning heavy machine guns ready for auxiliary use: these are sometimes mounted upon light trucks for use in favorable terrain. The Anti-tank Platoon is comprised of a small headquarters and two sections; each is equipped with three Milan missile launchers (generally referred to as firing posts or FPs).

PATROL COMPANY

The Patrol Company was conceptualized and formed in 1964 when C Company of 2 Para was reorganized; it comprised of volunteers to help service long range reconnaissance missions in Borneo (22nd SAS was not available because of other ongoing commitments). The modern patrol company (which is lettered, not named) in each battalion is slightly different in structure. Each has a combat element in the Patrols Platoon, from six to eight 4-man patrols; that operate from armed Land Rovers, or on foot depending upon the situation.

Also coming under the command of the patrol company is Signals Platoon, which provides the radio operators for both the battalion HQ and the various company headquarters, the Intelligence Section and the Training Wing. In 1 and 2 Para, the Assault Pioneer Platoon is also included as part of patrol company, while in 3 Para, the Pioneers come under HQ Company. Assault Pioneers are responsible for performing tasks like wiring, mining and demolitions within the battalion.

RIFLE COMPANIES

Each rifle company is maintained by a small headquarters that commands the three 28-man platoons (this creates a force of around 90 men). In operations and training exercises the Force is generally split up into two, and reinforced by other attachments like signalers, an MFC party, medics, and a Forward Observation Officer (FOO) from a supporting battery (and his support staff). One of these groups would be under the command of the officer commanding (OC), a Major, and the other under the command of his second in command (2IC), a Captain. The company Sergeant Major, an WO2, would also be with one of these groups.

The basic unit within a Para company is the rifle section, which has two four-man fire teams; one under the section commander, a Corporal, and the other under his 2IC, a Lance Corporal. Each team carries a 5.56mm Light Support Weapon, as well as SA80 rifles, hand grenades and LAW 90mm disposable anti-tank rockets. Efforts have been made to replace the LSW with GPMGs. The platoon commander and platoon sergeant, like the junior NCOs, have access to small radios to communicate with their men in battle. The other two men attached to the platoon HQ carry a larger radio, set to the company net, and a 51mm mortar. Up to sixteen men of the battalion are trained in sniping, in addition to their roles in the Rifle Company. These soldiers usually operate in pairs and are armed with 7.62mm L96A1 sniper rifles. The Barrett Model 82 50-calibre rifle is also in limited service.

EQUIPMENT AND VEHICLES

The Parachute battalion has access to Land Rover 90s and 110s. The Steyr-Daimler-Puch Pinzgauers, better known as the Truck Utility Medium (Heavy Duty) also sees service. The Supacat, a small 6x6 All Terrain Mobile Platform (ATMP), provides better stability for mobile weapon platform needs. Four-wheel off-road bikes have been tested, and may be used in a limited capacity during battle and reconnaissance operations.

The Paras use the British Army standard communication series of radios known as the *Clansman* series. They use the PRC-349 for reception and the VRC-353 at battalion HQ level. The newer light-weight and longer range PRC-320 is being used in a limited capacity, but the Clansman models are set to be replaced by the *Bowman* series of radios (probably now being extensively used). The Regiment favors the Irvin Low Level Parachute that has been tested, with soldiers in full kit, and successfully opens at a height of 300 feet (90m) with no ill effect.

CAPABILITIES AND ROLES

The two parachute battalions forming part of 16th Air Assault Brigade train for parachute, tactical air landings and helicopter-borne operations. One of these battalions is at all times designated as the Airborne Battle Group (ABBG). This group is typically reinforced by a 105mm Light Gun battery from 7th Parachute Regiment Royal Horse Artillery (7 Para RHA) and a troop of around 50 sappers from 9 Parachute Squadron Royal Engineers (9 Para Sqn RE). These last two support groups are manned by graduates of *P Company* training, and parachute training. The ABBG is on 2-5 days notice to move out; the role is switched between battalions every six months. As part of the British commitment to the Joint Rapid Deployment Force (JRDF), the ABBG is detailed to serve two-month tours in rotation with other units: as part of the UK Spearhead Battalion (24 hours notice for operational deployment),

The ABBG is the lead force of this brigade; its main function is to seize Tactical Landing Zones (TLZ) to facilitate the entry of the remaining troops into the combat zone. Such operations could be launched from a home base in the United Kingdom, or from a Forward Mounting Base. It could be a ‘theatre entry’: they could be the first troops into the area of operations. The team may be required to advance in concert with other forces by land (known tactically as a Cross Forward Line of Own Troops). In parachute operations, initial entry may involve a *stand-off drop* and approach from distance by foot, or by a direct overhead assault. The ABBG could be followed into battle by another parachute group, thus dubbed the Follow Up Parachute Battle Group. Under such conditions, support equipment would generally be flown in by Hercules to assist; such operations are called Rapid Air Landings.

Tactical Air Landing Operations (TALO) involve using up to four Hercules transports to capture an airfield, usually by night, to assist in operations. This tactic has been successfully used in operations by the British during the assaults on Prague in 1968 and Kabul in 1979. With additional support from Apache and Lynx helicopters and attack aircraft, the Hercules flies in for a very low-level approach towards a single runway (at least 1500m in length); it lands, and ground vehicles and infantry are rapidly deployed. The theory being, if the foreign airbase’s planes cannot take off - due to the virtual blockade by the Hercules on the runway - then victory should be significantly easier.

The 16 Air Assault Brigade is also capable of long-range raids, area interdiction exercises and providing military support for special-forces units. It is under the control of the Army/RAF/Navy Joint Command, although deployment is most likely to come under the control of the Allied Command Europe Rapid Reaction Corps (ARRC). Britain has been designated as the lead nation for the ARRC commitment, and the Commander and many of his support staff are British.

TERRITORIAL ARMY PARAS

In the 1950s there were nine battalions of Territorial Army paratroopers, but the number of reservists has significantly dropped over time. Until in 1999, the last two battalions were combined into a singular one (known as 4 Para (V)). The battalion has its headquarters at Leeds in South Yorkshire, and three rifle companies are spread out across the UK. 10 Company is based at London, 12 Company at Leeds, 16 Detachment at Hebborn, and 15 Company at Glasgow and Edinburgh. The TA Paras recruits do a two-week full-time training course; this ends with a reduced two-day pre-parachute selection course. They undertake a reduced parachute training course that lasts around two weeks; it doesn't include the standard night-time jump component favored by commando units.

INSIGNIA

The Paras wear a maroon beret and a cap-badge of a flying eagle (the symbol of 16th Air Assault Brigade).

ROYAL AIR FORCE



The Royal Air Force (RAF) is the oldest independent air force in the world, formed on April 1st 1918. The RAF has a fleet of around 950 aircraft and personnel of around 55,000. It is regarded as one of the most technologically advanced air forces in the world. The RAF was formed after the amalgamation of the Royal Flying Corps and the Royal Naval Air Service.

The Second World War saw the rise in the prominence and effectiveness of aircraft over the European and Pacific theatres of war. The crowning moment of British wartime efforts was the Battle of Britain, when it repelled the advance of the Luftwaffe, delaying, and eventually canceling the German invasion.

The Cold War period (1945–1990) saw a drastic overhaul of British air forces, with the arrival of jet fighters and bombers. The British development of nuclear warheads saw the RAF's V bomber squadrons take sole responsibility for carrying UK's nuclear deterrent, until the development of the Royal Navy's Polaris submarines. The primary role of the RAF during the Cold War was the defence of Europe against attack by the Soviet Union. During this period, the RAF also fought in the Korean War, intervened in the Suez crisis in 1956, and engagements in Indonesia.

The RAF had a prominent role in retaking the Falkland Islands in 1982, from the invading Argentinean presence. Its aircraft were involved in the Black Buck raid, utilizing Avro Vulcans flying from Ascension Island; its helicopters played a key role in ferrying personnel and supplies from HMS ships; and its Harrier GR3s protected ships, assets deployed to Ascension Island and maritime patrol craft.

In recent years, the RAF has been engaged in the 1991 Gulf War: over 100 RAF aircraft flew regular sorties over the region, deploying their new precision-guided munitions. The Kosovo War in 1999 saw RAF aircraft deployed in Europe for the first time since the Second World War. The 2001 invasion of Afghanistan saw the RAF provide support to the United States in the form of tankers and reconnaissance aircraft. The 2003 invasion of Iraq saw a large RAF deployment supporting the United States Air Force.

CURRENT DEPLOYMENTS

Afghanistan (2001–Present) Operation Veritas Chinooks provided airlift support for coalition forces. Since late 2004, six Harriers have provided reconnaissance and close air support to ISAF.

Bosnia (1995–Present) Merlin helicopters RAF enforced no-fly zones over the Balkans in the late 1990s and participated in the NATO interventions in Bosnia and Kosovo. Today, RAF helicopters remain to provide support to the United Nations.

Ascension Island (1981–Present) RAF Ascension Island is used as an air bridge between the UK and the Falkland Islands. United States Air Force is also stationed at this base.

Canada (1940s–Present) RAF Unit Goose Bay, Canada RAF aircraft train at CFB Goose Bay, an air force base of the Canadian Forces Air Command.

Cyprus (1956–Present) RAF Akrotiri is located in the British Sovereign Base Area on Cyprus, the airfield acts a forward base for deployment of UK forces in the Middle East

Falkland Islands (1984–Present) RAF Mount Pleasant was built after the Falklands War to allow for a fighter and transport facility on the islands, and to strengthen the defence capacity of the British Forces. A detachment of the RAF Regiment provides anti-aircraft support.

Gibraltar (1940s–Present) RAF Gibraltar has no permanently stationed aircraft. RAF aircraft, e.g. Hercules transports though, make regular visits.

Indonesia (2005–Present) Support and transport RAF units were dispatched to South East Asia following the 2004 Indian Ocean earthquake disaster to provide aid relief support.

Middle East (1990–Present) Various RAF fighters based in Saudi Arabia and Kuwait prior to and during the 1990 Gulf War, and later to enforce no-fly zones over Iraq. Following the 2003 invasion of Iraq and the occupation of southern Iraq by British Forces, the RAF is deployed at Basra.

STRUCTURE

The head of the RAF is known as the Chief of the Air Staff (CAS). Air Chief Marshal Sir Jock Stirrup is the current incumbent (Nov 05). The CAS heads the Air Force Board, which is a committee of the Defence Council. The Air Force Board (AFB) is the management group of the RAF and consists of the Commanders-in-Chief of the various Commands, plus several other high ranking Officers.

COMMANDS

Operational command is delegated from the AFB to formations known as Commands within the service. As with the Navy, today these separate Commands have been amalgamated into just two remaining Commands:

- Strike Command: Based at RAF High Wycombe and is responsible for all operations of the RAF
- Personnel & Training Command: Based at RAF Innsworth and is responsible for recruitment, initial and trade training (including flight training)
- JFACHQ: Joint Force Air Component Headquarters is the Deployable Air HQ for the RAF

STRIKE COMMAND

Strike Command has its headquarters at High Wycombe in Buckinghamshire and was formed in 1968 by the merger of Fighter and Bomber Commands. Later the Transport and Coastal Commands were amalgamated to form a single multi-role organization. The role of Strike Command is to provide a fully operational combat air force. The Command controls all the United Kingdom front-line aircraft that can be located anywhere around the world. The command is responsible for over 200 units and operates nearly 700 aircraft. Strike Command has over 45,000 personnel of which 4,000 are civilians. The annual budget is around £9 billion.

The day-to-day responsibility for operations is divided into three Groups. Group 1 is co-located at High Wycombe; it is responsible for strike/attack functions, support of the Army in the field and all RAF forces that are based in Germany. No 11/18 Group has its staff split between RAF Bentley Priory and the Fleet Headquarters, Northwood. It is responsible for air defence, maritime operations, electronic warfare, and search and rescue operations. No 38 Group is also located at High Wycombe; this group manages RAF transport needs and air-to-air refueling activities.

GROUPS

Groups are subdivisions of operational Commands; they are responsible for certain types of operation, or operations within a certain geographical area. Since 2000, three Groups have existed within Strike Command:

- 1 Group: The Air Combat Group that is responsible for all offensive and defensive fast jet forces, including Joint Force Harrier.
- 2 Group: The Air Combat Support Group manages all transport and air-to-air refueling aircraft and Air Combat Service Support Units like the deployable Tactical Support Wing and Tactical Communications Wing. It also commands the Force Protection Assets of the RAF Regiment.
- 3 Group: The Battle Management Group commands all ISTAR assets such as the reconnaissance aircraft, Nimrod R1 etc; it also manages the Maritime and Search and Rescue assets. 3 Group also coordinates the Joint Helicopter Command at HQ Land that controls all tri-service support helicopters.

WINGS

A Wing is a further subdivision of a Group, and is generally a grouping of two or more squadrons (either flying squadrons or ground support). Historically, such wings have been afforded numbers. Now, naming of the wing after the type of unit or aircraft is more prevalent (i.e. Op. Telic or Tornado Wings).

Additionally, RAF Stations are administratively sub-divided into Wings. This subdivision generally consists of Engineering, Operations and Administration Wings. Only Wings currently in permanent existence are designated as Air Combat Service Support Wings of 2 Group; these provide support services such as communications, supply and policing of operationally deployed units.

SQUADRONS

The term squadron (sqn) is used to refer to an administrative sub-unit of a station (i.e. Air Traffic Control sqn, Personnel Management sqn); there are also ground support squadrons.

However, the major use for squadron is to denote flying units of similar type, based at the same station, and are generally trained to act in concertina in the air. This historical configuration harks back to the days of the Red Baron, and these pilots can be awarded standards and battle honours for upholding the merits of their squadron – comradeship meaning more than individual merit.

Despite some notable exceptions, every squadron is commanded by a Wing Commander. Most fast-jet squadrons have around 100 personnel and 12 aircraft.

FLIGHTS

A Flight is a sub-division of a squadron. Flying squadrons are often divided into two flights, under the command of a Squadron Leader; administrative squadrons at a station are also divided into two flights. There are several flying units within the RAF that are formed as Flights, rather than Squadrons, because of their relative small sizes.

PERSONNEL

As of 2004, the RAF employed 48,500 active duty personnel, and more than 12,000 reservists.

OFFICERS

The names and insignias of RAF Officers were based on those of the Royal Navy. These ranks do not imply the actual position held by an officer; a Flying Officer may or may not be qualified to fly and a Squadron Leader does not necessarily command a squadron.

Officers hold a commission from the Sovereign, which provides for the legal authority to issue orders to subordinates. This commission is granted after successfully completing the 30-week long Initial Officer Training course at RAF College in Cranwell.

OFFICER RANKS

Marshal of the Royal Air Force (this rank is only applicable in war)

Air Chief Marshal (usually the rank held by the current Chief of the Air Staff)

Air Marshal

Air Vice Marshal

Air Commodore

Group Captain (usually the rank held by the officer commanding a major RAF station)

Wing Commander

Squadron Leader

Flight Lieutenant

Flying Officer

Pilot Officer

OTHER RANKS

The support ranks of the RAF are based upon the Army structure (with some alterations). These other ranks attend RAF Halton for basic training; the exception being the RAF Regiment, which attends RAF Honington.

MISCELLANEOUS RANKS

Warrant Officer or Master Aircrew

Flight Sergeant

Chief Technician

Sergeant

Corporal

Junior Technician

Senior Aircraftman

Leading Aircraftman

Aircraftman

BRANCHES & TRADES

- All pilots and Weapons System Officers (formerly known as Navigators) in the RAF are commissioned officers. Non-commissioned aircrew, fulfil roles such as Air Loadmasters (ALM), Air Signallers, Air Electronics Operators (AEO) etc. They are all, however, known as Weapons Systems Operators.
- The majority of personnel within the RAF serve as ground-based support crew.
- Officers and Gunners in the RAF Regiment defend RAF airfields from attack. They operate surface-to-air missiles and have infantry and light armoured units in support to protect against ground attack.
- The RAF Police follow their particular RAF units around on deployments. The Police are armed, but they have no power outside that granted to control their own particular military units.
- Intelligence Officers and Analysts of the RAF Intelligence Branch provide timely and accurate Indicators and Warnings. The intelligence officer brief includes working in the area of imagery and communications analysis, targeting, and creating assessments of the enemy's capabilities and/or intent.
- Engineering Officers and technicians are employed to maintain and repair the equipment used by the RAF. This can include the routine preparation of aircraft, as well as deeper level repair work on the aircraft's guidance systems, IT systems, ground based radar and MT vehicles.
- Fighter Controllers and Air Traffic Controllers control RAF and NATO aircraft from ground bases. The Fighter Controllers (FCs) control the interception of enemy aircraft, while the ATC control all routine aircraft flying operations.

TYPES OF AIRCRAFT

STRIKE, ATTACK AND OFFENSIVE SUPPORT AIRCRAFT

The offensive capabilities of the RAF tend to revolve around supersonic aircraft like the Tornado GR.4 (carrying storm shadow cruise missiles, laser-guided bombs and ALARM anti-radar missiles). The Harrier GR.7 & GR.7A and Jaguar GR.3 & GR.3A are used in close air support roles and in countering enemy air defences. The Harrier is currently being upgraded to the GR.9, and the Jaguars are slowly being replaced by Typhoons.



AIR DEFENCE AND AIRBORNE EARLY WARNING AIRCRAFT

The Tornado F.3 is the RAF's prime air defence fighter aircraft that defends UK's airspace (based at RAF Leuchars and RAF Leeming). The Sentry AEW.1 is used as an airborne radar station to detect incoming enemy aircraft and to coordinate the aerial battlefield. Both these aircraft have been utilized over Iraq and the Balkans.

RECONNAISSANCE AIRCRAFT

Variants of attack aircraft including the Jaguar GR.3/GR.3A and Tornado GR.4A are fitted with specialist reconnaissance pods and squadrons have been created to undertake these reconnaissance roles. The aging Canberra PR.9 is also utilized in this role because of its ability to fly at high altitude on long duration sorties. All of these aircraft carry cameras and sensors in the visual, infra-red and radar ranges of the spectrum. The aircraft that provide electronic and signals intelligence are the Nimrod R.1, and the new Sentinel R.1.

MARITIME PATROL/SEARCH AND RESCUE AIRCRAFT

Three squadrons of helicopters exist within the RAF to undertake the role of sea rescue; or more specifically, to rescue aircrew who may have ejected or crash-landed their aircraft. These squadrons are the 22 Sqn and 202 Sqn (with the Sea King HAR.3/HAR.3A) in the UK and 84 Sqn (with the Griffin HAR.2) in Cyprus. Although these units are primarily deployed as military units, they also undertake civilian rescues from ships at sea, mountains and other locations.

The Nimrod MR.2 is also utilized in a search and rescue role; its long range, extensive communications facilities allow it to act as a mobile communications link between other aircraft and base. It also contains pods containing life rafts and survival supplies for people at sea. Its main role is, however, for Maritime Patrols, specifically anti-submarine and surface ship warfare.

SUPPORT HELICOPTERS

A crucial role of the RAF is in supporting the Army, by ferrying troops and equipment to and across the battlefield. These support helicopters are organized into the tri-service Joint Helicopter Command, with additional Army and Navy aircraft. The large twin-rotor Chinook HC.2/HC.2A, based at RAF Odiham, proves the bulk of the heavy lifting capabilities of the Command, but is also supported by smaller Merlin HC.3 and Puma HC.1 helicopters that are based at RAF Benson and RAF Aldergrove.

TRANSPORT AND AIR-TO-AIR REFUELING AIRCRAFT

The 32 (The Royal) Squadron, formerly known as the Queen's Flight, uses the Bae 125 CC.3, Squirrel HCC.1 and Bae 146 CC.2 in a VIP air transport role. The Flight is based at RAF Northolt in West London. More routine air transport requirements, are carried out by Tristars and VC10s that are based at RAF Brize Norton. Both these aircraft are used to transport troops and cargo, and for air-to-air refueling. Shorter tactical transport needs are facilitated by the venerable, but sturdy C-130 Hercules transport planes. The RAF has also leased four C-17 Globemaster IIIs from Boeing, for their heavy lifting capacities.

TRAINING AIRCRAFT

A wide selection of aircraft are utilized in training aircrews for their flight duties. Many variants of familiar front-line aircraft are adapted for use in the more advanced stages of pilot training; these include the Canberra T.4, Harrier T.10, Jaguar T.4, Griffin HT.1 and the Super King Air T.1.

Basic pilot training is undertaken in Tucano T.1s and the Eurocopter Squirrel HT.1s, while navigator training is more likely to be performed in the Dominie T.1s. Elementary flying training is conducted on either the Slingsby Firefly, or the Tutor T.1; depending upon the pilots route of entry into the service. The Viking T.1 and Vigilant T.1 gliders are also used to provide basic air experience for Air Cadets.

ROYAL AIR FORCE REGIMENT



The Royal Air Force Regiment is a specialist corps within the Royal Air Force. The Regiment is responsible for defending airfields and associated installations. These soldiers are also known affectionately within the RAF as 'Rock Apes' or 'Rocks'; and the corps itself is simply known as the "The Regiment". The Regiment was founded on 1 February 1942 to provide a basic defensive capability to protect RAF assets.

ROLE

The RAF Regiment comes under the operational command of 2 Group, Strike Command. Its members are organized into 10 squadrons or around 100 to 150 personnel each. This is roughly equivalent to a company within the British Army. There are five ground-based air defence squadrons; one is a Royal Auxiliary Air Force squadron that is manned by part-time reservists. These air defense squadrons are responsible for defending airfields against air attack and are equipped with Rapier vehicles with portable surface-to-air missiles. The remainder of the Regiment consists of nine Field Squadrons (including three RauxAF squadrons) that are responsible for defending against ground attack; they are trained in a similar manner to that of regular British Army infantry. Due to the specific dangers and requirements of such roles, these troops are given greater levels of training in surveillance and the use of night vision equipment, than their Army counterparts.

Field Squadrons attempt to employ aggressive tactics, seeking to dominate the wider area around the station, by sending out patrols to locate and neutralize the enemy before they are in striking distance. Field Squadrons are divided into Flights (equivalent to the British Army's platoons). Each squadron contains several Rifle Flights, who are tasked with engaging and destroying the enemy at close range; and a Support Weapons Flight, which seeks to provide fire support to the Rifle Flights by using machine guns, mortars, portable anti-tank weapons and snipers.

All RAF Regiment members are male; in line with British Government policy that women cannot serve in front line combat roles. There are around 2,000 regular airmen (other ranks), 300 regular officers and 500 Reservists in the Regiment.

SPECIALIST SQUADRONS

- II Squadron is a parachute-trained Field Squadron that is capable of insertion by parachute and can secure forward airfields.
- 63 Squadron, known as the Queen's Colour Squadron, is a Field Squadron that attends various ceremonial occasions (like the mounting of the Queen's Guard at Buckingham Palace), and is responsible for guarding the Queen's Colour of the Royal Air Force. This is a purely ceremonial body.
- 27 Squadron is a specialist unit that forms half of the Joint NBC Regiment, together with 1st Royal Tank Regiment
- There is a ground extraction unit attached to the 28 Squadron that provides Combat Search and Rescue teams to recover isolated RAF personnel and equipment.

CURRENT RAF REGIMENT UNITS

Field Squadrons

- 1 Squadron
- II Squadron (Parachute)
- 3 Squadron
- 34 Squadron
- 51 Squadron
- 63 Squadron (Queen's Colour Squadron)

Ground Based Air Defence Squadrons

- 15 Squadron
- 16 Squadron
- 26 Squadron

NBC Squadrons

- 27 Squadron (Joint NBC Regiment)

Other Units

Force Protection

- No 1 RAF STO HQ
- No 2 RAF STO HQ
- No 3 RAF STO HQ
- No 4 RAF STO HQ

Combat Recovery

- Ground Extraction Force, E Flight, No 28 (AC) Squadron

Royal Auxiliary Air Force Regiment Squadrons

- 2503 Squadron (Ground Defence)
- 2620 Squadron (Ground Defence)
- 2622 Squadron (Ground Defence)
- 2623 Squadron (Training)
- 2625 Squadron (Ground Defence)

FUTURE DEVELOPMENTS

The Regiment is currently been scaled back with Squadrons 37, 26, 16 and 15 being slowly disbanded (yearly from 2006 to 2008). The intention is to make the Regiment part of the new Joint Special Forces Support Group (informally known as the “British Rangers”).

5 AIRBORNE BRIGADE PATHFINDER PLATOON



The original Pathfinder unit was raised during the WWII. The unit was disbanded shortly after the war; its tasks were subsequently assigned to patrol groups of the Parachute Regiment. In 1985, the 5 Airborne Brigade (5AB) was created as a dedicated pathfinder unit. The new platoon was formed from volunteers.



The Pathfinder's primary role is to secure and mark out Drop Zones (DZ) for the main assault force (TLZs and helicopter Landing Zones). The unit acts as the *eyes* also during the deployment. The secondary task assigned to the unit is to undertake medium reconnaissance for the brigade. The unit is equipped and capable of conducting patrols of up to 70kms in front of the brigade, if required. During reconnaissance, they may be detailed to undertake target recce's, to find sites of high-value and to occasionally undertake offensive action (OA). The unit members are provided with training in ambushes and demolition operations. Such troops may be deployed over a week before the arrival of the main force. Once they join up with the main force, their job is that of brigade-level Intelligence, Surveillance, Target Acquisition and Reconnaissance (ISTAR).

Any male member of the Army is eligible to volunteer for the platoon, most coming from the 5 AB itself. The prospective pathfinder must complete a five week long selection course (divided up into four phases). The unit level selection course includes training in resistance to interrogation; combat survival; jungle warfare skills; combat first aid; mobility skills; helicopter fast roping and abseiling; demolitions and route denial; mountain warfare skills; forward air control; and long range communications skills. Upon completion, those not already qualified, and who have passed selection, will complete the four-week Parachute course at RAF Brize Norton, near Oxford. Successful graduates are then assigned to the platoon for a one-year probationary period. Officers serve a two year long tour, whilst NCOs and other ranks (OR) serve for three years. After the completion of the initial tour, the pathfinder may volunteer to extend his tour for another three years.

Once assigned to a platoon, the pathfinder will undertake training in combat medicine, demolitions, communications, survival and jungle warfare. The unit conducts training in a number of different environments, and may use the comprehensive training in the Pathfinders as a stepping stone towards joining the SAS.

Approximately 40 men are assigned to a platoon. The platoon is normally commanded by a Captain, and subdivided further into a headquarters and two troops (Air Operations and Mountains Troops). Each troop is generally commanded by a lieutenant and is further sub-divided into four or five teams of four men. The Air troop members will hold both HAHO and HALO qualifications, whilst the Mountain Troop members will be qualified in HAHO parachute operations.

The platoon is equipped with 12 modified Land Rovers for insertion purposes: if parachute or foot patrols prove impracticable. The platoon is primarily armed with M16/M203 combos, and FN MAG 7.62mm GPMGs.

NO 7010 (VR) PHOTOGRAPHIC INTERPRETATION SQUADRON RAUXAF

The No 7010 Flt was formed in April 1953. The Flight's role is to exploit strategic imagery opportunities in tandem with the Defence Geographic and Imagery Intelligence Agency (DGIA). The Flight provides the physical resources, and works closely with the DGIA to target areas of strategic importance.

The Flight in 1965 became the first reserve unit to augment RAF Germany during Exercise ‘Royal Flush’. In August 1982, Her Majesty the Queen approved the issue of a crest to the flight showing royal support. The motto of the service is ‘*Vocati Veniemus*’, which translates as ‘when summoned we shall be there’. The No 7010 Flight became No 7010 (VR) Squadron on 5th of April 1997, when the RAFVR unit was amalgamated with the RauxAF. The squadron over the years has gone from providing Strategic Intelligence for tactical reconnaissance squadrons, to providing Strategic Intelligence Support for the DGIA. The Flight also provides tactical support for Tornado GR1 A and Jaguar GRI aircraft in wartime. Additionally, the Squadron supports both HQ Allied Rapid Reactions Corps (ARRC) and HQ AIRCENT in Germany.

RAF INTELLIGENCE



The Royal Air Force has its own dedicated intelligence branch. Its officers are involved with imagery and briefing duties for aircrew, politicians, commanders targeting and OPINTEL. Training of its intelligence officers takes place at Chicksands in Bedfordshire and last 6 months (with an additional 6 months training for imagery analysts). Of course, continual training opportunities are provided for greater specialization.

The Intelligence Branch was established during the Second World War; however, in reality officers have performed such duties since the formation of the RAF in 1918: it was undertaken by pilots who could no longer fly due to medical reasons. They acted as Squadron Intelligence Officers or support crew, on the ground, for tours by the Air Ministry. Later in the WWII, the Intelligence Branch was expanded to encompass Signal Intelligence activities to assist Bletchley Park's code breaking activities. In 1970, the Photographic Interpretation (PI) branch was established by commissioned officers. It was to be established to command the Reconnaissance Intelligence Centres that were attached to Recce Aircraft Units, and to assist the work of the Joint Air Reconnaissance Intelligence Centre (JARIC) at RAF Brampton.

During the 1990s, the RAF could see the merits of an independent Intelligence Branch, seeing the benefits of having early warning of potential enemies, and in maximizing the decreased capacity of a heavily rationalized RAF Force. The General Duties (Intelligence) GD (INT) branch was established. This eventually became the Operations Support (Intelligence) specialization that exists today. This Branch has around 200 officers (up to the rank of Air Commodore); its members are posted throughout RAF operation stations and it has its headquarters at the British Armed Forces HQ (Whitehall).

University Air Squadron: The UAS is a scheme to give university students an introduction to work involving intelligence gathering. They are mentored throughout their education; the mentor assists them to undertake intelligence training.

Type of jobs undertaken in RAF Intelligence:

- Imagery Analyst
- Station Intelligence Officer – Strike Command Flying Stations
- HQ Intelligence Staff – A2 (Joint, Air Component, NATO)
- Air Warfare Centre Intelligence Staff
- Defence Intelligence Staff
- Flight/Squadron Commander – Intelligence Units (Joint and RAF)

RAF Careers – Job file: Intelligence Officer

IRISH DEFENCE FORCES



The Irish Defence Force comprises of the Army, Navy and Air Force of the Republic of Ireland. Their official title is *Óglaigh na hÉireann*, that means in English, ‘Volunteers of Ireland’. The formal commander-in-chief of the armed services is the President of Ireland; in practice, they are answerable to the Minister of Defence (Irish Government).

The Defence Forces comprise of:

Permanent Defence Force

- Army
- Naval Service
- Air Corps

Reserve Defence Force

- Fórsa Consanta Áitiúil (Army Reserve)
- Slua Muiri (Naval Service Reserve)

ROLE

The Republic of Ireland's geographic location, on the north-west border of the European Union, makes it an unlikely target for invasion. The state has long maintained neutrality in overseas affairs, including during the Second World War. Due to this continued policy, the Republic maintains a relatively modest military capacity. On the other hand, the Irish State has a long history of involvement in United Nations peace-keeping operations.

FUNCTIONS

Functions of the Defence Force include:

Preparation for defence of the state against armed attack

Assisting the Garda Síochána in internal security arrangements

Peace-keeping, crisis management and humanitarian relief operations in support of the UN

Policing of fisheries, in accordance with the state's obligations to European Union Agreements

Miscellaneous civil contingency duties requested by the Government; including search and rescue, air ambulance provisions, providing secure air transportation for ministers, assisting in event of natural disasters, ensuring maintenance of essential services, and assisting in dealing with oil pollution at sea

HISTORY

The Defence Forces can trace their origins back to the Irish Volunteers founded in 1913. This organization was superceded by the formation of the Irish Republican Army (IRA) in 1919. The IRA (the original) was a guerrilla organization that fought the Anglo-Irish War against the government of the United Kingdom. The later *Provisional IRA* claim shared heritage with the movement; believing their terror activities are a continuation of this war, to reclaim the entirety of Irish soil (i.e. as in the term Nationalism). After the creation of the Irish Free State in 1922, the IRA was officially superceded by the modern Irish Defence Forces. The title of *Óglaigh na hÉireann* had been previously used by both the Irish Volunteers and IRA; the title is also claimed by various militant groups including the Provisional IRA. The current Defence Forces Executive strongly objects to such claims.

STRENGTH

The strength of the Irish Army service as of 2004 consisted of 8,500 service personnel; these are also supplemented at times by Reserve units. The Naval Service operates eight off-shore patrol boats, consisting of seven ships of 1,000-1,500 tons displacement; these are manned by crews of 39 to 45 men each. The Service also has one 1,900 ton ship that is manned by 85 crew. The Air Corps has reconnaissance planes, transport helicopters and maintains a Presidential jet. The Corps also has seven propeller-driven aerobatics planes with machine-gun and missile capabilities. The Republic of Ireland had over 800 military personnel on active duty overseas in 2004; they mainly assisted in United Nations peace-keeping operations.

The military expenditure of the Irish Government in 2004 was estimated to be around \$700 million U.S dollars.

IRISH ARMY RANGER WING



Sciathan Fhiannolglaign an Airm (the Irish Defence Forces Army Ranger Wing)

FIANÓGLACH



The unit was begun in the late 1960s after personnel from the Irish Defense Force took part in US Army Ranger School training in the United States. The graduates, after returning to Ireland, established a new school similar in mission objectives and organization to that of the US Ranger School. The students for this new enterprise were drawn from the ranks of all units in the Army, Air Corps and Naval forces. The course was designed to improve the general standards of physical endurance, marksmanship, individual military skills (and small unit tactics) across the breath of the services. By 1980, it was believed that there was enough skill amongst the pool of talent to warrant the introduction of an official Army Ranger Wing (ARW). The remit for the new service included the ability to undertake long range reconnaissance missions, train other units in specialist operations techniques, VIP security, anti-hijacking, hostage rescue and counter-terrorism. The counter-terrorism capabilities of the ARW are considered to be supplemental to that of Ireland's primary response unit, the Garda Siochana's Emergency Response Unit. In reality, the Garda Emergency Response Unit is a largely an unarmed force. The ERU generally deals with armed robberies, drug dealing and subversive groups. If a terrorist attack was undertaken on Irish soil, the logical choice for a response would be the Army Ranger Wing.

The unit is comprised of around 100 men who are organized into two assault platoons and a support platoon; including medical, EOD, aviation and supplemental capabilities. Each of the assault platoons has five assault teams of 3 to 4 men each. The men have all volunteered from other areas of the Defense Forces. Training includes a sustained focus on marksmanship, parachuting, combat diving, small boat handling and mountaineering. The ARW members are returned to their original units after a set period of time: this is encouraged to pass on some of those skills learnt to regular force recruits. The ARW troopers regularly attend supplemental training conducted by the Royal Dutch Marines and the U.S Army's Delta Force. The Chief of Staff's Branch at Army Headquarters is responsible to operational control of the Force. The unit is located at Curragh Camp, County Kildare.

The Army Rangers have seen active duty assisting in peacekeeping operations in Liberia, East Timor, Somalia and Lebanon: as part of Ireland continued role of active engagement in international affairs.

The Army Ranger Wing role is divided between Conventional special operations-style warfare roles and specialist 'Aid to the Civil Power' roles.

CONVENTIONAL WARFARE (MILITARY TASKS)

Offensive Operations (behind enemy lines)

- Securing vital objectives
- Long Range Patrols, Raids and Ambushes
- Sabotage
- Capturing key personnel
- Diversionary operations
- Intelligence Gathering

Defensive Operations

- VIP Protection
- Counter Insurgency
- Training Special Operations
- Delaying Operations

SPECIALIST AID TO THE CIVIL POWER (ANTI-TERRORISM)

- Anti-Hijack operations
- Hostage Rescue
- Airborne and Seaborne Interventions
- Search Operations
- Pursuit Operations
- Contingency Planning

TRAINING



SELECTION

The Rangers selection course is held annually, it is open to serving members of the Defence Forces only. Candidates are required to be medically fit, have a good conduct rating, they may be of any rank and must undergo a rigorous physical fitness test before taking part.

The selection course takes place over a four-week duration. The student is required to cope with physical and psychological pressures and they are under constant assessment by the instructors. The course covers Physical Handling, Confidence Training, Mountain Navigation, Survival Skills and all aspects of special forces tactics. The standards required of the students is high, and many drop out before completion. Successful students are detailed to undertake the ARW Basic Skills Course – this is considered a probationary period of employment.

BASIC SKILLS COURSE

The Basic Skills Course lasts six-months in duration; the students are under constant assessment, as to their suitability to serve in the ARW. Students learn particular skills applicable to the Units' assault platoons.

These include:

Physical Training

Advanced Shooting and Marksmanship

Long Range Patrolling: Survival Training and Rough terrain navigation

Hostage Rescue Tactics: House, Aircraft, Bus, Train and Ship Assaults

SPECIALIST TRAINING

Throughout a Ranger's career they will undertake additional specialist training; this seeks to ensure the peak of performance at all times. The Ranger is trained in skills including helicopter rappelling, fast roping, boat handling, sniping, underwater combat diving, explosives intervention, close protection, parachuting and advanced navigation. These skills seek to add flexibility to Ranger operations.

Defence Force units provide operational support to the ARW. These units provide (Air Corps) aircraft, (Naval Service Patrol) marine vessels and (Army) land transports. The Rangers also have access to specialist all-weather military kit and high tech equipment. The Rangers, thus, able to train for airborne, underwater and surface marine assaults. Training also takes place on board gas and oil-rigs off Ireland's Atlantic coast, in remote wilderness areas and in urban environments.

WEAPONS

The Rangers use the Sig-Sauer P226 semi automatic pistol for close protection. They utilize the Remington 870 Combat Shotgun for blowing doors from their hinges and blasting particular regions upon room entry. The A196 .308 Accuracy International bolt-action rifle is used for general attack duties, the Heckler & Koch 33/SG1 is favored for sniping. The Heckler & Koch MP5A3 is the submachine gun of choice in close counter-terrorism operations.

MEDICAL

Every member of the Unit undergoes the Advanced First Aid Course; this course is administered and run by the Army Medical Corps. The syllabus includes Basic Trauma life-support, and covers Intravenous Infusion and Oxygen Therapy.

COMMUNICATIONS

The Rangers are equipped with state of the art SINGCARS and RACAL communications equipment; this provides the Unit with secure communications between all of its elements and Defence Forces Headquarters.

EXPLOSIVES

The very nature of sabotage operations requires meticulous calculation and precise manipulation for both intervention and countermeasure undertakings. The Army Ordnance Corps provides its expertise in training to the Unit. Ranger personnel are very familiar with the wide array of improvised explosive devices. These home-made devices are often in the hands of subversive groups working across the border in Northern Ireland.

BOAT HANDLING

The Naval Service is responsible for patrolling an area of 132,000 square miles of sea. The sea conditions in the Atlantic are often treacherous (choppy and freezing), creating challenges for seaborne operations. All ARW Combat Divers undergo a Boat Handling Course. The student is introduced the proper use of inflatable and semi-rigid craft. The course syllabus includes Boat Maintenance, Global Positioning System Navigation, High Speed Handling, Interception and Boarding of all types of vessels in all weather conditions. These craft are used in various roles for Maritime Intervention and Seaborne Operations.

COMBAT DIVING

Selected Rangers specialize in Combat Diving and must undergo a two week preliminary Diving Course under the supervision of the ARW diving section. The course familiarizes the students with diving and diving equipment. The students gain confidence through diving in varying conditions and visibility to prepare for the next phase of the course, which is conducted by the Naval Service Diving Section at the Naval Base.

This three week course is the same as the Naval Ships Diver Course where the students are introduced to Compass Diving, Ship's Bottom Searching, Deep Diving, the Decompression Chamber and Small Boat Handling skills. The final phase of the course consists of a seven-day period of Combat Diving. During this week the student learns Harbor and Beach Reconnaissance, and Covert Ship Boarding. They end the course with a seagoing maritime exercise involving all of the Unit's combat divers.

ADVANCED NAVIGATION

From the beginning of the selection process each Ranger is tested on his navigation abilities. Effective day/night solo all weather navigation, over the roughest of terrain and at varying levels of elevation is paramount to successful ARW missions. The unit participates in military orienteering sports competitions to encourage and assist in honing these skills. The Rangers are taught basic map and compass techniques, up to the use of more sophisticated GPS systems with computerized interfaces.

SNIPING

Up to half of ARW members are fully qualified snipers. This affords the unit a high degree of flexibility in its operational roles. All potential snipers are detailed to complete a seven-week Basic Sniper Course. The students are taught Sniper related military skills e.g. Shooting, Camouflage and Concealment, Stalking and Navigation. At the successful completion of this course, the ranger is a fully qualified sniper.

Intensive exercises are conducted for selected personnel, sometimes in conjunction with Foreign Special Forces. The snipers are also trained in the Anti-Terrorist sniper discipline. This requires observance of Advance Shooting Techniques, creation of Urban Hides, Coordinated Shooting Procedures and Computer Data Transmission.

Locating, observing and reporting on targets are essential skills in sniping. The Rangers' use Burst Transmission Communications to transmit images and data.

PARACHUTING

The ARW conducts parachute training within the Defence Forces and all Unit members are proficient in this static line jumps. All trainees must successfully complete five static line jumps from 2,000 feet using T10 round canopies to earn their wings. Selected members then progress to free-fall exercises. Rangers who reach high standards in parachuting are sent abroad for HALO and HAHO exercises.

Rangers are encouraged to compete in sports parachuting, like the World Military Parachuting Championships, to maintain a high degree of precision in jumping.

FOREIGN EXCHANGE PROGRAMS

As part of the ongoing training regime, the Unit conducts interchanges with Special Forces and Intervention Groups like the Royal Dutch Marines, the French GIGN, the Italian CIS, the German GSG9 and the Swedish SSG. These exchanges foster better international cooperation and provide camaraderie and fraternity for the members of these groups.

The Rangers also take part in Irish Defence Forces peacekeeping operations around the world. Over the years, destinations have included Lebanon, Bosnia, Cyprus, Iraq, Somalia and Western Sahara.

G2 ARMY INTELLIGENCE UNIT



The Irish Army Intelligence Unit is responsible for the basic intelligence functions of the Irish Army. Although there is no information in the public domain, due to seemingly the Irish obsession with secrecy, it is suspected that G2 operates similar to that of most Armed Forces intelligence units. It is reasonable to suspect that imagery analysis, data collection, analysis of foreign military forces and the communication of their assessments to the relevant military functionaries (and other government departments), be the mainstay of the unit. The unit presumably produces these reports in reference to both open source media and classified reports. These assessments may range from studies into the characteristics of foreign weapon systems, through to analysis of key foreign influences at work in parts of the world where Ireland has strategic or economic interests.

4. INTELLIGENCE AGENCIES

CENTRAL INTELLIGENCE MACHINERY



The Central Intelligence Machinery is the central mechanism of the British Government for the tasking, coordination and resourcing of the United Kingdom's Intelligence and Security Agencies. It scrutinizes their performance and reports on the intelligence they produce. The 1994 *Intelligence Services' Act* sought to place the functions of Secret Intelligence Service (SIS) and the Government Communications Head-Quarters (GCHQ) on a statutory footing for the very first time. There are rudimentary oversights that ensure the expenditure of these agencies is accountable; in the form of the combined Single Intelligence Vote that is published annually. This figure is the total expenditure of the three main intelligence agencies (SIS, MI5 and GCHQ). The new Official Committee has been set up to examine the plans of the Security Service and to review its work.

MINISTERIAL COMMITTEE ON THE INTELLIGENCE SERVICES (IS)

The day-to-day operations of the Intelligence and Security Agencies are under the immediate control of their respective heads; who are responsible to their respective Ministers (Home or Foreign Secretary). The Prime Minister is ultimately responsible for the intelligence and security matters of the Realm, and is supported in this capacity by the Secretary of the Cabinet. The Home Security is responsible for the Security Service; the Foreign and Commonwealth Secretary is responsible for SIS and GCHQ. The Secretary of State for Defense is responsible for the Defence Intelligence Staff (DIS), that is under the umbrella of agencies within the Ministry of Defence.

There is also a Ministerial Committee on the Intelligence Services (IS), whose Terms of Reference is. "To keep under review policy on the security and intelligence services". The Committee, for example, found itself reviewing the policy issues connected to the instigated Intelligence Services Act. The Prime Minister is the Chairman and the other members are the Deputy Prime Minister; Home, Defence, and Foreign and Commonwealth Secretaries; and the Chancellor of the Exchequer.

INTELLIGENCE AND SECURITY COMMITTEE (ISC)

The Intelligence and Security Committee was established to meet the stipulated requirements under the 1991 *Intelligence and Security Act*; this Act gives the Committee its statutory authority and obligations. This unique committee is not a committee of Parliament, but is instead a Committee composed of nine parliamentarians appointed by the Prime Minister and reports directly to him/her. It has been argued that the ISC should be a select committee of Parliament, but in practice, it has been given extensive powers that are far beyond the scope of most select committees. A case in point was the Vasili Mitrokhin affair, where the committee was allowed access to papers from the former administration and official advice given to ministers; both of these concessions are quite naturally beyond the scope of a regular selection committee: being concerned with *current* government policy.

After each election, the Prime Minister is required to appoint nine parliamentarians to the committee in consultation with the Leader of the Opposition. Its members are mainly drawn from the House of Commons, but at least one must be drawn from the House of Lords. Serving ministers, quite naturally, are not allowed to be members, but several such members have previously been ministers. The committee ceases to exist when Parliament is dissolved.

The Committee's formal responsibilities are to examine the expenditure, administration and policies of the Secret Intelligence Service (MI6), Security Service (MI5), and GCHQ. In application, this remit has been extended to also include the activities of the Defence Intelligence Staff and the Cabinet Office Joint Intelligence Machinery.

The work of the committee is invariably conducted in secret, although a sanitized annual report is issued. The committee is at the liberty to produce reports on key issues or areas of particular concern; it can also be at the request of Government ministers. From 1999 to 2004, the committee employed a private investigator named, John Morrison. It is presumed that this arrangement is still in effect, undertaken by a new investigator.

The Intelligence and Security Committee 2005:

Paul Murphy (Chair)
Ben Chapman
George Howarth
Dari Taylor
Baroness Meta Ramsay of Cartvale
Michael Mates
James Arbuthnot
Richard Ottaway
Alan Beith

PERMANENT SECRETARIES' COMMITTEE ON THE INTELLIGENCE SERVICES (PSIS)

Ministers are aided in the oversight of the Agencies by the Permanent Secretaries' Committee on the Intelligence Services (PSIS) that scrutinizes the Agencies' annual expenditure forecasts, management plans, and intelligence requirements. This is in line with its Public Expenditure Survey publication. These plans, together with the recommendations of the PSIS are then submitted to the relevant Ministers (Parliament); the Ministers agree the appropriate level of funding for the agencies through the Single Intelligence Vote (SIV). The PSIS is chaired by the Secretary of the Cabinet and its members are the Permanent Under Secretaries of the Foreign & Commonwealth Office, Ministry of Defence, Home Office and Treasury. The Intelligence Coordinator acts as adviser to the PSIS, and chairs an advisory committee known as the Preliminary Committee. This committee conducts the first scrutiny of the Agencies' expenditure forecasts.

CABINET OFFICIAL COMMITTEE ON SECURITY (SO)

This Committee is responsible for the review of the performance of the Security Service plan and objectives; the examination of future Service priorities; and advises the Cabinet Secretary and PSIS as and when appropriate. The committee comprises of senior officials from the Treasury, Foreign and Commonwealth Office, Home Office, Department of Trade and Industry, Ministry of Defence, Department of Social Security, Scottish Office, Northern Ireland Office, GCHQ, Security Service, SIS, Office of Public Service and the Cabinet Office. The Home Office provides the Chairman and the machinery within the Cabinet Office performs the secretariat functions.

SECURITY AND INTELLIGENCE COORDINATOR

The Security and Intelligence Coordinator Permanent Secretary is responsible for enhancing the capacity of the Government to coordinate security, intelligence and consequence management matters, and to research and inform about the risks and major emergencies issues posed by a compromised United Kingdom security.

JOINT INTELLIGENCE COMMITTEE (JIC)



The Joint Intelligence Committee is the principal review committee for the operations of GCHQ and SIS as set out in the *Intelligence Services Act* of 1994. The JIC annually review the operations and budget forecasts of the agencies under the behest of the Intelligence Coordinator. This involves close analysis of the needs of the secret intelligence community, after extensive consultation with various other government departments to consider the finances and resources required. The review is then submitted to the relevant Ministers (Parliament) for final approval.

The requirements are ordered into three priorities, according to the suggested importance to national security and the economic wellbeing of the United Kingdom. They are further subdivided into matters on which secret intelligence is actively being sought, and those individuals and organizations on which intelligence is reported on an opportunity basis. Examples for high priority matters are those issues related to terrorism; the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction; and other threats developing within to the United Kingdom or to integral British territories/interests overseas. The JIC at the end of the year reviews these requirements and then the report is forwarded to Ministers (Parliament). The Security Service has its functions laid out in the *Security Service Acts* of 1989 and 1996, and the Service contributes intelligence for the JIC's own review purposes, like issues related to terrorism.

The Committee remit includes:

- To meet the broad supervisory responsibilities of the Permanent Secretaries' Committee on the Intelligence Services; to give direction to, and to keep under review the activities of the British intelligence community at home and overseas to ensure efficiency, the UK economy and to prompt adaptation to the changing needs of intelligence activities.
- To submit at agreed intervals, for the approval of Ministers, statements of the requirements and priorities of intelligence gathering and other tasks to be conducted by the Intelligence Agencies
- To coordinate, where necessary, interdepartmental planning for intelligence activities
- To monitor and give early warning of the development of direct and indirect foreign threats to British interests: whether political, military or economically based
- To review current available information; to assess events and situations related to external affairs, defence, terrorism, major international criminal activity, scientific, technical or international economic matters
- To keep under review threats to security at home and overseas, and deal with such security problems in providing a coordinated response
- To maintain, supervise and liaison with the Commonwealth and Foreign Intelligence Organizations as appropriate, and consider the extent to which its product can be made available to them

The Committee seeks to bring attention to the Ministers and various Departments, as appropriate, assessments that require changes to operational planning, planning issues and policy inaction. Rarely will such information be indiscriminately divulged, as information on intelligence operation is highly sensitive (and classified). The Chairman is specifically charged with ensuring that the Committee's monitoring activities and strategic warnings are implemented effectively. The Committee may establish permanent and temporary sub-committees and working parties to facilitate its review requirements and to fulfil its responsibilities. The Committee reports to the Secretary of the Cabinet, except in circumstances where the Chiefs of Staff have submitted directly to the Committee for clarification of an issue.

The Committee is headed by the Chairman, the Joint Intelligence Committee and Intelligence Coordinator; the role is currently filled by John Scarlett (*Early 05*).

JOINT TERRORIST ANALYSIS CENTRE (JTAC)



The Joint Terrorist Analysis Centre advises the UK government on terrorist threat levels and other related security issues. It also informs officials located at MI5, MI6, GCHQ and Scotland Yard (SO13). It supplies regular assessments to government departments, major companies, prominent institutions and transport authorities. The reports and the current threat status, is not made available to the general public; although the BIKINI state levels are. There are seven such threat levels.

JTAC has its operational headquarters inside the MI5 HQ at Millbank in Central London. Its ability to assess such risks came into considerable question during the July 7th 2005 London bombings; as it was subsequently revealed that the Centre had reduced the BIKINI rating for the UK from 'Severe General' down to 'Substantial' just days prior to the attack.

The BIKINI Alert system is divided up into different levels:

Red – Information has been received about an attack on a specific target

Amber – There has been specific information received and there is substantial threat to government targets

Black Special – There is increased likelihood of an attack, but no defined target

Black – There has been an assessment made that there is a possibility of an attack, but no defined target

White – There is no information available about a specific target

There is an additional set of BIKINI levels more widely used for public disclosure. The 'Critical' (or 'Imminent') threat level means an attack is expected within two weeks. Following on from this top threat tier is, 'Severe defined' (or 'Severe specific'), 'Severe General', 'Substantial', 'Significant' and 'Moderate'. Finally, there is the lowest level called 'Negligible'.

There is also an additional system called TESSERAL that warns of specific threat of terrorism by surface to air missiles and/or anti-aircraft guns.

These alerts are also posted at the entrances of certain high-threat government buildings to inform workers of the prevailing security and terrorism conditions. The BIKINI levels are identified service by service; it may be possible for different Armed Forces to be at different threat levels. The TESSERAL system operates in a similar way to BIKINI, but the White State isn't used.

MI5 – THE SECURITY SERVICE



Type of Service: Internal Security Agency

Field of Operations: United Kingdom & Northern Ireland

Arrest Powers: None

Executive Powers: No Firearms/Wiretapping (authorization through Home Office)

Annual Funds: £350 million pounds (approximate figure)

Number of Staff: 2,400 individuals (not including agents)

Headquarters: Thames House, situated at Millbank London

Founded: 1st of October 1909

Current Director General: Eliza Manningham Buller

Reports To: Home Secretary *Charles Clarke (Nov2005)* + Joint Intelligence Committee

Technology Availability: Above Average

MI5 Public Assistance Phoneline: 020 7 930 9000



Operational Remit: *The Defense of the Realm against terrorism, espionage and subversion. Recently, since the introduction of the Security Service Act 1996, its role has been expanded into assisting in organized crime, supporting law enforcement activities and assisting in serious crime investigations. It also has primacy in intelligence operations in Northern Ireland*

A Brief History:

- ❑ 1909 March Founded after Prime Minister Asquith instructed the Committee of Imperial Defense to consider the dangers of German espionage on British Ports
- ❑ 1909 October Creation of Secret Service Bureau under auspices of Military Operations Directorate
- ❑ 1910 Control moved to Home Section under control of Captain Vernon Kell (also known as K)
- ❑ 1914 Becomes part of Directorate of Military Intelligence MO5(G) and changes of function to include vetting, security and oversee counter-espionage in Europe
- ❑ 1917 After Bolshevik Coup D'état communism subversion becomes major threat
- ❑ 1926 During Trade Union General Strike, subversion becomes a pressing issue
- ❑ 1940 Captain Kell resigns after hysteria related to undiscovered German spies furore and registry records are destroyed in a major fire
- ❑ 1942 Sir David Petrie is placed under control as first Director General, funds are forthcoming to expand operations
- ❑ 1945 Records show some 200 German spies were discovered during the war years and *double-crossed* (became double-agents)
- ❑ 1948 Vetting system strengthened after *Cambridge Spies* wartime activities

- 1952 Prime Minister, Winston Churchill hands responsibility of the service to the Home Secretary (Home Office - Whitehall) + service becomes a civilian organization (previously under military)
- 1960s-70s Service name blackened by high profile scandals like the Profumo Affair, and allegations that Labour Prime Minister Harold Wilson was actively undermined by some agents
- 1980 Iranian Embassy tests the ability of the service to act in concertina with other services
- 1984 Bombing of Conservative Conference in Brighton serves to highlight the disparities in the direction of dealing with the Northern Ireland problem (MI6 + MI5 fighting for primacy in province + lack of communication exposed)
- 1989 Scandal involving prominent MI5 director John Deverell after breaches of law enforcement agreements between Britain and Germany in operations to establish Irish informers
- 1989 After persistent accusations of the lack of secrecy maintained within the service a Security Commission inquiry takes place, Sir Anthony Duff is installed as new Director General and Security Service Act 1989 outlines new procedures and defines the legal status of the service
- 1991 Irish mortar attacks on Downing Street
- 1992 The Security Service is given primacy in Northern Ireland intelligence gathering, it is seen as compensation for the end of the Cold War, and the Royal Ulster Special Branch feels aggrieved after 110 years experience in dealing with the threat
- 1994 Deverell and 25 other intelligence personnel (including division heads) and 4 RAF crew on the way to a conference via Chinook helicopter at Fort George, Scotland – most major senior staff in Northern Ireland said to have been killed
- 1994 Director General, Stella Rimington disbands G7 responsible for Islamic Terrorists believing the threat over – despite 1988 Lockerbie bombing over Scotland
- 1999 Despite some arrests in Northern Ireland and the end of hostilities in the province, belief is the service is changing far too slowly to deal with immersing threats elsewhere + 50% of operatives are now age 30 years old or less
- 2001 Islamic terrorists actions in America destroy the World Trade Center in New York and parts of the Pentagon via hijack planes (ushers in a new age of terror)
- 2004 Great efforts are being undertaken to expand the base of staff to deal with the Al-Qa'ida threat

STRUCTURE & ORGANIZATION

A Branch – Operational Support

A1A: Technical Operations, covert entry, eavesdropping devices, CCTV coverage

A1B: Obtaining personal data from DHSS, Inland Revenue and Banks

A1C: Running of ‘safe houses’

A1D: Expert locksmiths, safe crackers and carpenters

A1E: Electronic Monitoring (provides tapes to A2A)

A1F: Surveillance of longer-term targets

A2: Technical Back-Up (surveillance devices)

A2A: Transcription Tapes

A2B: Specialist Photographs and electronic experts (liaison with GCHQ)

A3: Technical Support: photography and covert entry

A4: Direct Surveillance (the *Watchers*) + Mobile Surveillance

A5: Scientific Research

B Branch - Human Resources

B1: Protective security for MI5; including security vetting of MIS

B2: Personnel Management

B3: General Management Services

B5: Finance

B7: Training and Recruitment



D Branch – Non-Terrorist Organizations

D1: Vetting of people outside MI5

D4: Counter-Espionage

D5: Agent runners of this branch

D7: Organized Crime

G Branch - International Terrorism

G2P: Counter-Proliferation

G3A: Co-ordination of threat assessments

G3C: Counting Terrorism in other areas not covered elsewhere in G Branch

G6: Agent running for G Branch

G9A: Countering threats from Libya, Iraq, Palestine and Kurdish Groups

G9B: Countering threats from Iranian state territories and Iranian dissident groups

G9C: Countering Islamic extremists



THAMES HOUSE HEADQUARTERS

H Branch – Corporate Affairs

H1 and H2: Liaison with Whitehall, the media and financial institutions. Also, dealing with police, policy, customs, ports and other institutions. It is responsible for management policy; including issues related to instituting information technology

H4: Finance

The following sections also from part of H Branch

R2: Main Registry

R5: Y-boxed files. These are restricted to within the Service

R10: Registry of temporary files

R20: Responsible for administering GCHQ data flows

S Branch - Training & Computer Systems

T Branch – Irish Terrorism

T2A: Irish Republican and Loyalists terrorists on the British mainland

T2B: Liaison with local Special Branch divisions

T2C: Assesses threats of Irish terrorist groups

T2D: Researches Irish Terrorist groups

T2E: Liaison with Metropolitan Police Special Branch and Scotland Yard

T5B: Investigates arms trafficking

T5C: Countering Irish Terrorism in Continental Europe and in the Republic of Ireland

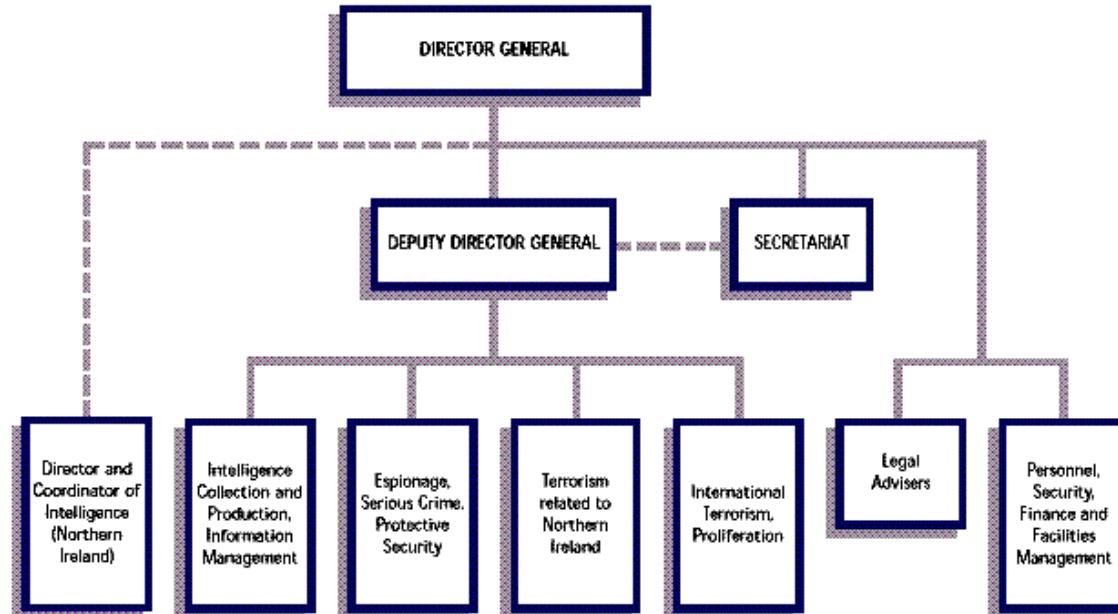
T5D: Countering Irish Terrorism in Rest of the World

T5E: Studies terrorist logistics

T8: Runs agents for T Branch; includes a section based in Northern Ireland

General Intelligence Group (GI) this section is comprised of 300-400 officers, which can be readily assigned to other sections in times of need. Additionally, the Security Service has security and defence liaisons based in Germany, Washington and Cyprus.

Please Note: Since the previous update, there appears to have been a restructure of the service. The following branches appear to have been amalgamated or disappeared completely (C, F, K, S).



The service operates under the statutory authority of the Home Secretary, although it does not form a part of Home office operations. The fundamental basis for the operations of the security service, being both covert and invasive into the lives of some citizens ensures there is continued tension between its operations and public (and government) goodwill.

The 1989 Security Service Act seeks to apply some accountability to its operations. The Director General is appointed in consultation between the Home Secretary and the Prime Minister, the Director is required to submit a report annually. The Director General is also statutorily responsible for all aspects of its operations and efficiency.

The Act provides for an independent tribunal, with support from a Commissioner (a senior judge) to investigate public complaints about the service and its operations. The Commissioner is also responsible for reviewing the issue of Secretary of State Property Warrants under the Intelligence Services Act 1994

The Interception of Communications Act 1985 provides for a tribunal, supported by the Commissioner (a senior judge) to review the issuing of interception warrants by the Secretary of State (Home Secretary).

The service's performance, plans and priorities are scrutinized by a senior Whitehall committee known as Security Service Priorities and Performance or SO(SSPP), which reports to Cabinet Ministers

The Director General has a Deputy who is responsible for overseeing intelligence operations. There are five different branches, headed by a Director – three deal with intelligence investigations and advising protective measures to counter threats, whilst two others are responsible for intelligence collection, production and information management; plus personnel, security finance and facilities management. There is also a department devoted to Legal Advisers. There is also a relatively new department devoted to Northern Ireland intelligence, who reports to both the Director General and Secretary of State for Northern Ireland.

The Director General, Deputy Director General, the Directors and Legal Advisers all regularly meet as the Management Board of the Service to discuss strategic planning, policy and priorities. The service currently employs around 2,400 people; most of them are based in the headquarters at Thames House on the embankment, London.

The Home Secretary receives briefings on threats to national security from the Director General's office daily. The briefings are also made available to the Prime Minister's Office and MPs. The Home Secretary personally authorizes all warrants allowing for the interception of letters, phonecalls and other media, or to interfere with property.

The Intelligence and Security Committee established under the auspices of the Intelligence Services Act 1994 comprises of nine parliamentarians (drawn from both the House of Commons + House of Lords). The committee is appointed by the Prime Minister and makes an annual report (who will submit it to parliament, barring exclusions made on security grounds).

The Security Service Tribunal investigates complaints about the Service made by the public. The tribunal is made up of 3 senior members of the legal profession, appointed by the Royal Warrant. The Tribunal and Commissioner are both independent of the Government. The service and staff are under a legal duty to hand over any records considered necessary to investigate the case; service personnel can also be interviewed. Grounds are established for unlawful records to be destroyed and the complainant compensated.

The Security Service Commissioner has the additional capacity to investigate cases where although the complaint isn't upheld, s/he believes the service has acted unreasonably.

The IOCA Tribunal and Commissioner act in a similar manner to other agencies like HM Customs and Excise. The Tribunal can additionally quash an ongoing warrant and destroy copies on intercepted communications.

RECENT HISTORY

The service, after the collapse of the Soviet Union, has had to redefine its role in recent years. After Government moves to put all of the intelligence services on a statutory footing in the late 1980s, a gradual shift has occurred in its remit. The first major change was that the service took primacy in Northern Ireland in relation to terrorism. This role was previously under taken by Special Branch (Royal Ulster Constabulary and their British mainland counterparts). This decision caused a great deal of acrimony amongst the rival organizations, especially between those members based in Northern Ireland. A great deal of expertise was lost during the transition period, with some members of Special Branch indignant and incredulous at the decision and refused to pass on relevant information, or share their knowledge. During the period of 1992 until 1999 there were only 21 convictions for terrorist-related offences in the United Kingdom.

Some commentators have suggested that the expertise of MI5 in the area of high technology, especially in the area of surveillance and covert entry, was a decisive reason why paramilitary groups decided to participate in the Northern Ireland peace process. The Security Service has up until now concentrated solely upon republican paramilitary groups; after government announcements in March 2005, it will have primacy in all security intelligence work in Northern Ireland from 2007. As such, Loyalist groups like the UDA, UVF and LVF will be targeted in the future.

In 1996, new legislation formalized another extension of the Security Service's statutory remit; the service now is compelled to assist law enforcement agencies in their work against serious crime. This new role caused a deal of controversy with civil rights activists concerned that the service might be turning into a quasi-'secret-police' functionary: the service being seen to be moving into the domain of police operations that may lead to the abuse of their powers and privilege. The Security Service has listened to such concerns and remains a reactive force in such matters, not proactively self-tasking. With the continued force on Islamic militants, it is assumed this task will eventually be passed back to Special Branch.

As a consequence of the changes in remit to assist in serious crimes, organized crime and the rise of Islamic fundamentalism within the United Kingdom; there is a greater need for both the Security Service (Intelligence) and Special Branch (Powers of Arrest) to work more effectively together. As such, the disputes of the early 1990s have generally been set to one side, to achieve the greater goal of internal security for Britain. Actions like the Underground terrorist bombings of 7th of July, 2005 (and the attempted repeat two-weeks later) have galvanized all arms of protective security services in Britain; they have all come to accept that home-grown terrorism is here to stay. With the rising number of suspected terrorists being entertained at Her Majesty's pleasure at HM Belmarsh Prison (London), it appears that the *new game* has been enjoined.

THE ROLE OF THE SERVICE CAN BE BROKEN DOWN INTO 4 AREAS

Investigate – to obtain, collate, analyze and assess intelligence about threats

Counter – to act, enable others and counter specific threats

Advise – to keep Government (and others) informed, advise appropriate responses and suggest internal security measures

Assist – to provide assistance to other agencies, departments and organizations.

Executive Powers: The civil servants of the service have no legal right to carry firearms, or to arrest suspects. This legal delineation under law seeks to diminish the powers invested in an MI5 officer, who may be tempted to transgress due process (as they have relative freedoms as intelligence operatives beyond the scope of police officers). The Security Service works closely with the Special Branch Units of all 55 UK based Police Services in arresting individuals.

Warrants: The Home Secretary will only issue warrants for wiretapping or interception of mail or clandestine searches if the service can prove that national security is endangered, the action will gain substantive information and the operation cannot be reasonably achieved any other way. A formal written submission is needed under the Interception of Communications Act 1985 (IOCA).

Intelligence as Evidence/Law of Disclosure: In line with the widening remit of helping out police services with terrorism and serious crimes, provisions have been made under law for the disclosure of evidence by Security Service personnel. The Criminal Procedure and Investigations Act of 1996 recognizes that the duty of disclosure must accommodate the need to protect sensitive information (that might damage national security). Yet, it also makes clear that intelligence investigations should have the same duty of care to stay within the law in terms of their investigations.

Files: The registry is kept under tight controls, only certain review bodies have access to content in the review of complaints about the security services operations. There are currently 440,000 files in the registry established since 1909. 75,000 have never been investigated (only opened due to protective security advice), which leaves around 290,000. 270,000 have been closed (of which 40,000 have been converted to microfilm). This leaves 20,000 active files of which (13,000 are UK citizens + 7,000 are foreign nationals such as spies or terrorist members). Files are kept for a non-specified length of time (as the Security Service Tribunal might require records for various complaints). However, the process of removing old files from WWI has taken place, the Public Record Office has taken possession of a large batch of these. This process has been accelerated after the end of the Cold War.

Threats: The major threat pertinent to the UK at the moment is the activities of Islamic extremist organizations, such as Al-Qa'ida. Under the sponsorship of Osama Bin Laden a number of terrorist activities have been perpetrated against Western targets. With a large population of Muslims within the London and Birmingham area, a great deal of time is currently being devoted to becoming aware of any possible provocative actions made by the service that might inspire a new breed of homegrown terrorists.

Northern Ireland despite being relatively quiet after the signing of peace agreements in the late 90s, is still a major area of operational concern. Rogue elements in the Republican cause (the Provisional IRA, Continuity IRA and Irish National Liberation Army) continue to actively pursue aborting the fragile peace process, and the Security Service knows there may be yet more bloodshed to be played out on the streets of Northern Ireland.

The Russian Mafia and many other organized crime organizations still look toward the United Kingdom as a place to smuggle weapons, drugs and people for profit. It is of special concern that many organized crime activities these days seem to be linked to terrorist causes. Irish sympathizers for instance, have sought to import drugs from South America to add cash to their cause.

Another major concern is the availability of enriched uranium and weapons of the former Soviet Union on world black-markets. It is considered a viable threat to the world's major population centers, that eventually a nuclear device may be triggered by a terrorist group in a place such as London.

Staff: There are currently estimated to be around 2,400 full time staff employed by the Security Service of roughly equal proportions of males to females, around 50% of which are under the age of 30. Around 150 individuals at any one time are seconded or attached to other similar departments and agencies. The breadth of staff roles include management, clerical staff, lawyers, linguists, computer experts, communication specialists, scientists, technical staff, building maintenance staff, catering staff, printers, drivers, mechanics and porters. Of course, there are the usual *tradecraft* experts. A number of specialists are recruited straight from industry or specialist research activities.

Recruitment of Staff: The service seeks to mainly recruit specialists, graduates and school leavers into its programs. All candidates are vetted by the service (Developed Vetting DV process) to the highest level of clearance. Since 1997 the service has actively advertised for new recruits and specialists, candidates applying for the Civil Service Fast Stream programs can nominate the service as their preferred department.

Training: The service seeks to maintain training opportunities for all staff. There is a structured induction training process and mentoring programs. There are additional programs available to develop specific skills for specific posts. The Graduate Scheme for intelligence officer's lasts over an intensive six-month period (including spells of training and work experience) – this period is provisional employment. The opportunity exists to study for relevant external qualifications, as well.

Staff Forum: A Staff Forum of elected representatives from across the service, serves as a channel of communication for staff issues such as pay and employment conditions. They regularly hold formal meetings and representatives are available to discuss employment issues privately.

The Staff Counselor: All members of the Security Service (and SIS & GCHQ) have access to an external Staff Counselor. Due to the nature of their work, such a service guarantees confidentiality from their employer, and maintains the secrecy of their work. A report is sent annually to the Prime Minister and relevant Secretaries of State detailing any particular areas of concern and the levels of stress members of staff have been exposed to.

Equal Opportunities: The service has in place policies and staff to maintain recruitment and promotions adhere to selections based on merit.

Anonymity of Staff: Other than the public announcement of the Director General (since 1992), the Service seeks to maintain the secrecy of all staff. Due to the nature of their work, staff could face personal threat if their names were to be put into the public domain. Even long after an intelligence officer has left the field of operations, exposure might endanger the lives of informants, other officers and threaten ongoing investigations. In criminal trials Security Service staff give evidence anonymously, behind protective screens. Indeed, there is even reluctance from staff to be subjected to this degree of exposure, unless their appearance as a witness is absolutely necessary (under cross-examination they may inadvertently give up operation techniques or other vital information).

Note: This practice is similar to precautions taken by undercover detectives or specialist police officers.

Budget: The services budget paid from the Single Intelligence Vote (SIV) each year, this provision is set aside for the purposes of the three UK intelligence agencies (MI5, MI6 & GCHQ), the proportion given to each agency is determined by Ministers (usually in relation to Joint Intelligence Committee (JIC) recommendations). However, in recent years close scrutiny is paid to making the service run cost-effectively.

Permanent Secretaries' Committee on the Intelligence Services (PSIS): Ultimately, the arbiter of the SIV package every year is a Committee chaired by the Cabinet Secretary, containing members of the Permanent Secretaries (including the Home Office, Foreign and Commonwealth Office, Ministry of Defense and Treasury). They scrutinize the annual budgets of all three services, expenditure forecasts, plans and intelligence requirements.

National Audit Office (NAO): This government department audits expenditure to ensure that the Service keeps in line with forecasts, the accounts are certified by the Controller and Auditor General.

Oxbridge Gentlemen's Club: In recent years the service has sought to remove the image of Intelligence Officers being recruited solely from the two most prestigious Universities in the United Kingdom (Oxford & Cambridge). In 1997 the Service sought to advertise for new recruits through major UK newspapers. Over the past 20 years efforts have been made to change the image, age and ethnicity of the service – especially necessary with the changing nature of the threats to Western countries. The hard drinking image of old is also a bit of a misnomer, despite such activities being synonymous with such high pressure jobs, efforts have been made to institute new levels of fitness amongst officers and ancillary staff.

Paperwork: Another aspect regularly mentioned about working at the Security Service is the overzealous nature of the paperwork. Although efforts have been made to speed up some aspects of service procedure by computerization, a lot of work is still necessarily committed to paper – it is often crucial in such roles to keep paperwork up-to-date and accessible.

What's in a Name? The service has a number of colloquial names it is alternatively known by; the official name is the Security Service is probably less well known than its World War II military intelligence designation of MI5. It is also known by the shortened version of simply *five*. Another colloquial name for the service is the *Box*, this is mainly used by the government community, as the official wartime address of the service was PO Box 500 (current address is now PO Box 3255, London SW1P 1AE).

Games Master Challenges for running MI5 Agents: The nature of the service restricts the rights to arrest and to carry firearms, it may hamper opportunities for *closure* in operations. This may be obviated somewhat by having the players make a second Special Branch officer to close in and make the arrests. A further possibility is to allow for a catastrophic event similar to 9/11 to take place, and have emergency powers enacted by Parliament to give Executive Powers to MI5 operatives, working in the area of Counter-Terrorism.

GCHQ – GOVERNMENT COMMUNICATIONS HEAD-QUARTERS



Type of Service: Signals Intelligence

Field of Operations: Worldwide

Arrest Powers: N/A

Executive Powers: Wiretap powers within UK (*warrants required from Home Secretary*)

Annual Funds: £350 million pounds (approximate figure)

Number of Staff: 5,500 (approximate figure)

Headquarters: Benhall, Cheltenham - Gloucestershire England

Founded: 1st of October 1909

Current Director: Mr. David Pepper (Nov 05)

Reports To: Foreign & Commonwealth Secretary Jack Straw (Nov 05) + Joint Intelligence Committee

Technology Availability: Above Average



Operational Remit: Is “to obtain and provide information relating to the actions or intentions of persons outside the British Islands”. To act in the interests of security, defense, foreign and economic policies within the framework set out by the Joint Intelligence Committee (JIC) and approved by ministers. The Intelligence Service Act 1994 details the specific interpretations of this remit

A Brief History:

- ❑ 1919 The Government Code & Cipher School (GC&CS) was formed on the 24 October – it merged the existing Naval Intelligence Department 25 Room 40 and the War Offices MI-1B code-breaking service - under the civil administration of the Admiralty at Watergate House
- ❑ 1920 British Army form the Royal Corps of Signals of the 5th August providing the ‘army chain’ link in signal intelligence – vital in Egypt and India
- ❑ 1922 In April the Foreign Office took over responsibility for GC&CS and placed it under the operational control of SIS (MI6). ‘C’ became the Director of GC&CS, whilst day-to-day activity was placed under the direct control of the Deputy Director
- ❑ 1924 Admiralty establishes Naval Section in GC&CS operations
- ❑ 1928 Y-committee was formed to co-ordinate and develop a chain of worldwide radio intercept bases
- ❑ 1930 Army establishes Army Section in GC&CS operations
- ❑ 1932 Admiralty opens NID-9 section to coordinate naval intercept stations
- ❑ 1934 Air Ministry opens its own AI-4 section
- ❑ 1936 Air Ministry establishes its own full section
- ❑ 1938 German intercept section opened in May to deal with impending WWII threat
- ❑ 1939 On the 1st of August service sections moved to Bletchley Park, in Buckinghamshire. It was thought the capital would be quickly overwhelmed if war was declared, the site was to become the operational head-quarters, the Diplomatic and Commercial sections followed on 15th August (also known as Station X, BP and even H.M.S Pembroke-V)
- ❑ 1940 Commercial section returned to London in April
- ❑ 1940-41 Discontent amongst newly recruited academics causes minor rebellion against the highly bureaucratic operations and unnecessary personal restrictions at Bletchley – finally resolved after a note was forwarded to Churchill, the Prime Minister issues ‘action this day’ edict and restrictions are eased. Gradually the vital ENIGMA intercepts increase with the development of COLOSSUS
- ❑ 1942 In January the joint Committee of Control (made up of 2 SIS and 2 CC&CS officers) was scrapped and GC&CS was split into two separate sections following recommendations of a former Deputy Director of Military Intelligence. The Diplomatic and Commercial section would operate from 7-9 Berkeley Street in London under the Deputy Director (C), and the Service sections would remain at Bletchley under the other Deputy Director (S)
- ❑ 1944 In August the old HQ (a large private house) on the corner of Queen’s Gate and Cromwell Road was destroyed by a Nazi V-1 bomber
- ❑ 1945 New purpose-built facilities in Canon’s Corner in Stanmore and Lime Grove in Eastcote, London
- ❑ 1945 Major restructure of service after war in anticipation of conflict with the Soviet Union. RSS was absorbed and within the year the service had gained independence from SIS (MI6) – under control of the Foreign Office
- ❑ 1946 The service is officially renamed GCHQ, a name that had been unofficially used since 1942
- ❑ 1946 UKUSA Agreement Treaty signed, a treaty to share signal intelligence between the USA and UK (later additionally Australia, Canada and New Zealand)
- ❑ 1946 GCHQ forms the Composite Signals Organization (CSO) to run its civilian network of intercept stations – and would gradually take control of the various armed forces networks (some exceptions remained until the Ministry of Defense formed in 1963-64)
- ❑ 1952 GCHQ moves operations to Oakley in Cheltenham, transfers of the Joint Technical Language Service and Communications Security from other government sectors are housed in the expanded Benhall site in Cheltenham
- ❑ 1998 Construction of the new purposed built ‘bagel’ shaped HQ at Benhall started
- ❑ 2005 Move to new hi-tech site schedule for completion, although the Oakley site will still be utilized

STRUCTURE & ORGANIZATION

The current structure of GCHQ has two main directorates:

DIRECTORATE OF ORGANIZATION AND ESTABLISHMENT

C	Overseas Staff
E	Personnel
F	Finance & Supply
G	Management & General
M	Mechanical Engineering
Q	Technical
R	Security

DIRECTORATE OF SIGINT

H	Crypt analysis
J	Special SIGINT
K	General SIGINT
S/T	Statistical Operations
W	Search Technology
X	Computer Services
Z	Liaison



HEADQUARTERS AT BENHALL, CHELTENHAM

Additional smaller directorates include:

Directorate of Communications & CESG Communications Security (better known as COMSEC)

Directorate of SIGINT Plans

JSRU Joint Speech Research Unit

Another special unit was implemented in the late 1980s known as K20 to monitor the telephone calls of perceived radical groups and individuals within the UK – which passes its information on to the JIC and the Cabinet Office

GCHQ controls the operations of the following organizations:

COMPOSITE SIGNALS ORGANIZATION

Although primarily setup to capture all SIGINT opportunities during the Second World War (private, public and governmental), the structure remains to coordinate economic espionage, to liaison with British industry and to coordinate with allies in the UKUSA signals intelligence agreement. The task of intercepting signals intelligence from radars and other sources is part of this organization's remit. As such, most of the British ECHELON stations are operated by the CSO, providing a suitable buffer for the government to demonstrate that a government department (aka GCHQ) isn't, at least directly, spying upon its own citizens. The CSO also helps to organize and source any SIGINT intercepts provided by the Ministry of Defence (MoD).

COMMUNICATIONS ELECTRONICS SECURITY GROUP

The CESG group was setup to provide assistance to other government departments, armed forces and commercial interests in the area of telecommunications and information technology systems security. The CESG is the National Authority for the official use of cryptography and the National Technical Authority for information technology in general. Although smaller government departments are at liberty to get their communications security information elsewhere, it is generally accepted that they will still need to be seen to comply with the national standards and policies as controlled by the CESG. The CESG now operates on a cost-recovery basis for their technical advice, although the standards and policies are provided free of charge.

The CESG doesn't manufacture security equipment, being a technical authority for information assurance, but works with industry to ensure the availability of suitable products and services. The CESG can fund research into areas of interest, for example the funding of the Centre for Quantum Computing at Oxford University.

OPERATIONS

Many of the brightest in the field of telecommunications and electronics find their way to employment at CGHQ. It is generally acknowledged that the work of CGHQ makes it one of the premier signals intelligence agencies around the world. The reputation has been further enhanced by the massive injection of money provided by the government, to construct their new purpose built HQ at Cheltenham in Gloucestershire.

Figures suggest that CGHQ provides up to 70% of all intelligence gathered in the UK. Being a senior partner in the UKUSA agreement, it is thought to provide CGHQ with a great deal of bargaining power in terms of gaining information derived from ECHELON intercepts. The use of *System X* by British Telecom provides CGHQ with almost unlimited access to British telecommunications, if not illegitimately within its demographic boundaries, through information swapping opportunities with their ECHELON partners. Although warrants are still required before active intercepts of personal communications are undertaken, the existence and activities of K20 suggest that a far more aggressive stance has been undertaken by the government in the area of the acquisition of personal information.

Although the traditional rivalry between MI6 and MI5 continues to cause problems in information flow, there is a general level of acceptance that CGHQ intercepts are an important source of information. CGHQ is accountable for its expenditure in the same way as these other agencies, and has to justify its expenses each year to the (JIC) Joint Intelligence Committee.

MI6 – SECRET INTELLIGENCE SERVICE AKA S.I.S



Type of Service: External Spy Agency

Field of Operations: Worldwide

Arrest Powers: N/A

Executive Powers: Firearms/Assassinations/Intelligence Gathering (authorization through Foreign Office)

Annual Funds: £350 million pounds (approximate figure)

Number of Staff: 2,500 (not including agents)

Headquarters: Vauxhall Cross, 85 Albert Embankment, London (since 1995)

Founded: **1st of October 1909**

Current Chief: Mr. Douglas Eivind Hall (Nov 05)

Reports To: Foreign & Commonwealth Secretary Jack Straw (Nov 05) + Joint Intelligence Committee

Technology Availability: **Above Average**



Operational Remit: Is “to obtain and provide information relating to the actions or intentions of persons outside the British Islands”. To act in the interests of security, defense, foreign and economic policies within the framework set out by the Joint Intelligence Committee (JIC) and approved by ministers. The Intelligence Service Act 1994 details the specific interpretations of this remit

A Brief History:

- ❑ 1909 Established by British Admiralty and its Naval Intelligence Department as the Secret Service Bureau (after recommendation by the Committee for Imperial Defense)
- ❑ 1910 Divided into 2 sections, the first MO5 as a Home Section under the War Office (eventually becoming MI5), the other MO6 as the Foreign Section under the Navy – commanded by Naval officer, Captain Mansfield Cumming (all directors becoming known by the ‘C’ prefix), soon becoming known as the Secret Service
- ❑ 1916 Creation of the Directorate of Military Intelligence (MO6 reassigned as M1-1C)
- ❑ 1817 Russian Revolution provides first operational challenge for the service, although their actions are generally perceived as a gallant failure, it doesn’t stop the service for gaining a reputation as a dangerous and efficient intelligence service
- ❑ 1919 Restructuring within intelligence services sees the creation of the Government Code & Cipher School (a combination of the Admiralty and War Office signal intelligence divisions)
- ❑ 1921 GC&S becomes a department of the newly renamed Secret Intelligence Service, now controlled by Foreign Office
- ❑ 1920-30s Service focuses on the growing Communist threat and Japanese militarism. A second more secret section is formed by Claude Dansey (Z section) – a more secret, permanent network than uses the usual diplomatic covers (e.g. passport control officers, attachés or journalists)
- ❑ 1939 in Venlo in the Netherlands several years of operations were compromised when the heads of these two informal groupings were ordered to meet the representative of an anti-Nazi group. The Germans turned out to be Abwehr officers who captured the SIS officers and tortured them
- ❑ 1940 After the German invasion of France and European Low Countries, SIS didn’t have a single valuable source of reliable information, speculation suggests the service was kept from being disbanded because of access to Enigma intercepts and the friendship between Stewart Menzies (head of SIS) and Prime Minister Churchill
- ❑ 1946 ‘C’ Stewart Menzies lobbies hard for the Labour Government to disband SOE (Special Operations Executive) and transfer its best staff to SIS (removing any rival in foreign operations)
- ❑ 1946 During reorganization the GC&CS becomes a separate organization
- ❑ 1940-50s Spy scandals (Philby, Broome-White, Ellis et al) result in a tarnished image for the service
- ❑ 1973 The new CCS, Sir Maurice Oldfield introduces new policies to restrict errant activities and allow for greater governmental control, there is also a widening of operational scope to take into account greater demand for Commercial Intelligence to service the newly formed government organization (O.E.I.C) Overseas Economic Intelligence Committee
- ❑ Early 1970s SIS becomes embroiled in Northern Ireland issues, bombings and politics, a position that MI5 lobbies hard to take on the primacy for in 1973

- ❑ 1972 The Littlejohn scandal develops, two brothers working for MI6 are arrested for unlawful activities including bank-robberies. They also claimed to have been given a list of IRA members to assassinate – SIS deny involvement (suspected as dirty-tricks plot by MI5 to gain primacy in NI)
- ❑ Late 1970s Most MI6 agents in the field in Northern Ireland are replaced by RUC Special Branch officers (Royal Ulster Constabulary) or MI5 officers – although MI6 retained offices in Stormont
- ❑ 1981 Senior SIS officer, Michael Oatley helps broker peace deals between the Thatcher government and Irish Republican representatives over the hunger-strikes by captured IRA operatives (without authorization from his SIS or Northern Ireland Office Heads). Later, Frank Steele (SIS officer) would conduct dialogue with Sinn Fein head, Gerry Adams. The service continued to assist in discussions brokering arms decommissioning and ensuring a cease fire
- ❑ 1980-90s After successful operations during the Falklands War, Gulf War and Balkans conflicts the reputation of the service has been restored and during the 80s it becomes an officially recognized (public acknowledged) functionary of the British Government
- ❑ 1994 *Intelligence Service Act* clearly defines SIS role and sets limitations on operations
- ❑ 1995 Moved into new Headquarters at Vauxhall Cross, London
- ❑ 2001 Many changes occur to the service *modus operandi* in the wake of September 11 attacks on New York, funding levels are doubled over the subsequent years to meet the growing Islamic fundamentalist threat
- ❑ 2004 In May, John Scarlett named new head of MI6
- ❑ 2005 There is to be a rapid expansion of staff and budgets over the next three years (up to 3000 staff + £550 million)
- ❑ 2005 Launch of a MI6 recruitment web-site to dispel the image of only targeting Oxbridge graduates

RECENT HISTORY

End of the Cold War

As with its sister service, the Security Service (MI5), the end of the Cold War presented a series of serious challenges to the continued operation of SIS. The Soviet Bloc's capabilities could substantively be shown to present a clear-and-present danger to the United Kingdom. The lion's share of resources committed to SIS operations over the years was justifiably used to fight the spread of Communist ideology, influence and armed forces around the world. As such, the main justification for retaining its funding levels became perversely maintaining the stability of the weakened, but still nuclear-capable, Russian Federation and its former territories.

The change in emphasis also represented a change from the reliance upon geographic intelligence to functional intelligence. The counter-proliferation threat needed human intelligence on the ground, rather than satellites circling in the sky. The shift meant a greater role for its *Production and Targeting* and *Counter-Proliferation* sections. This change in emphasis had already started after the discovery that Pakistan was actively seeking out intelligence on nuclear-weapons production in the early 1970s.

Open Government

In the early 1990s the service sought to embrace a more open policy towards the media and general public. The role of 'public affairs' fell into the brief of the Director of Counter-Intelligence and Security (renamed the Director of Security and Public Affairs). These policies were instituted by then Director, Sir Collin McColl, they were instituted in line with general government initiative of 1993 pertaining to 'open government'. Subsequently, this policy extended towards the creation of the 1994 Intelligence Services Act. This Act sought to place SIS (and MI5 & GCHQ) on a statutory footing. The Act set limitations and requirements upon each service: as well as specific procedural requirements pertaining to Authorization for operations and Warrants. These procedures had already been in place since at least 1953 (for Authorizations) and 1985 (the Interception of Communications Act) for Warrants. Under this Act, SIS activities are subject to oversight by the Parliament's Intelligence and Security Committee. This particular requirement, it is said, has brought a whole new level of accountability to SIS operations. In the past it was plausible for gross oversights to go unpunished; now it less likely for errant operations to get the backing from accountable superiors.

Cost Cutting

During the mid-1990s the British intelligence community was subject to a comprehensive costing review by the Government; as part of this process SIS had its resources cut back by 25% (senior management was reduced by 40%). Despite efforts to stave off such cut backs in the wake of the Soviet Bloc collapse, the service was required to undertake a severe culling process. Some intelligence analysts believe such undertakings by the United Kingdom and United States governments at this time directly led to the oversights in identifying the rise of Islamic fundamentalism in the Middle East. It is true that one consequence of such cut backs in MI6 was to remove Middle-Eastern affairs as a focus for intelligence gathering operations. Invariably, a great number of experienced MI6 officers took this government reappraisal of intelligence priorities as a good time to leave the service and take high-paying jobs in the thriving private security industry.

As a direct consequence of the cut backs the *Requirements Division* was deprived of representation on the Board of Directors. As this time the Middle East and Africa Controllerates were pared back and amalgamated. The findings of Lord Butler of Brockwell's Review of Weapons of Mass Destruction held that the reduction in the *Requirements Divisions* had direct consequences with regards to estimating the Iraq's non-conventional weapons programme (nuclear-weapons), and the subsequent invasion of Iraq in 2003.

Vauxhall Cross: Out of the Shadows

The move into the luxurious, new SIS Headquarters at Vauxhall Cross, London in 1995 was seen by many as intriguing and perplexing: the building is in a prominent London location, this being curiously at odds with the image of a *secretive* organization. The building was designed by Terry Farrell. It finally cost the taxpayers in the vicinity of £152.6 million to complete. In September the 20th 2000, the building was attacked by a Russian-built Mark 22 anti-tank missile, later, the Anti-Terrorist Branch of the Metropolitan Police attributed responsibility for the attack to the *Real IRA*.



Guantanamo & Beyond

The role of SIS in the new millennia is invariably tied to the fates of its allies. The United States has taken the lead role in the *War on Terrorism*, and with the raft of resources at its disposal rarely needs to rely upon allies like SIS. However, with Islamic terrorism fast becoming a global issue, it is important that information is shared comprehensively between friendly powers. As such, the role of the SIS in some senses has been, at least in the past few years, to act as liaison staff between the UK and USA governments. Despite the United States holding innumerable suspected terrorist in Guantanamo Bay (Cuba), it is important that other sources of intelligence are readily available to compare and contrast with home-grown intelligence.

STRUCTURE & ORGANIZATION

The last major restructuring of the service occurred in 2001:

- Directorate of Operations with a London Station
- Middle East & Africa
- Far East & Western Hemisphere
- Eastern Europe
- Global Tasks (created 1994 to tackle organized crime and narcotics)
- Operational Support (created 1994 to support deep cover or covert operations)

SELECTION

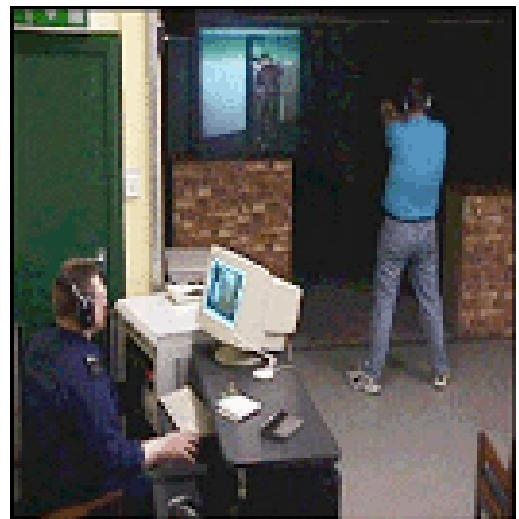
An individual is likely to have been recruited in one of two ways...

Some individuals are pro-actively sourced by the service through their established relations with intermediaries at major universities. Some lecturer's lookout of potential *firsts* (first class results) amongst students who they feel might suit the working environment of MI6. The students are usually drawn from across the wide spectrum of sciences, languages, commerce and humanities. After such feedback, the individual will then be approached by an officer and taken for an informal lunch. Assuming the officer feels the individual is ready for service, or indeed committed to the task, a semi-retired officer will vet (E.P.V) the individual. Under a false name the officer will interview referees, undertake credit checks and confirm all relevant details. The individual will finally be asked to take a fast-tracked Civil Service Selection Exam.

The other type of selection, is the formal approach. Individuals who take formal entry tests and are put through the vetting process. Often these individuals have worked in other areas of the public service and desire a little more excitement and, of course, free travel. In recent years, the service has sought to attract a more diverse intake of employees by advertising positions in newspapers and developing an employment information web-site.

TRAINING

The service has a number of training facilities, one in located at Borough High Street in Southwark, London. It is identified as a spy training school. The main training center, however, is Fort Monckton, an old Napoleonic era fort on the South Coast, located at Gosport in Hampshire. In recent years the service has sought to increase its ability to undertake special operations activities. The process of change has presumably been facilitated by assistance from the Department of Defense; SIS has likely called upon the MoD's expertise and use of their training facilities.



The standard recruit is likely to have completed 3 to 4 years of a University degree or have the equivalent in specialist technical trade experience. The main classes of recruits include Operational Graduate Trainees, Specialist Analysts, Technical Specialists, Scientific Specialists, Administration Staff, Linguist Experts and Management Professionals.

Not a lot is revealed about the actual training of MI6 intelligence officers (the service still maintains a great deal of secrecy); however, educated guesses can be made from the activities of other intelligence services around the world (and MI5). The normal trainee can expect an initial period of selection (2 weeks), a period of intensive training in tradecraft (3 months), and finally, they may be seconded to a division for probationary field training (6-12 months). It is known that firearms-training takes place at Fort Monckton. Officers will also be taught to use various ciphers like BOOK; special emphasis is given to learning how to use the in-house computers systems (and the in-house style of writing reports).

The Staff Counselor: All members of the Secret Intelligence Service (and MI5 & CGHQ) have access to an external Staff Counselor. Due to the nature of their work, such a service guarantees confidentiality from their employer, and maintains the secrecy of their work. A report is sent annually to the Prime Minister and relevant Secretaries of State detailing any particular areas of concern and the levels of stress members of staff have been exposed to.

Recreation: The Vauxhall Cross headquarters offers a number of facilities including squash courts, basketball courts, a gym, a restaurant, coffee lounge and bar. Due to the nature of intelligence services, every effort is made to provide staff with fraternity *within* the service. This way, the individual is thought to be less likely to reveal information to outsiders of the intelligence hub.

The Oxbridge Club: Despite recent moves to recruit from the burgeoning Diaspora of races inhabiting Britain today, the overwhelming majority of current staff have been recruited from the two rarified establishment universities, being Oxford and Cambridge – or recruited by the old boy alumni network. With a dramatic 50% increase in staff expected from 2005 to 2008, it is expected that the cloistered world of MI6 operations might be in for an upheaval. The main focus of this recruitment drive is to find suitable graduates of an Asian and African ethnicity, who are familiar with Islamic lore and familiar with Arabic languages.

Ciphers & Code Words: Due to the clandestine nature of the service, a number of different forms of encryption are regularly taught. NOREEN is an ‘off-line’ form of encryption, that is, a form of encryption used before the use of a cipher machine or computer. HORA and TRUNCHEON are indicative of online forms of encryption used with cipher machines (for use in forwarding telegrams of digital text).

A number of code words are used to designate the inclusion or exclusion of individuals from having access to sensitive MI6 information. The following have been identified:

ACTOR: The designation of the SIS Headquarters

UK EYES ALPHA: Warning not to show info to foreign agents/agencies – intended for home intelligence, armed forces or Whitehall staff only

UK EYES BRAVO: As above, but also excludes the Northern Ireland Office and LIST X firms and certain US, Australian, New Zealand and Canadian intelligence personnel liaisoning with the Joint Intelligence Committee (JIC)

LIST X: Private firms engaged in the production of sensitive equipment

ECLIPSE: Material not to be shown to Americans

LOCSEN: Deprives local intelligence officials and agencies of information

DEDIP or DESDEN: For attention of the named officers, or at specified times

DEYOU: Particularly sensitive information about a fellow officer or operation

Personal Security: All efforts are made to keep communications secure, each officer being taught to follow strict procedures in the line of duty. Failure to meet up to these standards means security points are lost. If an officer racks up 160 points over a three year period (80 points deducted for a Top Secret breach), he may have his security clearance withdrawn and be instantly dismissed.

Measures taught to keep communications secure include; the use of specially developed red security tape that leaves signs of tampering on envelopes and boxes. Officers are taught to keep a classified record of their use of files and the current location thereof. They are informed that photocopiers leave telltale signs of where the document has been copied, therefore, to avoid making unwarranted copies. That there exists photographic and laser techniques to read the inside of mail without leaving marks. Each officer has their own dual-combination safe (protected from penetration by x-rays, the locks collapse internally if poorly picked and pressure pads hold a glass panel in place that shatters if force is applied – releasing a spring loaded bolt that prevents opening).

Vauxhall Cross Security: Access to the headquarters is by swipe card and pin number (CCTV obviously abounds the perimeter). The interior of the building is quite bare, with maze-like air-conditioned corridors; the only help being signs with departmental acronyms on the doors. As this is a major station, *Category-A* post (like Moscow or Beijing), various additional security measures are in place including; High Potential Physical Threat measures (HPT), sophisticated Hostile Intelligence Services (HIS). These measures are generally facilitated by the Technical Security Department (TSD) based at Hanslope Park, Milton Keynes and the Headquarters own in-house technical department. They ensure the building is secured from High-Tech Attack (HTA); generally composing of triple glazing on windows to stop RF scanning and laser microphones, and the mainframe and cipher communications areas are housed in modular shielded rooms.

Day-To-Day Working Environment: The glamorous image associated with spy work is actually a little bit of a misnomer, only half of the intelligence officers are stationed in the field at any one time. For those back home their days are generally spent processing information, collating files, writing up field reports, planning operations, liaising with foreign intelligence agencies and networks: but more specifically supporting their colleagues in the field. In 1995 over £200 million was spent creating a desktop network called Automatic Telegram Handling System (ATHS/OATS) which provides access to all reports and databases (with proper clearance). It is suspected that a heavily modified variant is still in use today.

Those officers in the field generally have little choice of location; turning down a posting could mean jeopardizing future promotion prospects. They will generally be attached to an embassy. All stations are ranked according to risk:

Examples:

Category A: Yugoslavia, Algeria, South Korea (high threat)

Category B: Washington, New York,

Category C: Major European Countries

Category D: Commonwealth Countries (minimal threat)

In countries like the United States, the individuals are perceived as working under 'light' diplomatic cover. That is, it is understood that allies are allowed *some* latitude in gathering intelligence information. The station will generally comprise of a Head (generally designated a Counsellor), a Deputy and three officers (generally denoted as first, second, third secretaries). There may also be back-up staff consisting of 3 to 4 secretaries, a registry clerk and communications and cipher officers. The presence of an MI6 officer will be divulged to the host country, even if it is easy to spot the difference between a real career diplomat and an intelligence officer. Before an officer is sent to their destination the Information Operations (I/OPs) Unit will provide them with a list of sympathetic journalists who they can trust to source reliable information from. It is said that Information Operations also helps to coordinate psychological operations (PSY OPS), or just helps to 'surface' damaging stories to discredit foreign powers. It is said that a number of editors and journalists are in the pay of the service as an 'asset'.



FORT MONCKTON, GOSPORT HAMPSHIRE

Stations are regularly swept for bugs and other forms of electronic attack. There are special door codes and strong rooms to secure telecommunications from electronic and physical attack. Officers use Unix terminals (SCOUT) and a messaging system known as ARRAMIS for all transmissions up to 'secret' level. Conversations by phone are secured by using white noise masking, via the SIS BRAHMS system - Secure Speech System (called HOUSEMAN) telephone handsets are used. The telecommunications room is protected from Van Eck transmissions by one-foot thick walls of lead and other electronic dampening devices. From this room the officer can send and receive secure faxes up to SECRET level, via the CRYPTEX fax system. There is an encrypted electronic message system relayed through fibre optic cabling, known as the UK Intelligence Messaging Network, installed in 1997 to enable MI6 to 'flash' intelligence information to special terminals installed in the MoD, the Foreign Office and Department of Trade and Industry. This service is manned 24 hours a day, 365 days a year. These terminals are secured in reinforced rooms and have TEMPEST protection installed as standard.



Apart from working at embassies, depending upon the political climate, individuals might be working as 'illegals'; these individuals are in deep-cover and are not *officially* sanctioned by the service. These individuals may be working as accountants or in other conventional jobs. British banks like the *Royal Bank of Scotland* or to a lesser extent the *Midlands Bank* help to organize the money transfers to pay off the agent's 'aliases' bills. Banks also help to transfer monies for foreign operations (usually through a conduit like the Canary Islands).

Those working as conventional diplomats, claim their real job doesn't start until six o'clock in the evening, when they attend various cocktail parties and ceremonial events of state. Spreading disinformation is as important as gathering it. A ploy often is to discreetly set one person against another, the maxim being 'they destroy each other, you don't destroy them'. Officers also have to deal with 'support agents', those who supply the service with safe houses, bank accounts and intelligence. There are also 'long insiders' to the service who are agents of influence that are given access to sanitized intelligence to keep their cover creditable. Deep cover agents are usually given burst transmitters that can be used to contact superiors urgently by satellite. Officers before being sent into the field are often given 'immersion' language training.

THE INCREMENT



The Secret Intelligence Service (SIS) is reported to have a cell of operators comprising of members of the 22nd SAS and the Special Boat Service (SBS). This unit known as "The Increment" reportedly undertakes SIS-supervised special operations missions. This unit is thought to be a temporary unit.

Other claims suggest that the Increment is, in addition, utilized by MI5, although this seems unlikely given the political sensitivity of having covert special operations on home soil. The unit is reportedly comprised of 10 RAF pilots from S&D flight and are trained to fly Hercules C130 transport aircraft and Puma helicopters; plus a host of other common military aircraft.

There is said to be a small detachment of Special Boat Squadron (SBS) soldiers and a small number of men from the SAS anti-terrorist team on stand-by for such missions.

Other sources suggest there is another specialist cadre that occasionally participates in Increment operations. It is reportedly comprised of 20 or so men and women, who are known collectively as UKN. This group is said to comprise of a diverse array of specialists. There is said to be a small core of this unit that are on call on a full-time basis and draw a modest stipend for their labors. The others are said to be unpaid participants and take time off from their real jobs.

The controversial claims of a former SIS agent named Richard Tomlinson, suggest that MI6 drafted a proposal in 1998 that identified three methods for the assassination of former Yugoslavian Prime Minister, Slobodan Milosevic. The Increment were specifically identified in this document as being capable of infiltrating Serbia and attacking Milosevic, either by bomb or by sniper ambush.

The tasking of both MI5 and MI6 allow for the possibility of assassination with the express permission of the Foreign Secretary, although assassination in the West is now considered morally indefensible. The activities of the Increment are likely to involve reconnaissance tasks, specialist undercover work, VIP protection and the unofficial training of friendly guerrilla armies.

CRIME & SECURITY BRANCH



The Crime & Security Branch (CSB) is the new secret intelligence agency of the Irish government. It replaced the former, discredited agency known as G2 (not the similarly named G2 army intelligence agency). The former G2 agency became enveloped by scandals, when it was revealed that G2 had been heavily infiltrated by British agents; it was suggested that MI5 was deliberately leading Irish Secret Service policy.

The CSB is funded by the Irish Secret Service Vote, which has also in recent years been a source of embarrassment for the Irish Government. It was revealed that between 1996 and 2004, only 3.5 million Euros had been spent out of an allocation of 7.8 million Euros. The annual budgetary expenditure amounted to just 391,333 Euros. It was revealed that the Comptroller & Auditor General, the oversight body for the Bill, was obliged to sign the Bill despite serious reservations about the expenditure.

With just under 400,000 Euros being spent each year, it is suspected that this expenditure equates to merely sending senior agents on trips to conferences held by bodies such as Interpol (Lyon, France) or the Club de Berne (Switzerland). These trips providing opportunities for Irish agents to make contacts with foreign intelligence personnel: by providing local intelligence information, the requirements of the Irish are met in kind.



The actual facts about CSB operations are scarce due to the Irish government's insistence that the service be truly secret. Unlike most other large intelligence agencies, there isn't even an identifiable Director available whom is responsible for its activities. It is suspected that Garda Special Branch, G2 army intelligence unit and senior diplomats from the Department of Foreign Affairs are all part of the basic structure of CSB operations. It is suspected that G2 undertakes scouting of foreign locations where Irish forces may be sent at the behest of the UN, and they maintain active surveillance of suspected paramilitary units in its homeland. It is suspected that Garda involvement isn't actually through Special Branch, but may be through its own Crime & Security Branch, currently led by Assistant Commissioner Nacie Rice (*Dec 05*).

"There is no Secret Service structure in this jurisdiction", stated Justice Minister, Michael McDowell during parliamentary questioning in 2002. It is suspected that a part of the Irish Secret Service Vote may end up being apportioned to other departments within the government. It may be the case that ad-hoc investigations take place in various departments into serious cases of fraud or corruption; this fund being relied upon for financing these investigations. This idea is somewhat borne out by the under expenditure recorded prior; it may be a case of decreasing corruption.



5. POLICE AUTHORITIES

OVERVIEW

The following guide to police authorities and agencies in Great Britain and Ireland explores most of the police systems, national agencies and police intelligence groups. I've attempted to provide information about the more specialist units within the police forces, rather than focus on regular constabulary operations. I have however, provided basic information about police station operations, the various Acts of Parliament these officers have to abide by and listings of regional police forces.

POLICE AUTHORITIES



The police forces of England and Wales are locally based; there are 43 separate police forces. The Home Secretary is at the top of the command of control, with Police Authorities and Chief Constables controlling their particular regions (named the Tripartite System). However, mainly for historical reasons, the London Metropolitan Commissioner is directly responsible to the Home Secretary. Each provincial force has their own police authority: generally composed of two-thirds local councilors and one-third local magistrates. This is to help ensure that the general public, through their elected councilors, have a say in just how their local policing policy is being enacted. Central government provides 51% of the authorities budget; the rest is to be sourced from the local council.

The police authority is charged with the duty of maintaining the standards as set out in the *Police Act* of 1964; it is to ensure that an adequate and effective police force is maintained in their area. Some of the authorities specific functions, some are subject to ministerial approval, include appointing the Chief Constable, Deputy and Assistants; fixing the size of the force; providing buildings and suitable equipment. Although the Chief Constable is entirely responsible for the direction and control of the force, the Constable is accountable to the Police Authority for the competence and conduct of the force. The authority also operates as the disciplinary authority for the force, if deemed necessary, they can call for the retirement of officers in the interest of efficiency – with the approval of the Secretary of State.

The tripartite system of control is thought to provide a system of checks and balances that ensures that neither the Chief Constable, or the Police Authority have unrestrained control over the Forces activities.

POLICE POWERS

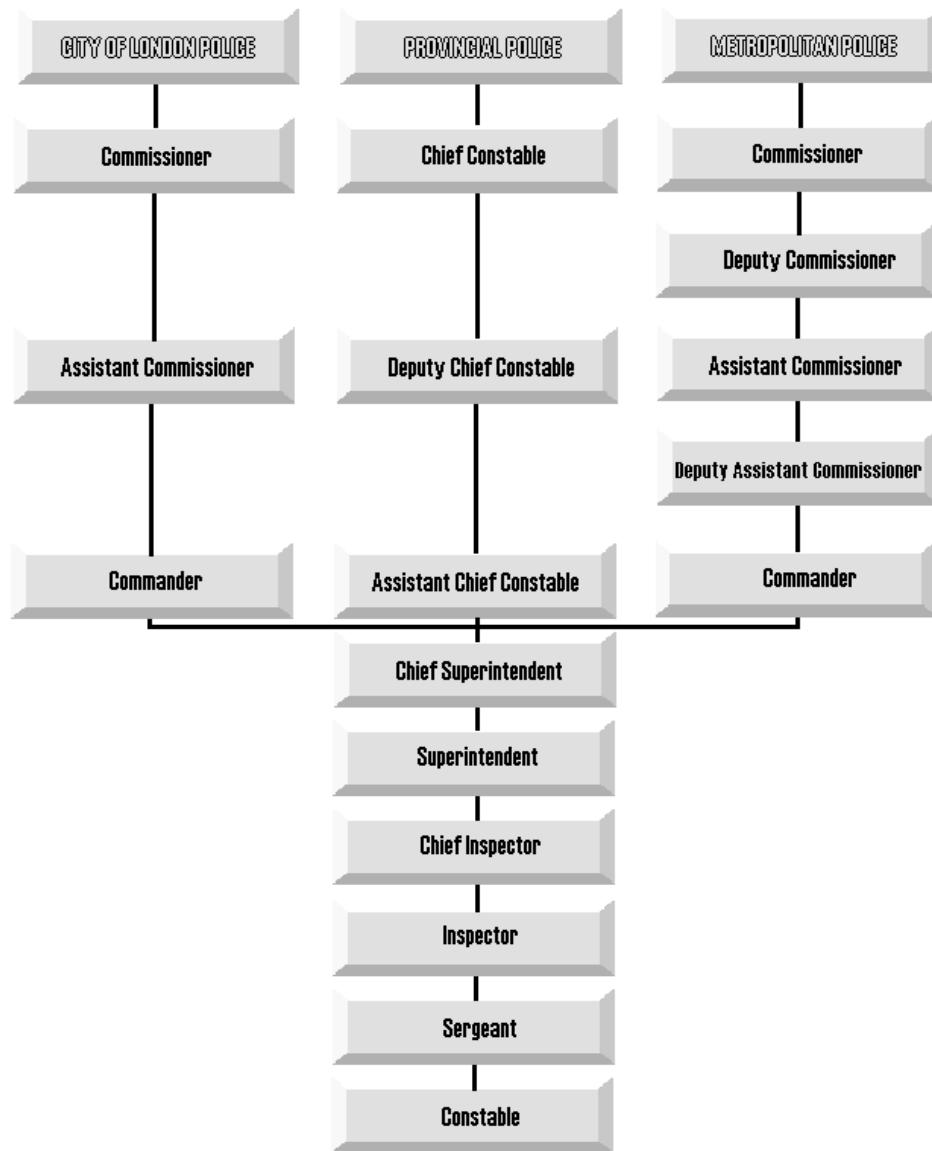
The primary objective of the police is the prevention of crime; once a crime is committed the police are compelled to use their range of expertise to arrest the offenders. The police are required to make sure that the law is adhered to; the police are themselves are not above the law, even if a greater crime will be committed, the police are not given permission to go beyond their working remit – although some would conjecture that recent terrorist related Acts of Parliament have gone beyond this principal.

The police officer is an independent holder of public office and is an agent of the law of the land: not of the Police Authority or the Government. Therefore, he or she can be sued or prosecuted for any wrongful acts committed in the performance of their duties. Even in the current terrorist climate in London, there are explicit controls over the maligned ‘shoot-to-kill’ policy enacted by Transit Police. Going outside of this remit could bring serious charges of manslaughter, or even murder.

POLICE AND CRIMINAL EVIDENCE ACT 1984

The way that a crime is investigated and any subsequent arrest/s is set out in the *Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984* (PACE) in its five Codes and Practices. These cover the power to stop and search; the search of premises and the seizing of property; arrests; detention, treatment and questioning by the police; identification of persons by the police; and the tape recording of interviews. The aim of the Act, and its Codes, is to give police powers that are needed to prevent and investigate crime whilst providing the general public with assurity that there are standardized ways in approaching the activity of policing. The Act also seeks to put limitations upon the powers of police work.





STRUCTURE OF THE POLICE SERVICE ORGANIZATION OF FORCES

At the head of each force is the Chief Constable (or Commissioner in London), with senior officers heading up each department like Crime and Traffic Divisions. At the heart of operations in most police stations is the Control Room. This room is equipped with high-tech computer and radio equipment. The control room seeks to monitor and co-ordinate most of the day-to-day activities of the force, especially those who are currently *on the beat*. A major function of the Control Room is to give back-up assistance when required to these officers. The Central Communications Room keeps the police in touch with base and other officers by personal or car radio. This central hub of communications can also be used as a conduit to relay information across the police computer network: to other forces and specialist units. In major operations, the operations department can involve the CID, Traffic and specialist units (like Horses, Dogs and River police).

There are over 125,000 police officers in England and Wales; there is one officer for every 400 people. The size of the local force varies according to population and area. Most forces are either based in metropolitan or country areas, however, in areas where the population is sparse, one force may cover a large area with a relatively small number of inhabitants (like the Devon and Cornwall Constabulary). Each police force is sub-divided geographically into what are variously called Divisions, Sub-Divisions or Areas. These specific areas are usually under the command of a senior officer, who is usually of superintendent or chief-superintendent rank. This area may have a number of police stations.

TERRITORIAL FORCES

The territorial forces use the boundaries of the local government areas (counties and Scottish regions) established in the 1974/1975 local government reorganizations (although with subsequent modifications).

ENGLAND

Avon and Somerset Constabulary - Avon and Somerset
 Bedfordshire Police - Bedfordshire
 Cambridgeshire Constabulary - Cambridgeshire
 Cheshire Constabulary - Cheshire
 City of London Police - City of London
 Cleveland Police - Cleveland
 Cumbria Constabulary - Cumbria
 Derbyshire Constabulary - Derbyshire
 Devon and Cornwall Constabulary - Devon and Cornwall
 Dorset Police - Dorset
 Durham Constabulary - Durham
 Essex Police - Essex
 Gloucestershire Constabulary - Gloucestershire
 Greater Manchester Police - Greater Manchester
 Hampshire Constabulary - Hampshire
 Hertfordshire Constabulary - Hertfordshire
 Humberside Police - Humberside
 Kent County Constabulary - Kent
 Lancashire Police - Lancashire
 Leicestershire Constabulary - Leicestershire
 Lincolnshire Police - Lincolnshire
 Merseyside Police - Merseyside
 Metropolitan Police Service - Greater London except for the City of London
 Norfolk Constabulary - Norfolk
 Northamptonshire Police - Northamptonshire
 Northumbria Police - Northumberland and Tyne and Wear
 North Yorkshire Police - North Yorkshire
 Nottinghamshire Police - Nottinghamshire
 South Yorkshire Police - South Yorkshire
 Staffordshire Police - Staffordshire
 Suffolk Constabulary - Suffolk
 Surrey Police - Surrey
 Sussex Police - Sussex
 Thames Valley Police - Berkshire, Buckinghamshire and Oxfordshire
 Warwickshire Police - Warwickshire
 West Mercia Constabulary - Shropshire and Hereford and Worcester
 West Midlands Police - West Midlands
 West Yorkshire Police - West Yorkshire
 Wiltshire Police - Wiltshire



SCOTLAND

Central Scotland Police - Central Scotland
 Dumfries and Galloway Constabulary - Dumfries and Galloway
 Fife Constabulary - Fife
 Grampian Police - Grampian
 Lothian and Borders Police - Lothian and Borders
 Northern Constabulary - Highland (including the Western Isles, Orkney Islands and Shetland Islands)
 Strathclyde Police - Strathclyde
 Tayside Police - Tayside

WALES

Dyfed-Powys Police (Heddlu Dyfed Powys) - Dyfed and Powys
 Gwent Police (Heddlu Gwent) - Gwent
 North Wales Police (Heddlu Gogledd Cymru) - Gwynedd and Clwyd
 South Wales Police (Heddlu De Cymru) - South Glamorgan, Mid Glamorgan and West Glamorgan

NORTHERN IRELAND

Police Service of Northern Ireland

CHANNEL ISLANDS AND ISLE OF MAN

States of Guernsey Police Service - Guernsey, Alderney and Sark

Isle of Man Constabulary - Isle of Man

States of Jersey Police - Jersey

SPECIALIST LOCAL FORCES

PORTS

Belfast Harbour Police

Falmouth Docks Police

Larne Harbour Police

Port of Bristol Police

Port of Dover Police

Port of Felixstowe Police

Port of Liverpool Police

Port of Tilbury Police

Tees and Hartlepool Port Authority Harbour Police

PARKS

Barking and Dagenham Parks Constabulary

Birmingham Parks Police

Brighton Parks Police

Epping Forest Keepers

Hammersmith and Fulham Parks Constabulary

Hampstead Heath Constabulary

Haringey Parks Constabulary

Hillingdon Parks Patrol Service

Newham Parks Constabulary

Royal Borough of Kensington and Chelsea Parks Police

Royal Botanic Gardens Constabulary

Royal Parks Constabulary

Sutton Parks Constabulary

Wandsworth Parks Police

OTHER

Cambridge University Constabulary

Mersey Tunnels Police

Northern Ireland Airport Authority Police

NATIONAL FORCES AND AGENCIES

British Transport Police

Civil Nuclear Constabulary

National Crime Squad

National Criminal Intelligence Service

Scottish Drug Enforcement Agency

Serious Organised Crime Agency

MILITARY FORCES AND AGENCIES

Ministry of Defence Police

Ministry of Defence Guard Service (no police powers)

Royal Military Police (Army)

Royal Air Force Police

Royal Marines Police

Royal Navy Regulating Branch

POLICE CONSTABLES

At the heart of UK policing is the police constable. Senior Officers make the major decisions and specialist divisions catch the majority of the media attention; but without the humble *Bobby* walking the beat there would be no immediate threat or presence to deter any would be criminal. These officers deal with the public and often make vital decisions at the scene of the crime. The *PC* is generally called upon to do what is generally thought to be police work: patrolling the streets on foot and in cars, answering calls for assistance, giving advice and dealing with minor disturbances. They also help out at the police station, handling inquiries or dealing with arrested people. At other times, they are involved in public order duties like at football matches or rallies. They usually work on a shift system, which is generally divided into three shifts covering the 24 hours.

Not all crimes are investigated by the Criminal Investigations Department (CID), crimes of minor theft, some auto crimes and assaults are investigated by unarmed police officers. Officers are sometimes seconded to work in Magistrates, Crown and Coroners' courts. Some officers choose to stay as PCs, rather than become senior officers or detectives, because of the scope and variety of the job. Some prefer the direct involvement with the general public offered by such community liaison focussed roles. Such roles can include home beat officers, school liaison officers or crime prevention officers. There are also those who enjoy the specialist roles that are offered by the force including dog handling, mounted policing and court officers roles.

THE POLICE STATION

The police station is the base from which patrolling officers' work, they are under the supervision of a Police Inspector and a number of Sergeants. The local senior officers will have their offices at the police station. The local CID detectives also carry out their operations from this station. Some forms of administration are also undertaken at the local stations.

A large proportion of the incidents reported to the Control Room come from 999 calls, however, some incidents are reported directly to the station in person or people directly telephoning the local station. Officers are kept informed of events by radio from the station house. A section of the building is set aside for housing prisoners who have just been arrested; one of the Sergeants will always be on duty near these cells. The Duty Sergeant has responsibility for the safety of any prisoners under his/her custody.



CRIMINAL INVESTIGATION DEPARTMENT (CID)

The more serious crimes are the domain of Criminal Investigations Department. These plain-clothes detectives of CID generally handle serious crimes and major thefts. CID operations are sometimes broken down into specialist crime units like Scotland Yard's *Serious Crimes Branch* and '*Flying Squad*' i.e. the Robbery Squad. Some larger Forces have their own specialist departments, whilst others do not.

Detective work is often glamorized in the media, but the job is often far from appealing. The moments of high drama are few, and the moment of tedium and frustration many. The successful detective is a dedicated professional, who has a sharp eye for detail, an excellent memory, and the ability to adjudicate character. The detective must also be prepared to put in months, or even years, of painstaking work on certain cases. Every British Police Force has its own CID unit. About one in eight of all police officers are part of the CID, either as a Detective attached to the division, or as part of one of the specialist branches. Officers selected for CID duty are trained in one of the six detective training schools around the United Kingdom.

SPECIAL BRANCH

Special Branch was created in 1883 as the *Special Irish Branch*; this was to deal exclusively with a series of Fenian bombings; whose aim was independence for Ireland. The service later extended its functions to include responsibility for Royalty Protection, which is no longer part of its remit. It was initially formed as a small section of Criminal Investigations Departments (CID).

Every police force in Britain has its own Special Branch; they liaise closely with the Met Special Branch, which provides it with a central source of information, training and operational support. Although part of the police service, in practice it also coordinates closely with MI5. The Security Service primarily develops intelligence, and Special Branch provides the arrest powers and contacts. This is orchestrated so that either arm doesn't have too much power that it could potentially abuse - given their extended intelligence and policing powers. The service is essentially a conduit of information and intelligence for both the Met Police and MI5. In 1995, dedicated liaison teams were devolved to each Area to support Met Police priorities.

Special Branch provides armed bodyguards for prominent politicians and public figures, and it also investigates all firearms and explosives offenses that may have security implications. It supplies other sections of the force with assessments about threats to public order; especially those that may require the attention of the uniformed branch (beat police).

Responsibilities of Special Branch:

- Gather, collate, analyze and exploit intelligence on extremist political & terrorist activity
- Initiate, develop and conduct intelligence operations against terrorists and political extremists
- Disseminate intelligence for operational use to law enforcement agencies at local, national and international levels
- Provide armed personal protection for Ministers of State, Foreign VIPs and other persons at threat from terrorist or extremist attack
- Police the ports within the London area to detect terrorist or criminal suspects while travelling into or out of the country
- Assist other Government agencies to counter threats to the security of the United Kingdom from public disorder; the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction (nuclear, biological or chemical); espionage by foreign powers; subversion; terrorism by Irish or international groups; and sabotage to the infrastructure of the United Kingdom

FRAUD SQUAD

Each large station has some officers specializing in fraud investigations. In London, the Fraud Squad investigates the Stock Exchange, off-shore banking and charity frauds. Its office also contains the Public Sector Corruption Index. The Fraud Squad was set up in 1946 and is jointly run by the Met and City of London Police. It is available to help other forces who are investigating company fraud. Officers from the two London Forces are also located in the newly established Serious Fraud Office. This is a government department set up under the *Criminal Justice Act* of 1987 to investigate and prosecute serious fraud. The police work closely with teams of lawyers, accountants and other professionals who have expertise in fraud cases.

TRAFFIC POLICE

Each force has its own specialist Traffic Division. The officers present are not just detailed to stop speeding and enforce the law; they are also there to help motorists in difficulties, sort out traffic flows issues and deal with accidents. Traffic police have detailed specialist knowledge of the traffic laws and safety requirements of the different classes of vehicles. There are a variety of jobs in the traffic department, from patrol units, various back-up units, and intelligence sections (who analyze traffic problems and causes of accidents). Specialist accident investigators are able to reconstruct the crash from debris and various marks on the road.

MOUNTED BRANCH

Even today, mounted police officers are of benefit to the modern police force. They play a vital role in large crowd events like football matches, state ceremonies, race meetings and demonstrations. The riders have good skill levels and the horses are well trained – they aren't just for show, they are active in directing citizens. They are also used in urban areas; they also patrol small areas of open land such as commons.

CENTRAL SUPPORT SERVICES

There are number of central and regional services provided to the police by the Home Office; amongst these services are police training sites, the Police National Computer system and research facilities developing new police equipment. The Forensic Science Service provides expert scientific resources for the investigation of crime. The DTELS (formerly the Directorate of Communications) installs and maintain police radio systems. The Scientific Development Branch and Police Research Group are staffed by scientists, technicians and police officers: they are primarily concerned with operational research into policing methods and improving equipment for all police forces.

The Home Office runs district training centers for the initial education of all police recruits across Britain. This service, it is hoped, brings a degree of standardization across the various UK based forces and hopes to maintain high standards. The Police Staff College at Bramshill is also run by the Home Office, this facility seeks to train officers for the more senior posts within the Police Service. The cost of these services is shared between both the central government, and the local police authorities. Others like the DTELS and the Forensic Science Service charge for their services to police forces on a pro-rata basis.

POLICE NATIONAL COMPUTER

Since its inception in 1974, UK police have had access to the Police National Computer system giving them round-the-clock access to vital information. The details include all registered vehicles and their owners and an index of over 5 million criminal records. It also holds details of people wanted in connection with a crime, those reported missing, or those disqualified from driving. It has descriptors including a personal description, any aliases, known associates, any criminal records and last known address. It also has parameters to tell if the person may be armed and/or violent. All records are confidential and covered by the *Data Protection Act*. The system was updated in 1992 (the moniker PNC2 is now used) to meet the expanding needs of the police service. The system deals with over 100,000 inquiries a day. The system is run by the Police Information Technology Organization (PITO).

Features included:

- ❑ Criminal Records: It contains information and descriptive details of people convicted/cautioned or recently arrested (including fingerprints and DNA). The full details of convictions are stored. There are also further listings of persons wanted, missing or disqualified from driving
- ❑ Vehicle Records: The listing provides the keeper details of UK vehicles. It can also store ancillary information like if the car is stolen
- ❑ Property Details: Certain types of information on stolen property can be stored on the PNC2
- ❑ Driver's Database: This recently added database has links to both the DVLA and the Motor Insurance Database giving access to driving license and insurance details. There is a further link to the MOT database planned. This should end the process of issuing HO/RT1 to drivers to demand access to driving documents.

Finally, with the growth of transnational criminality in Europe, with its *open borders* policy, the PNC is likely to end up being linked to the *Schengen Information System* (SIS). This European initiative shares police information garnered on a national level with its European neighbors.

NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION BUREAU

The service run by the Met Police is housed at New Scotland Yard, but is financed by all the UK police forces. It maintains records on criminals, their fingerprints and their convictions across the whole of the United Kingdom. The information is made available to police nationally through the PNC2 computer system.

POLICE COMPLAINTS AUTHORITY

The Police Complaints Authority (PCA) is an independent body that oversees the investigation of complaints about the police service. It doesn't carry out the investigations itself; these are always carried out by police officers. The PCA supervises investigations into the most serious complaints, and reviews the reports of each investigation. Whether it supervises or not, it decides whether disciplinary charges should be brought against an officer, if it hasn't already been brought by the local chief officer. Some minor complaints are dealt with solely by the local Chief Officer. Serious complaints must go directly to the PCA for review. Over 25% of all recorded complaints are informally resolved by the local force involved, another 40% are withdrawn or not proceed with. Often these erroneous complaints are made in the heat of the moment, and are subsequently withdrawn. But, the police are bound by law to record every complaint that is made and treat it with the same due diligence.

POLICE ACCOUNTABILITY

Changes were made to the service during the 1980s to make police directly accountable to the general public. Amongst these measures the *Scarman Report* (1981) that led to the implementation of the *Police and Criminal Act* (PACE) of 1984. Other measures included the setting up of the Community Consultative Committees and the Lay Visitors Scheme.

POLICE COMMUNITY CONSULTATIVE COMMITTEES

There are no strict titles or formula for the operations of these committees, though they are usually termed consultative committees or consultative groups. Its membership always includes representatives from the local police, the police authority, constituent councils and voluntary, statutory and/or community groups. They meet regularly and keep records of these meetings. These meetings are generally open to the community. The average consultative committee meets every two months, at different venues throughout the local area; seeking to give all members of the public access. The local police senior officers will give a report and the members of the committee will raise any policing issues of concern to them, or their constituency. There is generally an open part of the meeting for members of the general public to raise their concerns in person, and the chair will take note of any issues if the police are unable to answer straight away.

METROPOLITAN POLICE



The single, largest force in Britain is the Metropolitan Police Force, which is responsible for an area within the radius of 15 miles from the center of London (excluding the City of London, which is maintained by a separate force). The Met covers 787 square miles of densely populated city; it has its headquarters in New Scotland Yard in Westminster. The force is broken down into eight Areas (each in population terms, equal in size to that of a provincial force). Each Area has its own headquarters dealing with administration, personnel, support units, public order, traffic, mounted police and dog handlers. Each of these areas is further subdivided into Divisions; these are often in line with local council boundaries. The Divisions are generally under the control of a Chief Superintendent. This functionary is thought to help in personalizing the policing of each of the boroughs. Each Divisional Headquarters controls its smaller police stations; the HQ is generally where the home-beat, crime prevention and other community officers are based. CID, police cells and the Communications Center is also based in the Divisional Headquarters.



- ❑ 1829 Service established by Sir Robert Peel (Home Secretary), he passes the first Metropolitan Police Act, the force was first organized at 4 Whitehall Place. The courtyard opened out onto the site of a residence owned by the Kings of Scotland (known as Scotland Yard)
- ❑ 1890 The Headquarters is moved to a premises on the Victoria Embankment known as 'New Scotland Yard'
- ❑ 1967 The Headquarters is moved again to a building at Broadway S.W.1, which retains the 'New Scotland Yard' name

The Commissioner who heads the Metropolitan Police has traditionally been responsible directly to the Home Secretary. This dates back to the formation of the service; it is said to reflect the difference in focus from other provincial forces – the Metropolitan Police having national and international responsibilities. The national functions it carries out are in relation to the protection of royalty and countering terrorism. The service also has responsibilities in other capital cities and national responsibilities, in the protection of members and ex-members of the government and the diplomatic community in Britain. This additional focus makes the service unique amongst British police forces. The service provides police functions to the Greater London Area, but doesn't service the Square Mile in the City of London.

SECURITY AND PROTECTION

The service has made concerted efforts to incorporate leading edge technologies in their activities to enhance its expertise as a national coordinator of the police; and in particular, in the response to terrorism. Inter-agency communications channels are actively promoted and developed in conjunction with the Security Service - as the Security Service has primacy in the area of countering terrorism. The Royalty and Diplomatic Protection Department has been restructured after its amalgamation with the Royalty Protection and Royal Palaces groups in 1995. The department provides policing to Royal Palaces and other important Central London locations; response times are measured in mere seconds.

INTELLIGENCE & SURVEILLANCE

The Directorate of Intelligence provides a specialized service to the Met Police, including a number of new responsibilities. The Met Police are moving towards becoming a pro-active, intelligence-led service. The Technical Support Unit and Surveillance sections are recognized as centers of international excellence in their fields..

The Scientific Intelligence Unit has developed behavioral analysis findings related to some of the more unusual forms of sexual offences and murders. It is the central point of contact for the identification of DNA by all police services in the United Kingdom. The Drug Related Violence Intelligent Unit targets and develops intelligence on active criminals operations in London, and around the British Isles. The unit has established a database of subjects and has an image library which liaisons with Commonwealth, European and American sister services. The Financial Disclosure Unit investigates irregular financial dealings. The unit has developed a software package that has become widely used as a standard investigation tool for similar financial disclosure units throughout the country.

The Directorate of Intelligence has trained over 600 officers in targeting, surveillance and covert photography techniques. The 'CRIMINT' computer-based intelligence application has been developed by the Directorate and is used by all Met Police stations. The Directorate provides a service-wide interactive computer-based training package to accompany this application. The Metropolitan Police are responsible for the day to day management of the National Identification Service (NIS), which includes the National Criminal Record Office and National Fingerprint Collection.

SPECIALIST OPERATIONS

TERRITORIAL OPERATIONS

SO1	International and Organized Crime
SO2	Department Support Group
SO3	Scenes of Crime Branch
SO4	National Identification Bureau
SO5	Miscellaneous Forces Index
SO6	Fraud Squad
SO7	Support
SO8	Forensic Science Laboratory
SO9	Flying Squad
SO10	Crime Operations Group
SO11	Criminal Intelligence Branch
SO12	Special Branch
SO13	Anti-Terrorist Branch
SO14	Royalty Protection Branch
SO15	Royal Palaces Division
SO16	Diplomatic Protection Branch
SO17	Palace of Westminster Division
SO18	Police National Computer Bureau
SO19	Force Firearms Unit
SO20	Forensic Medical Examiners Branch

TO1	General Department Services and HQ
TO3	Area Support
TO4	Public Carriage Office
TO5	Central Ticket Office
TO6	Central Services
TO7	Divisional Support
TO9	Crime and Divisional Policing Policy Branch
TO10	Courts Division
TO14	Traffic
TO18	Public Order Training
TO20	Public Order
TO25	Central Communications Branch
TO26	Air Support Unit
TO27	Mounted Branch
TO28	Police Dog Section
TO29	Thames Division
TO31	Community Affairs Branch – Vulnerable Groups
TO32	Community Affairs Branch – Partnership Branch

FLYING SQUAD SO9

Flying Squad was formed in 1919 as a ‘mobile patrol experiment’ as a branch of the Criminal Investigation Department (CID). It was in response to a crime wave that followed the end of the First World War. Its officers acquired the nickname of ‘thief takers’. The squad was comprised of officers trained to drive at high speed, and to detect and prevent armed robberies and similar crimes. The name refers to the fact that the service operates across the boundaries of London’s police divisions. It was renamed the Central Robbery Squad in 1978. It is however still referred to colloquially as Flying Squad, or the cockney rhyming slang variant ‘the Sweeney’ (Sweeney Todd/Flying Squad).

The popular fictionalized British television show *The Sweeney* drew upon a number of incidents of bribery and corruption in the 1970s that unscrupulous officers partook in. The squad, by necessity, has always maintained close ties with the criminal underworld, former Detective Chief Superintendent Kenneth Drury was convicted of five counts of corruption and was jailed for eight years in 1977. This conviction marked a watershed in operations; leading to the service being cleaned up after a joint internal investigation code-named Operation Countryman.



SPECIAL BRANCH SO12

Each British police force has its own Special Branch division. The largest special operations department of the Metropolitan Police is Special Branch (SO12). All special branch departments work closely with MI5, the Security Service remit requires that any prosecutions brought are through Special Branch (MI5 being an intelligence gathering service, and Special Branch having the arrest powers). During most serious crime raids, there will generally be representatives present from both services. Special Branch also performs its own intelligence operations; it has undercover agents in the field, generally following serious crime activities.

Special Branch has responsibility for the protection of (non-royal) VIPs and performing the role of examining officer at designated ports and airports; as outlined in the *Terrorism Act 2000*.

It was announced in September 2005 that the Metropolitan Police Special Branch would be amalgamated with the Anti-Terrorism Branch to form a new department called Counter Terrorism Command.

ANTI-TERRORIST BRANCH SO13

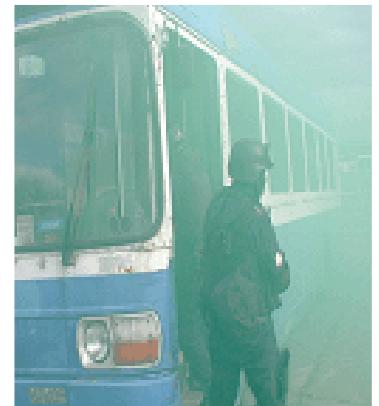
HISTORY

The Anti-Terrorist Branch was formed in March 1970 under the name the Metropolitan Police Bomb Squad. It was formed as a result of the rising incidence of politically motivated crimes in the Greater London area; this was mainly related to the rising incidence of bombings perpetuated by the Northern Ireland Republican movement. One such high profile incident involved Robert Carr, the then Minister of Employment, whose residence was bombed by a group calling themselves the ‘Angry Brigade’.

The main remit of the branch is to deal with bombings, assassinations and other terrorist threats in the capital. During the period between 1970 and 1997, the Anti-Terrorist Branch investigated 1,312 bombings and 58 shootings. Many of these investigations have attracted a high profile in the British media. The branch is fully equipped to deal with terrorist threats 24-hours a day; there are teams of officers immediately detailed to respond to such incidents. Senior investigating officers are complemented with experienced detectives, forensic scene examiners, search trained personnel and surveillance officers. Facilities at the team's disposal include an extensive major incident room and a research team laboratory. The branch is also known under its internal police service designation as 'SO13' (Special Operations 13).

RESPONSIBILITIES

- To investigate all acts of terrorism within the Metropolitan Police area (including economic terrorism, politically motivated crimes, and some cases of kidnap and extortion)
- To help with investigations in other areas of the country. The Commander of the Anti-Terrorist Branch is appointed by the Association of Chief Police Officers (ACPO) as the national coordinator for the investigation of acts of terrorism and cases involving animal rights extremism
- To take responsibility for the prevention of terrorism; as well as running counter-terrorist training exercises and national contingency planning
- The Counter-Terrorist Search Wing advises generally on all aspects of specialist searches, with responsibility for the policy, training and licensing of all search trained officers within the Met
- To provide trained explosives officers to the Met
- Guidance on protective security advice against terrorism



THE DIPLOMATIC PROTECTION GROUP SO16



The Diplomatic Protection Group was formed in November 1974 with the sole task of ensuring the security and protection of diplomatic missions in Central London, which are excluded from ordinary police operations through the process of diplomatic immunity. The group was formed to meet the provisions laid out at the Vienna Convention on Diplomatic Relations of 1961. Before this time, the protection arrangement for diplomats in Britain was performed on a 'ad hoc' basis, mainly using volunteers or probationers from the various police districts. This usually meant a three-month detail to work 8 hours a day that proved problematic morale wise, and many officers left without ever completing their probationary period.

The DPG has had some high profile duties as part of its remit; it provided armed security for the funeral of Princess Diana of Wales, and other prominent state events; the group may also be called upon to provide armed protection for world leaders during their visits to London.

The group was restructured in September 1983 and the Royalty and Diplomatic Protection Department (RDPD) was created. There are now three separate units within the RDPD including SO14 Royalty Protection, SO16 Diplomatic Protection and SO17 the Palace of Westminster.

The department is commanded by the rank of Assistant Commissioner. The current officer in command of SO16 is Chief Superintendent Jamie Stephen (*Nov 05*).

Principle Functions of the Diplomatic Protection Group

1. Provide fixed post protection for foreign missions (such as embassies, high commissions, consular sections and official residence). In accordance with Article 22 of the Vienna Convention of 1961
2. To respond to alarms within the SO16 area. SO16 officers also respond to premises throughout London
3. The protection of the Prime Minister's official residence at 10 Downing Street and private residence. Assist in the movements of high profile ministers and visiting Heads of State
4. To provide highly visible armed protection to Her Majesty's Government, former Prime Ministers, government ministers and other persons assessed to be at risk
5. To provide Central London mobile security patrols to combat armed criminal activity and terrorism. To provide an armed reserve for the Met call upon in times of emergency
6. In partnership with the Foreign and Commonwealth Office, maintain the Central Index of Privileged Persons. To coordinate all information regarding immunity and similar diplomatic matters useful to the Met, other constabularies and external agencies
7. To provide an armed contingency for major state occasions such as the State Opening of Parliament, Trooping the Colour and state visits
8. To provide armed security back up to unarmed colleagues at The Palace of Westminster (POW)
9. To provide security at New Scotland Yard
10. To provide specialist training to SO16 Staff and assist in the training of other SO departments and Met partners
11. Act as a contingency back up and mobile-armed response to the Royal Palaces
12. To provide a Counter Reconnaissance Team to prevent and deter hostile reconnaissance and terrorist attacks on high profile targets in central London
13. To provide 24-hour command and control of all DPG resources and to provide a fall-back faculty for 'GT'
14. To assist local BOCUs with core-policing responsibilities within the DPG post and patrol areas
15. To provide residential protection for visiting heads of state, heads of government and foreign ministers, and provide plain clothes assistance to SO12 (Special Branch) on occasions of heavy commitment e.g. international conferences

16. To provide security and crime prevention advice relating to foreign missions, government buildings NSY and all other Met buildings
17. To provide search teams for counter terrorism at sensitive addresses. Specialist police search teams are also provided for major events and scenes of serious crime
18. To provide armed hospital guards (AHG) at any of London's private or NHS hospitals

AVIATION SECURITY OPERATIONAL COMMAND UNIT SO18

This unit is another of the specialist operations units of the London Metropolitan Police and provides policing and security to both Heathrow and London City Airports. The other London airports, Gatwick and Stansted, are policed by Sussex Police and Essex Police respectively.

Policing at Heathrow was undertaken initially by the Civil Aviation Authority, however, in 1965 responsibility was taken over by the British Airports Authority Constabulary. Later, the responsibility was devolved to the Metropolitan police in 1974: directly as a consequence of the *Policing of Airports Act 1974*. The policing of London City Airport was always under the remit of the Metropolitan Police Service, until Aviation Security acquired this remit in 2004.

The SO18 unit employs around 400 police officers, they are mainly armed; at least, within the confines of the airport. They deal with routine police incidents, but are also required to guard against the threat of terrorism. They must be ready to respond to an aircraft emergency at short notice. Another issue dealt with by the service is the issue of human trafficking; it works closely with the Immigration Service to prevent it occurring.

FORCE FIREARMS UNIT SO19



The Force Firearms Unit was started back in December 1966 as a direct response to the murder of three plain-clothes officers, who were gunned down as they challenged a gang of armed robbers. In its infancy the department was formed purely to train officers in the use of police firearms and safe engagement tactics. Since this time, it has become the specialist unit in the Met for the deployment of snipers to sieges, or other gun related criminal acts. Debate rages in Britain over the use of such armed units in the new age of terrorism, especially with new shoot-to-kill policies being invoked. Normally, most British police do not carry guns; this policy goes back to 1936 when all guns were locked in a station cupboard and officers had to have 'good reason' for carrying firearms.

The unit is detailed to provide firearms-related support to the rest of the Metropolitan Police Service. It consists of a small group of officers' highly trained and motivated to deal with most aspects of the criminal use of firearms. The department is part of the specialist operations branch of New Scotland Yard. The Firearms unit is under the command of the Assistant Commissioner. The Assistant Commissioner is responsible for all operational activities (currently Chief Superintendent is *Paul Robinson Nov 05*).

The department is divided in a number of sub-sections:

Operational: This sub-section includes Armed Response Vehicles, teams of Specialist Firearms Officers who deal with the pre-planning of firearms operations, and the Rifle section that provides counter-sniping capabilities to the force.

Training: This unit provides courses and refresher courses for all firearms officers; more than 2,000 officers from across the Met attend training courses every eight weeks.

Policy: This unit undertakes research and projects on behalf of the Assistant Commissioner of Specialist Operations, and the Met's Firearm Policy Forum

Licensing: This unit deals with fire-arms inquiries from the general public and security agencies. The enquiry's team mainly deals with firearms and shotgun licensing issues.

ARMED RESPONSE UNITS (ARV'S) & SPECIALIST FIREARMS OFFICERS (SFO'S)

The Metropolitan Police Service first introduced the 24-hour response *Armed Response Vehicles* to London's streets in 1991, these vehicles are crewed by uniformed officers who have been selected and trained to control armed incidents; stop and search suspects and their vehicles; and search premises for armed suspects. These officers are generally the first 'Armed Officers' to arrive at the scene of a serious incident. Each ARV is crewed by three officers who are detailed to patrol specific areas to ensure a fast response. The *Driver* is responsible for getting the team to the scene in the safest and fastest way, while retaining regard for other public users of the road. The *Operator* is responsible for in-car communications and gathering the maximum amount of information upon the incident, before arrival at the destination. The *Observer* at the rear of the vehicle is equipped with a London map book and helps provide the driver with suitable road routes.

Once the team arrives at the scene they will make an immediate assessment of the incident; if armed containment is deemed necessary, to isolate the armed suspects from the public, two officers will immediately deploy, leaving the remaining officer to control the incident and call for further armed support. This officer may also be called upon to liaise with the local plain-clothed police. The officers are armed with Glock 17 self-loading pistols, and two of the officers have access to Heckler and Koch MP5 carbines (usually kept in the boot).

Supervising officers from the firearms department also patrol in marked police vehicles and are detailed to attend such incidents. Once they arrive, they will take charge of all firearms officers present, they also give local senior police officers advice on how best to resolve the incident with

maximum safety for the general public. They carry additional equipment, which includes equipment to force entry into premises.

The Met also employs a number of Specialist Firearm Officers (SFO's), these units provide an enhanced firearms capability in times of need. These units are available for deployment 24 hours a day. Their role includes pre-planning activities; the unit also has a hostage-rescue capability. A unit can be deployed to incidents at the behest of the relevant authority, generally a senior officer. The unit is in heavy demand with 13,394 incidents engaged in 2002. Such figures have probably exploded in the last 3 years with the greater deployment of armed response units in public spaces, especially after the July 2005 Underground Bombings.

FIREARMS TRAINING

There is a new purpose built training facility at Milton, providing training in all aspects of firearms that are relevant to today's modern police service. There are also six national training centers and, in addition, there are six firearm's ranges located at police buildings across London. The following courses are offered to Met Officers

- Initial Firearms Course
- Armed Response Vehicle Course
- Specialist Firearms Officer Course
- National Firearms Instructor Course
- Tactical Refresher for Authorized Firearms Course
- Firearms Incident Command Training

Additional courses also fall into the remit of the Firearms Training establishment from time to time



Initial Firearms Course: This course is designed to provide the necessary skills to allow officers to become an Authorized Firearms Officer; it is needed to legally function in such a role. The course lasts two weeks and includes training in the use of the Glock 17 Self-loading pistol. The training includes various drills; information about the law regarding an officer's use of firearms; Basic Firearms Tactics; Target Identification; and Containment. Time is spent in a Simulation Gallery where students react to mock incidents and seek to uphold the relevant laws. Shooting skills and weapon handling is an important aspect of the training, the course is structured to assume that the officer has no previous experience with firearms. By the end of the course, the officer undertakes a shooting test and needs to be competent in the tactical use of firearms.

ARV Course: After selection to become a member of the ARV team, the officer will undertake the Basic Firearms Course (if they are not already an AFO). They will firstly undertake the one-week Heckler and Hock MP5 Carbine course, and then move on to the intensive three-week ARV course. Having passed these requirements the officer will be then posted to ARV relief, and attend training for three days every six weeks.

The ARV course covers aspects such as team-building exercises, vehicle deployments, building containment and firearm make-safes to an advanced level. The course introduces students to issues of performing building searches for armed suspects, building searches using specially trained SO19 dogs and Legion Patrols (anti-terrorist patrols).

Specialist Firearms Officers Course: This course is designed for those officers who have passed the extensive selection process to become Specialist Firearms Officers. The course builds on skills and experience gained during in ARV duties, the course equips them with the skills for such operations as hostage rescue; rapid entries where firearms are believed to be present; and plain-clothes support to other departments and maritime operations.

The officers are trained to abseil and use shotguns effectively; the course helps to enhance the shooting skills of the officer, it is hoped to an advanced level. The Officer must pass the National Rapid Intervention and Specialist Firearm Officers Course. The course covers further entry techniques into buildings; the use of pyrotechnics and other distraction devices; and the use of assault ladders. The officer also becomes conversant with different types of clothing: including suits to protect against chemical, biological and nuclear.

SPECIALIST CRIME DIRECTORATE

The Specialist Crime Directorate was launched in November 2002 to provide specialist resources to reduce all aspects of serious and specialist crime in London. Its main focus areas are the safeguarding of children and young people; dismantling organized crime networks and seizing of their assets; reduce gun-enabled crime; investigation and the prevention of homicide; and the reduction of organized crime in district communities. The SCD also incorporates assistance in the areas of forensics, intelligence and maintains the Crime Academy and the Crime Museum.

The intention of SCD is to place renewed emphasis on working with communities, boroughs and partners in identifying solutions to serious crime problems. The current head of the directorate is Assistant Commissioner Tarique Ghaffur (Nov 05).

There are a number of different units under Directorate command:

Homicide (SCD1) – The unit provides ‘murder squads’ to investigate almost all murders in London

Forensic Services (SCD4) – The unit provides crime scene examiners, fingerprinting and photography services

Child Abuse (SCD5) – These Child Abuse Investigations Teams deal with child related crimes

Economic and Specialist Crime (SCD6) – The remit of the unit includes wildlife crime, antique smuggling, computer related crimes and fraud

Serious and Organized Crime (SCD7) – This unit responds to kidnappings and hostage taking. Commercial armed robberies are dealt with by the Flying Squad, which is affiliated with SDC7

Trident and Trafalgar (SCD8) – Trident investigates gun crime in the black community (including murders), whilst Trafalgar deals with other gun crime that doesn’t fall into the remit of other units.

Covert Policing (SCD10) – This unit undertakes surveillance and related discreet policing tasks

Intelligence (SCD11) – The unit provides intelligence products for the rest of the service

MURDER INVESTIGATION TEAMS (MIT)

Murder Investigation Teams are specialized homicide squads of the London Metropolitan Police Service (as depicted in the ITV television police drama series called *MIT: Murder Investigation Team*). The teams deal with murder, manslaughter, attempted murder where the evidence of intent is seen as being unambiguous, or where the risk assessment identifies substantive risk to life. The teams were established in the year 2000 to replace the former Area Major Incident Pools (AMIPs) as part of Scotland Yard’s Serious Crime Group. In 2001, there were 31 teams operating in London; made up of 834 police officers, 182 civilian staff and 14 senior detectives.

In London today, murder investigation is undertaken by the Specialist Crime Directorate’s Homicide Command; that is split geographically into three units West, East and South. These three area units are led by a Detective Chief Superintendent. Each of the Command Units has nine Major Investigation Teams (MITs) that consists of 33 staff; they are led by a Detective Chief Inspector (DCI) who performs the role of Senior Investigating Officer (SIO).

THE CITY OF LONDON POLICE



CITY OF LONDON
POLICE

The City of London Police force is responsible for the City of London. The City of London force dates back to 1839, when the Corporation of London agreed to reform its police service to modern requirements: to stave off it being amalgamated into the wider, new Metropolitan Police Service. Historically, it is a direct successor to the Watch of the 13th Century. The City of London Police force has a beat size of less than one mile squared, and incorporates only three police stations (Snow Hill, Wood Street and Bishopsgate). The City of London Police force represents the size of a small territorial police force in the United Kingdom. It has 1,200 employees (including 900 police officers).

The current Commissioner is Dr James Hart QPM (2002 to Nov 05). The Commissioner made headlines worldwide after commenting on 10th of August 2005 that a terrorist attack on the financial district of London was inevitable. Other ranks include Police Constable (PC), Sergeant (Sgt or PS), Inspector (Insp), Chief Inspector (Ch Insp), Superintendent (Ch Supt), Chief Superintendent (Ch Supt), Commander (Cmdr) and Assistant Commissioner (AC).

The City of London police force favors a gold badge (over the traditional silver), they also have a unique red and white checkered sleeve and cap band formation. The prefix of ‘woman’ in WPC (Woman Police Constable) or WPS (Woman Police Sergeant) is no longer accepted practice.



BRITISH TRANSPORT POLICE



The British Transport Police (BTP) is a non-Home Office national police service that is responsible for policing the railway system throughout Great Britain. The service is also responsible for the policing of the London Underground system, the Docklands Light Railway, the Midland Metro and the Croydon Tramlink. The service is not, however, responsible for the policing activities on the Glasgow Underground, Tyne and Wear Metro or the Manchester Metro.

The service, as of 2003, had around 2,500 regular police officers, 250 special constables and around 1,000 support staff throughout England, Wales and Scotland. Northern Ireland doesn't have an extensive rail network, indeed, the responsibility for policing the Northern Ireland rail network falls to the Police Service of Northern Ireland.

The British Transport Police trace their history back to 1825, to the origins of the police service in Britain. It was judged that the developing railway system needed its own police retinue to protect the transit of cargo and passengers. At one time, every railway company had its own private police force, but they were eventually amalgamated when the formation of British Railways occurred in 1948. Predating the arrival of railways, the canals companies of Britain employed 'canal police' to protect their vital transport links – such as the Grand Surrey Canal 'bank rangers' from 1811 onwards.

Unlike its comparable regional police services, the British Transport Police receives no funding from the Home Office, and it also receives no funding from the central government machinery. Instead, the transport police are funded by the train companies (eg. Network Rail on the London Underground). This funding arrangement doesn't necessarily give the rail companies the power to set policing objectives, or is the BTP just a glorified private security company; the officers are bound by the same legal principles and procedures required of regular police officers.

The British Transport Police officers are constables with the same powers as constables of the Home Office (territorial) police forces. However, their jurisdiction is limited to their operator's railway property – territorial police have in reality the power throughout the United Kingdom. The exception to this rule is where they are investigating a crime, which was committed on railway property, or if they come across an emergency situation; where waiting for local police authorities would prove impracticable. Their uniforms and rank system is similar to that of other British police forces. Officers are often found wearing distinctive black jerseys with a black and white diced pattern on the yoke.

The *Railways and Transport Safety Act 2003* created a Police Authority to oversee the British Transport Police.

CIVIL NUCLEAR CONSTABULARY



The Civil Nuclear Constabulary (CNC) is an armed non-Home Office police force that is charged with protecting civil nuclear installations and substances in the United Kingdom. It was established on the 1st of April 2005 and is a replacement for the former United Kingdom Atomic Energy Authority Constabulary that was established in 1955. Its remit doesn't include the guarding of nuclear weapons, this is the jurisdiction of the British Armed forces and the Ministry of Defence Police.

The role of the CNC is to police and protect civilian nuclear sites and materials in the United Kingdom, as well as escorting such materials when they are transported overseas to the United States, Europe and Japan. The CNC has around 650 personnel at its disposal (*circa 2005*).

The constabulary is led by Chief Constable Bill Pryke (*Nov 05*) and is authorized by the *Energy Act 2004* with its own Police Authority. The Authority falls under the remit of the Department of Trade and Industry rather than the Home Office (like other police authorities). All CNC officers are trained to the same standards as other UK police forces, although they maintain a limited jurisdiction. Unlike their other UK counterparts - both Home Office and Territorial police forces, and non-Home Office police forces (such as the British Transport Police - CNC officers are routinely armed.

NATIONAL CRIMINAL INTELLIGENCE SERVICE (NCIS)

The NCIS was set up in April 1992 to provide law enforcement agencies with criminal intelligence and information, nationally and internationally. The service was formed out of the *National Drugs Intelligence Unit* in the Home Office. The NCIS is a non-departmental public body funded by the Home Office. The agency takes the lead role in providing information regarding major criminals and serious crimes to local police; its remit covers issues like homicide, sexual offences, armed robbery and drug trafficking. The service is one of the leading such services in Europe. It deals with the development of criminal intelligence on a national basis and has 500 staff drawn from Police, Customs and Excise and the Home Office. It aims to coordinate and aid law enforcement agencies, both home and abroad, with processing, analysis and the dissemination of information and guidance in the area of major criminal activity.

Apart from the Resources Division the NCIS comprises of the Headquarters (H.Q), the United Kingdom (U.K) and International Divisions. The H.Q Division includes an Operational Support unit, an Intelligence Coordination unit, Policy and Research unit and a Strategic Intelligence branch (whose unit's responsibilities vary from organized crime to football hooliganism). There are five regional offices in London, Birmingham, Bristol, Manchester and Wakefield that are overseen by the UK Division. This division also maintains the Scottish/Irish Liaison Unit, which is currently based in London.

The International Division incorporates the *UK National Centre Bureau of Interpol*, the *UK Europol National Unit*, the *UK European Drug Liaison Officer* network, the *UK Immigration Officer* network and hosts foreign liaison officers. The International Division manages the network of European Drugs Liaison Officers (DLOs) and they are linked up with the worldwide DLO network managed by Customs and Excise. The UK Bureau of Interpol is housed within this division, enabling NCIS to have direct access to Interpol's 176 member countries and the *Schengen Information System* (SIS). The service also works closely with Europol.

The NCIS incorporates a number of other established national units including the NDIU; it also liaises with regional intelligence officers. Modern terrorism and organized crime has become a multi-national concern; the NCIS and other similar initiatives around the world seek to create a cooperative focal point for police initiatives on a local, national and international level. The NCIS defines organized crime as satisfying four criteria: it contains at least three people; criminal activity is prolonged and indefinite; criminals are motivated by power or profit; and serious criminal offenses are being committed.

NCIS develops intelligence packages for many other agencies, including the National Crime Squad. The NCIS employs staff directly, but also seconds staff from over 25 partner agencies; like the police, HM Customs and Excise, HM Immigration Service, Inland Revenue, United Kingdom Passport Service, the Medicines Control Agency and the Financial Services Authority.

The NCIS also provides specialist facilities for investigators, such as target flagging, interception facilities and access to foreign law enforcement resources. The Specialist Intelligence Branch (SIB) provides strategic and tactical intelligence in specialized areas of organized crime. The NCIS has also developed knowledge products like the National Intelligence Model, which aims to standardize intelligence procedures throughout the United Kingdom.

Money laundering reports are made to the NCIS. The disclosure criteria of which was expanded by the *Proceeds of Crime Act 2002*, the NCIS received around 100,000 disclosures in 2003 – triple the previous year.

The NCIS has recently established the National Wildlife Crime Unit to tackle illegal trade in endangered species. The worldwide trade is estimated to exceed £3 billion pounds each year. It works closely in conjunction with the World Wildlife Fund to prevent the extinction of many of the world's rarest birds, fish, animals and insects.

NATIONAL CRIME SQUAD (NCS)

The National Crime Squad was formed in April 1998; it is the amalgamation of six former Regional Crime Squads. The National Crime Squad reports directly to the Home Office and now has national jurisdiction. Its remit does not include security issues. Its main focus is dealing with organized crime, major drug trafficking, murder for hire schemes, illegal arms dealing, human trafficking, computer and high tech crimes, money counterfeiting and laundering, extortion, kidnapping and murder. It also serves to augment and support regional police forces throughout the United Kingdom.

Its personnel are directly recruited or seconded for other British forces. The squad is headed by a Director-General and has its own service authority. Its headquarters is located in London, but has three Regional Operational Command Units (Northern, Eastern and Western). There are other units contained within the Squad, namely the Financial OCU, the Paedophilia Unit, the National Hi-Tech Crime Unit and the Immigration Crimes Team. There are approximately 1,700 full time personnel: including 5 Directors, 1100 seconded police officers and 300 civilian police staff.

SERIOUS ORGANIZED CRIME AGENCY (SOCA)



The creation of the merged Serious Organized Crime Agency (SOCA) was announced on February the 9th 2004. The Agency is expected to be in operation by April 2006, merging the National Crime Squad and the National Criminal Intelligence Service. Additionally, the investigative and intelligence sections of the HM Customs and Excise that deal with serious drug trafficking, and those in the HM Immigration Service who have responsibility for organized immigration crime will be incorporated into the new service. The agency is to be funded by the central government and it is projected to have around 5,000 investigators available for operations. It is provisionally expected that Sir Stephen Lander (former Director-General of MI5) will be its Head.

The remit of the newly formed service is to counteract organized crime including the illegal drug trade and people smuggling. The service will operate closely with the all UK police, intelligence agencies, the Asset Recovery Agency (ARA), HM Revenue and Customs (HMRC) and others. The new agency has been created by the enactment of the *Serious Organized Crime and Police Act 2005* (passed 24th November 2004). There have been parallels drawn between this combined service with the United States Federal Bureau of Investigations (the British press dubbing it the 'British FBI'). This is a bit of a misnomer, as the unit will not handle terrorism or murder cases.

SCOTTISH DRUG ENFORCEMENT AGENCY



Current Director: Graeme Pearson QPM MA (*Nov 05*)

Current Deputy Director: Robert Lauder (*Nov 05*)



The Scottish Drug Enforcement Agency (SDEA) was formally established in 1 April 2001. The Director of the SDEA reports to Scottish Ministers through the Police Services Board (CPSB). The Director is responsible for operational matters and is accountable to the relevant Scottish Ministers and the wider Parliament. There is also a Deputy Director. The funding for the Agency is overseen by the CPSB, looking at all aspects of financing, personnel management, development and general administration.

At an operational level, SDEA staff are in regular contact with all regional Scottish police forces. The Director consults with other leading police officials on a variety of issues; generally, through his role on the board of the Association of Chief Officers in Scotland (ACPOS) Council. The Council issues a bi-monthly report to the CPSB. The Director, through his membership of the ACPOS Crime Business Area board, also initiates and enters debate on the many strategic and tactical concerns that effect the Agency's role in current operations, and future developments.

The SDEA Headquarters is located at the Osprey House Complex, Paisley. This also accommodates the National Criminal Intelligence Service of Scotland and Northern Ireland Office, and HM Revenue & Customs. This is a unique arrangement within law enforcement circles in the United Kingdom. It seeks to assist in developing better working relationships between the departments, and is thought to improve communications between disparate elements of Government beyond the scope of just law enforcement.

Since its inception in 2001, the SDEA has become a premier European agency in creating systems, procedures and practice to deal with drug trafficking and other forms of serious and organized crimes. As recently as 22nd December 2005, the SDEA in cooperation with HM Revenue & Customs seized a haul of 182kg of cannabis with an estimated street value of £910,000.



DRUG STRATEGY UNIT

The Drug Strategy Unit is responsible for facilitating the Scottish Police Service's contribution to the non-law enforcement avenues of dealing with drug misuse in Scotland. The trend towards harm minimization strategies to deal with habitual users is part of the remit of this organization, in as much as developing community strategies to reduce the need for the invention by police services in what is essentially a social issue. The Unit does extensive reporting and analytical work to produce stimulus for the broad cross-section of interested parties (i.e. counseling, law enforcement agencies, voluntary groups and authorities). The Unit maintains the Scottish Drugs Death Database and produces reports of the findings of trends related to drug deaths.

The Unit also collaborates with academics like the University of Glasgow's Department of Forensic Medicine and Science to gain additional specialist expertise in researching the drug culture in Scotland. The Unit produces a quarterly Drug Trend Bulletin that contains information received from the Scottish Police Forces and other law enforcement partners on emerging drug trends. Finally, the Unit also issues Special Alert Bulletins and Early Warning health information circulars regarding time sensitive updates on bad batches of drugs hitting the streets (potentially causes deaths), and any particular health issues related to new forms of illegal narcotics.

SCOTTISH MONEY LAUNDERING UNIT

The Scottish Money Laundering Unit (SMLU) was formed as an integral part of the SDEA in September 2001. This multi-agency unit incorporates representatives of the Agency, National Criminal Intelligence Service (NCIS) and the HM Revenue & Customs (HMRC). Its remit is to actively target the assets of criminals and criminal organizations who engage in trafficking, and other serious crimes and organized crimes in Scotland. It is also important that they undertake their work in congruence with the law, to obtain legal confiscation of assets through the courts and proceed with binding charges.

The SMLU is also the single point of contact for the Scottish Police Service investigating suspicious financial transactions as disclosed to the NCIS Economic Crime Branch by banks, building societies, accountants, lawyers and other institutions. The Unit carries out the initial evaluation of reported suspicious financial transactions, identifies intelligence links and forwards any suspicious financial transaction reports to the appropriate Scottish Police force and/or partner agency.

NATIONAL HI-TECH CRIME UNIT

The National Hi-Tech Crime Unit (Scotland) (NHTCU(S)) was transferred from the Lothian and Borders Police on 1st April 2003. The Unit is primarily concerned with areas of serious and organized criminality facilitated by computer and other emerging forms of information technology. The Unit has developed solid partnerships with other law enforcement agencies, private industry representatives and informed members of the general public, in order to carry out their investigations.

The Unit also provides specialist technical support to the Scottish Police Service; they also undertake proactive inquiries into emerging IT trends, and continue to research, evaluate and develop new techniques to meet the challenges of the highly fluid online world of cyber-crime.

The Unit maintains a close working relationship with the UK based National Hi-Tech Crime Unit and other similar units around the world – the threat of organized cyber crime being truly a global concern.

SCOTTISH WITNESS LIAISON UNIT

The Scottish Witness Liaison Unit (SWLU) was transferred to the SDEA from Strathclyde Police on 1st April 2004. The remit of the SWLU is to provide the appropriate level of support and assistance to witnesses who become involved in the criminal justice system, and maybe subjected to varied forms of intimidation.

The SWLU provides its services to all Scottish Police Forces and law enforcement agencies, in cases where the witness is considered to be under significant or serious threat. In such cases, generally a referral is made to the SWLU and an assessment is made on a case-by-case basis. The Unit will provide a suitable level of coverage to the witness in the areas of technical support (tracking devices et al), possible relocation and/or providing a new identity.

The security and safety of the witness is the cornerstone of the service provided by the SWLU, and it hopes to ensure the witness can provide their evidence to Court without retribution.

POLICE SERVICE OF NORTHERN IRELAND



The Police Service of Northern Ireland (PSNI) was created on Sunday, November the 4th 2001. It was established as the successor to the Royal Ulster Constabulary as a result of a Policing Review set up under the Good Friday Agreement. The agreement required the creation of an Independent Commission on Policing for Northern Ireland. The Commission became known as the *Patten Commission* after its high-profile chairman, Chris Patten. Despite the new police service being a direct response to concerns over the control and legitimacy of the new force, Sinn Féin, who represents around a quarter of the voters in Northern Ireland, has yet endorse the PSNI. The group has withheld its support until such time as all of Patten's recommendations are 'implemented in full'. The other major nationalist party in the north, known as the SDLP, has joined the Police Board and is satisfied that the Patten recommendations are being steadily implemented. The issues related to running a police service that covers Northern Ireland aren't too dissimilar to the wider problems hindering the power-sharing arrangements within the province.

The PSNI has a deliberate discriminatory policy of recruiting officers from a Roman Catholic background 50% and from other religious denominations 50%. This is in direct response to the legacy of the Royal Ulster Constabulary (the former police service) that favored Protestants. The name and the symbols of the organization are explicitly neutral as to not alienate either major religious community within the country. The badge features the saltire of St Patrick, and six symbols representing different and shared traditions (crown, harp, shamrock, scales of justice, torch and a laurel leaf).

In May 2005, the PSNI service took delivery of its first helicopter, a Eurocopter EC 135; mainly utilized for pursuits, missing persons searches, and managing parades and demonstrations. The former RUC service relied heavily upon the British Army for its own aviation needs.

The Chief Constable is the senior officer in charge of the running of the PSNI. The current Chief Constable is Sir Hugh Orde OBE (appointed 29th of May 2002). (*current Nov05*)



Garda Síochána is the national police force of the Republic of Ireland; the full name of the service roughly translates as ‘The Guardians of the Peace of Ireland’. It was originally called ‘The Civic Guard’ in English. Today, it is commonly known as the Garda Síochána or simply as Garda or Gardai. The term Garda is used to describe the entire police service as an entity; whilst *gardai* is a plural Irish word used to describe collective members of the service. The term *guards*, is often used colloquially to describe its members. A singular officer (female or male) is simply called a *garda* or ‘guard’.

Garda Síochána is the Irish National Police Service, it has its headquarter in Phoenix Park, located in Dublin City. The general direction, management and control of An Garda Síochána is the responsibility of the Commissioner; who is appointed by the Government. The Commissioner is responsible to the Minister for Justice, Equality & Law Reform; with this Minister responsible to the Dáil (the Irish Legislature). The Commissioner is responsible for the day-to-day running of the service; who is required to discharge his/her responsibilities within the rule of law, legal regulation and in accordance with best practice and procedure.

The Commissioner has a management team comprising of two Deputy Commissioners and ten Assistant Commissioners. The Deputies advise the Commander on policy matters and also have functional responsibility for some of these areas.

Deputy Commissioner Operations co-ordinates the activities of the Assistant Commissioner, Crime & Security and Assistant Commissioner and National Support Services. The Deputy additionally has responsibilities in orchestrating the activities of each Assistant Commissioner in charge of their respective Regions.

The Deputy Commissioner Strategic and Resource Management co-ordinates the activities of two Assistant Commissioners, one being responsible for Human Resource Management, and the other responsible for Strategy/Services. A Civilian Director of Finance reports to the Deputy Commissioner Strategic and Resource Management.

The service ranks its officers as follows:

- Chief Superintendent
- Superintendent
- Inspector
- Sergeant
- Garda
- Students*

* The service requires students to undertake college based training, but also requires them to perform assorted clerical duties at their assigned Garda station to gain experience.

There are approximately 1,000 civilian support staff, including a Chief Medical Officer as part of the Force. These civilian posts include a diverse range of professionals; such as administrative staff, accounting staff, drivers, information technology experts, photographers, researchers and teachers.

UNARMED OR ARMED?

The uniformed members of the Garda Síochána do not carry firearms. The guards are generally equipped with wooden or synthetic truncheons; the philosophy being, greater force can generate greater threat to the officer. The first Commissioner, Michael Staines states, “The Garda Síochána will succeed not by force of arms or numbers, but on their moral authority as servants of the people”. However, a recent government report suggests 3,000 out of 12,000 members of the Force are now armed (including members of the ERU and Special Branch).



GEOGRAPHIC LAYOUT

For policing activities the country is divided into six Regions (Dublin Metropolitan, Eastern, Northern, Southern, South-East and Western); each of these is commanded by a Regional Assistant Commissioner. The duties of the Regional Assistant Commissioners are generally operational issues; they are responsible for ensuring the operational efficiency and the quality of operational management by their subordinate Divisional and District Officers.

Each of these regions is divided into Divisions commanded by a Chief Superintendent, and each Division is further subdivided into Districts commanded by a Superintendent. The Superintendent is usually assisted in operations by a number of Inspectors. The Districts are divided into sub-districts, each of which is normally the responsibility of a Sergeant. Each sub-District usually has only one station, the strength varying from around 3 to 100 Gardai. Some of the smaller stations are known as sub-stations, which for greater administrative efficiency are partnered with a larger, parent station. These sub-stations are usually maintained by one solitary Garda member. There are some 703 Garda Stations throughout the country.

The basic command unit is a District, and a Superintendent is in charge (also known as the District Officer). The District Officer is specifically responsible for the licensing of hotels and bars, the issuing of firearms certificates. Outside of the Dublin Metropolitan Region, each Division operates a dedicated Traffic Unit that has responsibility for the maintenance and enforcement of traffic regulations. Each of the Districts also has its own Detective Unit, staffed by plain-clothes detectives.

THE SCOTT MEDAL

The Scott Medal for Bravery is the highest honour for bravery and valour bestowed to any member of the service. It was first established and funded by General Walter Scott, and honorary Commissioner from the New York Police Department: the medal was established to mark the links between the services. The Commissioner chooses the recipients and the award is presented by the Minister for Justice.

OVERSEAS DUTIES

Since 1989, An Garda Síochána has undertaken United Nations peace-keeping duties. Its first mission was a fifty-strong contingent sent to Namibia. Over the last decade, the Garda has sent forces to Angola, Cambodia, Cyprus, Mozambique, South Africa and the former Yugoslavia. The service had its first fatality in May 1995, whilst on duty in Sarajevo.

DUBLIN METROPOLITAN REGION

The Dublin Metropolitan Region is made up of the City and the County of Dublin, but also incorporates small land holdings in neighboring County Kildare to the west, and County Wicklow to the South. The region occupies some 950 square kilometers and has a population of around one million residents.

The city of Dublin was originally policed by the Dublin Metropolitan Police, a force founded in 1836. It operated independently even after the foundation of the Free State in 1922, before finally being incorporated into the An Garda Síochána in 1925.

Dublin has additional requirements, being a Capital city. It is the seat of Government (President) and it is the home to many foreign embassies and consular offices. It plays host to many international events that draw massive crowds. The city of Dublin also has a sizable urban area.

GARDA BUREAU OF FRAUD INVESTIGATIONS

The Garda Bureau of Fraud Investigations (GBFI) was established in April 1995. The unit is based at Harcourt Square in Dublin. Its remit involves the investigation of fraud throughout Ireland, principally dealing with the more complex cases (organized crime and corporate crime).

The primary objectives of the GBFI include:

- The investigation of serious cases of commercial fraud, cheque and credit card fraud, computer fraud, money laundering offences and counterfeit currency
- To collate information and intelligence and to act as a resource center for fraud related matters
- To play a pro-active role in the prevention and detection of fraud

There are five separate sections within the Bureau:

Assessment Unit – This section examines and analyses all complaints at an early stage and decides what matters should be investigated by local Garda, or by one of the Bureau's specialist units

Commercial Fraud – This section deals with the more complex cases of fraud involving Banks, Insurance Companies, et al

Money Laundering – This section specializes in investigating money laundering offences in relation to the *Criminal Justice Act* of 1994. Often the section has to liaise with other police units around the world in multi-jurisdictional cases

Cheque/Credit Card Fraud – This section deals with larger cheque and credit card fraud cases

Computer Crime – This section deals with computer related crime; it includes the National Reference Center for Garda that assists local Garda branches with technical knowledge and equipment needs

GARDA NATIONAL DRUGS UNIT

The Garda National Drugs Unit (GNDU) was established in 1995. The unit is based at Dublin Castle in Dublin. The Unit was primarily set-up in response to the growing rise of international drug trafficking; generally, at the behest of organized crime gangs. The GNDU seeks to combat this illegal trade with specialist training of its staff, liaisoning with other National and International drug agencies and providing support services and training for local Garda police. It is under the command of a Chief Superintendent, and has over fifty detectives at its disposal.



The unit is in regular correspondence with the following:

- Criminal Assets Bureau
- Other Garda Specialist Units
- Customs National Drugs Team
- Irish Navy
- Regional Drugs Units throughout the Country
- Interpol
- Europol
- Foreign Police & Customs Services

To facilitate this cooperation, Ireland has Drug Liaison Officers in Spain and Holland. It also has Officers permanently based at Interpol in Lyon, and at Europol in The Hague; and it is also represented on various European Committees looking into the varied aspects of the drug problem.

The GNDU is also involved in the area of Demand Reduction, and provides lectures and advice to groups like the Residents' Association, and the wider public. The Unit is involved in the Government's National Drug Strategy Team and involved with Local Drug Task Force initiatives. These varied bodies help to devise pertinent strategies to reduce the demand for drugs.

GARDA NATIONAL IMMIGRATION BUREAU

The Garda National Immigration Bureau (GNIB) was established in May 2000, and it is responsible for all Garda operations pertaining to immigration offences within its borders. The GNIB is headed up by a Detective Chief Superintendent; the subordinates include 2 Superintendents, 3 Inspectors, 8 Sergeants and 55 Garda Officers. The Bureau also has 34 civilian support staff.

The Bureau was formed to deal with the rising incidence of persons registering with the former Immigration and Registration Office. In 1998 over 12,000 people registered; growing exponentially to over 56,000 in 2001.

The duties of the Bureau members includes the carrying out of deportation orders that are issued by the Minister for Justice, Equality and Law Reform. The GNIB is located in the former Irish Press Newspaper Office in Burgh Quay, in central Dublin. Within the same building are housed the offices of the Immigration Section of the Department of Justice, Equality and Law Reform, and the Visa Section of the Department of Foreign Affairs.

Since September 2001, the Immigration Unit at Dublin Airport has become an integral part of GNIB operations. The Immigration Unit compromises of one Inspector, 6 Sergeants and 46 Garda officers. Apart from the Bureau's own presence, there are also other Garda officers assigned to Immigration duties at all sea and airports in the country; at all Garda District Headquarters Stations outside of Dublin; and on a random basis, along its borders with Northern Ireland.

SPECIAL DETECTIVE UNIT (SDU)

The Special Detective Unit's key responsibilities include:

- State Protection
- Monitoring the activities of subversive and extremist groups
- Investigation of subversive and terrorist crime, both national and international
- Protection of VIPs
- Protection of cash in transit
- Provision of armed response
- Operation of Witness Security Programme

The Unit also includes the highly trained and equipped specialist armed intervention unit, the Emergency Response Unit (ERU). Its primary responsibility is resolving hostage-type situations and responding to situations involving armed resistance.

The Special Detective Unit has intensified its efforts in monitoring groups (and individuals) currently within its jurisdiction suspected of involvement with international terrorism since the September 11th attacks on New York. The SDU has had some success in dealing with home-grown terrorism; having arrested senior members of the Continuity IRA and Real IRA.

NATIONAL BUREAU OF CRIMINAL INVESTIGATIONS

The National Bureau of Criminal Investigations (NBCI) is headed by a Detective Chief Superintendent, who reports to the Assistant Commissioner of National Support Services. The Bureau was established in 1997 with the amalgamation of a number of national investigation units. It is based at Harcourt Street in Dublin.

The National Investigations remit includes:

- Murder
- Stolen Motor Vehicles and Plant
- Serious & Organized Crime
- Theft of Computer Components
- Anti-Racketeering
- Arts and Antiques Thefts
- Domestic Violence and Serious Sexual Assault
- Postal and Telegraphy Thefts and Fraud
- Pedophile Investigations
- Intellectual Property Rights Violations

MURDER, SERIOUS AND ORGANIZED CRIME

Although the responsibility for the investigation of all such crimes rests solely with the local Garda officers, the National Bureau of Criminal Investigation renders assistance to serious investigations through its range of expertise and information available at the Bureau.

The Bureau staff can assist in all aspect of the investigation including the preliminary enquiries; case management; Incident Room management; general investigation; file preparation and other ancillary aspects of a criminal investigation. Specialist investigation teams within the NBCI may carry out these tasks as requested by the local Garda officers, or on the direction of senior Garda management.

The Bureau is also concerned with ongoing intelligence gathering activities in relation to known criminal suspects.



ANTI-RACKETEERING UNIT

The protection of intellectual property rights is the main focus of the Anti-Racketeering Unit. It takes a structured and coordinated approach to tackling the problems of counterfeit products. It liaises on a national basis with investigating Garda. It also provides community awareness of the value of Intellectual Property Rights and assists local Garda with the relevant knowledge in the prosecution of such crimes.

ARTS AND ANTIQUES UNIT

The Arts and Antiques Unit seeks to heighten the awareness in the community of this type of theft and provides local Garda with specialist expertise in the investigation of this type of crime. The Unit maintains close relations with the Arts and antique dealers, museums and galleries worldwide.

STOLEN MOTOR VEHICLE INVESTIGATIONS UNIT

The Stolen Motor Vehicle Investigation Unit (SMVIU) investigates the theft of motor vehicles, plant/machinery and related crimes. Such crimes today are increasingly been perpetuated today by organized crime groups. The geographic location of Ireland ensures that most of its motor vehicle and plant/machinery thefts are generally associated primarily with the United Kingdom.

The primary focus of the Stolen Vehicle Investigation Unit is the coordination of information and intelligence related to motor vehicle theft and related crimes on a national basis. The Unit also targets suspected groups and individuals and maintains regular liaisons with the motor industry, insurance companies, car hire companies, car auctions and with similar police investigations units in other jurisdictions. The Unit is also involved with community initiatives against car thefts, and maintains a relationship with the media to assist in the dissemination of such initiatives.

The SMVIU also contributes information and staff to assist in ongoing Europol and Interpol operations and initiatives. The Garda Síochána also has instant access to the Stolen Vehicle Databases of 63 countries around the world. As a result, the Unit has identified and seized a considerable number of vehicles stolen in Japan, the United Kingdom and to a lesser extent, mainland Europe and the United States.



DOMESTIC VIOLENCE AND SEXUAL ASSAULT INVESTIGATIONS UNIT

The Domestic Violence and Sexual Assault Investigations Unit (DVSAIU) provides advice, guidance and assistance in the investigation of child sexual abuse, other sexual crimes and domestic violence. The Unit may take the lead in more complex cases or incidence of systematic abuse.

The DVSAIU is also available to assist other Government Departments, state bodies and voluntary groups dealing in such issues. The Unit embraces a multi-agency approach to tackling the social causes leading to such crimes, and it is proactive in developing strategies to reduce the incidence of such cases. A primary consideration of Garda operations is the area of the protection and welfare of the child/children. It seeks to ensure that such alleged incidence are thoroughly investigated and brought to the courts' attention; the DVSAIU often gives guidance to help investigating detectives from other units.

The Unit has been involved in an on-going Europol training module; involving police investigators from all of the fifteen E.U Member States. The training focuses on combating child pornography on the Internet. The global reach of child pornography via the web demands a coordinated international response.

The *Sex Offenders Act* of 2001 contains certain notification requirements that impose categorization upon convicted sex offenders. The Domestic Violence and Sexual Assault Investigation Unit has a central role in the proper operation of this legislative requirement.

CRIMINAL ASSETS BUREAU

The Criminal Assets Bureau was established as a Statutory Body pursuant to *the Criminal Assets Bureau Act* 1996 on the 15th October 1996. It forms part of the National Support Services Branch.

The Bureau is a multi-agency staffed unit composed of seconded staff from An Garda Síochána, Revenue Commissioners Taxes, Revenue Commissioners, Customs and the Department of Social, Community & Family Affairs. The Bureau is headed by the Chief Bureau Officer, who is a Chief Superintendent of An Garda Síochána, who reports to the Commissioner on the performance and functions of the Bureau. An annual report is prepared and submitted (along with other divisional reports) by the Garda Commissioner to the Minister for Justice, Equality and Law Reform; it is subsequently tabled in both Houses of the Oireachtas in accordance with the Act.

The primary objective of the Bureau is the identification of assets, wherever situated, of persons, which derive or are suspected to derive directly or indirectly from criminal activity. The Bureau has the primary responsibility to take appropriate action under the law to deprive or deny those persons of the assets, and the proceeds of illegal activities. Unlike most other specialist Garda branches, the Criminal Assets Bureau has primacy in investigations related to its remit.

The Bureau has been effective in seizing illegally obtained assets. It has the right to freeze and confiscate, through Court proceedings, assets and other wealth, including real estate, vehicles, cash and other property. It generally targets organized crime.

The Bureau maintains close relations with other European and international fraud and organized crime police agencies, and others units concerned with tracing and seizing illegally obtained assets or wealth.

GARDA RESEARCH UNIT

The Garda Research Unit was established in 1994. Its main function is to carry out research relevant to policing in Ireland. The Unit carries out research into crime and criminology; Garda management and development; and into the changing role of the Garda Síochána in society.

The Research Unit is based at the Garda College in Templemore, and has seven permanent staff at its disposal. The Head of Research reports directly to the Assistant Commissioner in charge of Human Resource Management. The work of the Unit is also guided by the dictates of the Research Advisory Committee, which comprises of representatives of Garda management and operations, Government Departments and relevant academics.

The Research Unit operates under the Mission Statement: "To contribute to the objectives of the Garda Síochána by carrying out police related research, by supporting research by others and by making research findings widely available."

In recent years, the Research Unit has reported upon things such as the level of cocaine usage in Ireland, Garda interactions with the gay and lesbian community, and the implementation of Garda policy in respect to victims of crime.

HER MAJESTY'S REVENUE AND CUSTOMS



Her Majesty's Revenue and Customs is a new department of the British Government that merges the functions of the Inland Revenue agency and Her Majesty's Customs and Excise. This newly merged department came into effective on the 18th of June 2005. Most of the functions of the previous departments are still retained under the new umbrella organization; the merger was undertaken to provide efficiency gains and to reduce the civil service: some 12,500 jobs are expected to be lost.

The principle functions of the merged department remains the collection of direct taxes (income tax and corporation tax), indirect taxes (like value added tax) and import controls. It also seeks to safeguard national insurance contributions, the distribution of child benefits and administration of other select forms of state support.

The merger was announced by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Gordon Brown, in the Budget of 17th of March, 2004. Various bills were introduced during 2004 to update the Acts regarding the operation of the new department; including the *Commissioners for Revenue and Customs Act 2005*, which created the Revenue and Customs Prosecutions Office (RCPO) that is responsible for the prosecution of all Revenue and Customs cases.

The two merged departments have different historical bases, internal cultures and legal powers. For the interim, those working in select departments only have jurisdiction over their own areas of expertise: Inland Revenue (income tax, stamp duty and tax credits) and HMRC (value added tax and excise duties). There is, however, a major review taking place looking at the suitability of existing powers, new powers and consolidation of existing powers. They are also looking at current surcharges; interest and penalties rates; and rights of appeal.

The main aim of the combined service is to reduce the £30 billion tax gap (difference between tax paid and what is due); the combined department should be able to cross-check Government information more effectively and theoretically, make savings. The reduction in personnel is seen by many commentators as less about efficiency gains, than job cuts.

CUSTOMS & EXCISE

Traditionally, the Customs & Excise service dealt with the collection of value-added tax, customs duties, excise duties, and other indirect taxes such as air passenger duty, climate change levy, insurance premiums tax, landfill tax, and aggregates levy. It was also responsible for the management of the import and export of goods and services into the United Kingdom. The role of a customs and excise officer is similar to that of the U.S Coast Guard, in that they actively police the entry points into the UK. They have the authority throughout the country to enter and search premises and arrest those breaking customs and excise laws. In reality, such raids are undertaken with the assistance of police authorities, MI5 and various Special Branch divisions.

CUSTOMS

The genesis of the Board of Customs can be traced back to the first centralized customs system established in England, called the Winchester Assize in 1203-04. During the reign of King John, customs (meaning any customary payments or dues of any kind) were collected and paid to the State Treasury. The Board of Customs was effectively created by ordinance on the 21st of January 1643.

EXCISE

The Board of Excise levies duties on goods at the time of manufacture, such as alcoholic drinks and tobacco products; however, historically such levies have existed on other consumer products like salt, paper and glass. The Board of Excise was established by the Long Parliament and excises levied in 1643. The board was merged in 1849 with the existing Board of Taxes and Board of Stamps to create the Board of Inland Revenue.

The Board of Customs and Excise was created in 1909 with the transfer of responsibility for Excise from the Board of Inland Revenue.

6. RELEVANT LAWS

OVERVIEW

The following section outlines some the terrorist laws in Great Britain and Ireland. Also discussed are things such as DA Notices, the Official Secrets Act and Intelligence Services Acts.

DA NOTICES



DA Notices (Defence Advisory Notices) are issued by the Department of Defence, Press and Broadcasting Advisory Committee as a means of providing official guidance to those areas that the UK Government regard as sensitive to the maintenance of national security. These notices are widely distributed to editors, producers and publishers, and also to officials from various Government departments, military commanders, chief constables and some select private institutions. The notices have no legal standing and the advice may be accepted or rejected, partly or wholly.

In reality, the advice offered is extremely important to journalists in undertaking sensitive investigations; there have been many DA notices issued in the current war climate of 2005, and many journalists have been harassed for not complying, or threatened with imprisonment. British law does not intrinsically protect the right to free speech; in fact, the environment is often hostile to those wishing to express controversial views.

OFFICIAL SECRETS ACT 1989 [C.6]



The amended *Official Secrets Act* of 1989 covers many areas of government operations. These areas include security and intelligence; defence; crime and special investigation authorities; and diplomatic relations. There are serious penalties for breaking the tenants of this Act. Most senior government officials (regardless of the sensitivity of the department) sign the act; all soldiers are also bound by the Act. Police authorities and diplomatic agents are all bound to uphold government law and therefore, the tenants of this Act. In recent years, many former intelligence officers and elite soldiers have run into serious legal trouble for disclosing information whilst writing their memoirs. There is often a very tortuous procedure for getting the necessary clearance for their written works. David Shayler, a former MI5 whistle-blower and anti-terrorist officer, has been imprisoned for unwarranted disclosures in the past. The government administers the Act proactively and stringently. The Act is very important to the everyday activities of embassy staff and foreign attachés stationed at sensitive posts; at such posts, it is often *necessary to go out of one's way* to be seen to be above suspicion.

The *Official Secrets Act* 1989 (chapter 6) repeals the *public interest defence* in section 2 of the *Official Secrets Act* of 1911. The actual basis of the Act is that people working with secret information (sensitive information) agree to abide by the restrictions of the *Official Secrets Act*. It is commonly referred to as 'signing the *Official Secrets Act*'. Signing it has no legal effect; it is generally intended to be a reminder to the person that they are under specific obligations in working for the government: there requires no actual acknowledgement other than the signing of a government employment contract. Ergo, they are now compelled to act within its tenants of the Act. In reality, some ceremony is usually instigated before and after the period of employment to remind the individual.

The Act applies in England, Wales, Northern Ireland, the Isle of Man, the Channel Islands, and in overseas crown territories and colonies. Mirror legislation applies in Scotland. However, the terms of the Act also apply to the affected persons worldwide.

The various sections cover different areas of government operation:

Section 1 - Applies to the disclosure of security and intelligence information; primarily designed to cover intelligence work

Section 2 - Applies to the disclosure of defence information; this section applies only to crown servants and government contractors

Section 3 – Applies to the disclosure of information regarding international relations; designed to cover crown servants and government contractors only

Section 4 – Applies to the disclosure of law enforcement information what would assist criminals or the commission of crime. This applies to crown servants and government contractors only

Section 5 - Applies to the disclosure or publication of information obtained in contravention of other sections of the Act. This applies mainly to the prosecution of journalists who may publish information leaked to them by a crown servant or government contractor; although, this section applies to all citizens passing on such information

Section 6 – Applies to secret information belonging to a foreign government or international organizations; this section is intended to protect secrets jointly held by the government and another foreign power like in the operations of NATO or Interpol

Section 7 – This section defines the circumstances under which the disclosure of secret information, is considered to be officially published: it is not a crime to disclose information that is officially published

Section 8 – This section sets out that it is a crime for a crown servant or government contractor to retain information beyond their official need for it, and obligates them to properly protect secret information from accidental disclosure

Section 9 – This section limits the circumstances under which a prosecution under the Act may take place. Prosecutions under Section 4 require the permission of the Director of Public Prosecutions, or the equivalent in Northern Ireland. Prosecutions under other sections require the permission of the Attorney General, or the equivalent in Northern Ireland

Section 10 –This section sets the penalties for contravention of the Act. Persons convicted under sections 4,5 or 6 are subject to six months in prison and a fine; persons convicted under other sections are subject to two years imprisonment and a fine

Section 11 – This section amends existing police legislation, making contravention of the Act an arrestable offense, and allows for the issuance of search warrants

Section 12 – This defines who is a crown servant and government contractor. This includes civil servants, members of the government, members of the armed forces and their reserve equivalents (includes Territorial Army), police officers, and employees and contract employees of government departments and agencies defined by the Home Secretary

Section 15 – This section makes it a crime for British citizens and crown servants to disclose information abroad, which would be illegal for them to do so in the UK. This section is intended to cover espionage and cases where someone travels to a foreign country to disclose sensitive information. The terms of this section do not apply to disclosures covered by sections 4,5 and 8. This section was contravened famously by former MI5 officer and whistleblower David Shayler, who subsequently was arrested in France and returned to Britain.

Note: Sections 12.13.14 and 16 are contained in the Act of technical reasons.

In order for a crime to be committed, the following conditions must apply:

1. The disclosure must not be by means permitted in Section 7
2. The person making the disclosure must know, or *should* know, that their disclosure is unauthorized
3. The disclosure must cause harm to the UK or its interests, or it is reasonable to believe it could
4. The person making the disclosure must know, or *should* know, that harm could occur

The sections related to crown servants, intelligence officers, and government contractors apply only to information obtained by the person during the official duties; these sections don't apply if the information was obtained by other means, but Section 5 might be pertinent).

INTELLIGENCE SERVICES ACT 1994 (C.13)

The *Intelligence Services Act* was created to, ‘make provisions about the Secret Intelligence Service and the Government Communications Headquarters, including provisions for the issue of warrants and authorizations enabling certain actions to be taken’. The Act formalized the roles of MI5 and GCHQ, and makes them accountable for their activities. The Secret Intelligence Service (MI6) was finally, officially acknowledged by the government two years before the Act was introduced. The Act also formalized the process of the issuance of warrants and the authorization process. It established the Intelligence and Security Committee to scrutinize the operations and expenditure of all three services. It established the framework that makes the intelligence services responsible for approaching their activities in a formal, lawful way. No longer can evidence be submitted for prosecutions gathered in unlawful ways. It also established a formal system of complaints and an independent body to administer these complaints: The Commissioner and the Tribunal.

ISSUING OF WARRANTS

The Act provides for a system of ministerial warrants, which authorize the three services to enter or interfere with property, or wireless telephony. The service can apply to the Secretary of State to issue a warrant: MI5 and GCHQ to the Home Secretary, and MI6 to the Foreign Secretary. The minister must be satisfied of three things before issuing a warrant. Firstly, the information to be obtained must be of substantial value. Secondly, the information cannot be reasonably obtained from other sources or activities. Finally, appropriate arrangements for undertaking the activity are to be in force under s2 (2)(a) Security Service Act 1989 and under s2(2)(a) and s4(2)(a) of the 1994 Act – (s5(2)). The third condition provides for limitations on the actions allowable under the Act. The Act seeks to ensure that activities undertaken by the services under these warrants are lawful, and that the proper discharge and disclosure of any information gained in the process of exercising the warrant is adhered to.

If the three conditions are satisfied, the minister ‘may’ issue a warrant; there is no obligation imposed on the minister. Warrants are issued at his/her discretion.

ACTIONS PERMITTED UNDER WARRANT

S5(1) permits the ‘entry’ or ‘interference with property or with wireless telephony’. The 1994 Act only provides a definition of ‘interference’ in relation to wireless telephony (s11(e)). A reasoned conclusion is that this statute; therefore, permits the widest array of actions available in relation to property searches, copying of papers and bugging).

The warrants issued pertaining to the interference of property, including forced entry, require that the national security or economic well-being of the nation are seen to be at stake. As such, only organized crime, suspected terrorism and drug trafficking would tangibly fit the criteria. As the system stands, the minister is required to know a great deal about the ‘substantive’ nature of the information to be gained by the issuance of the warrant; proponents suggest that the minister could easily be led into issuing unwarranted, warrants.

TERRORISM ACT 2000



In 2000, the British Government sought to clarify and repeal various outdated terrorism acts, namely the *Prevention of Terrorism (Temporary Provisions) Act 1989* and the *Northern Ireland (Emergency Provisions) Act 1996*. As you can see from the titles of these Acts, these repealed Acts are in relation to the threat of terrorism instigated by the IRA and separatist movements, since their bombing campaigns started in the early 1970s. The thrust of the new Act was to firstly, clarify the definition of terrorism in law. Secondly, the Act sought to define the training of others in terrorist-like activities involving firearms, explosives or chemical, biological or nuclear weapons, as unlawful. The Act details a list of proscribed groups as unlawful terrorist organizations (including local and international groups). Groups like Liberty (UK civil rights group) have reported cases where they believe the law has been abused by police authorities.

PREVENTION OF TERRORISM ACT 2005



The *Prevention of Terrorism Act 2005* was created in response to the Law Lords' ruling of 16th of December 2004, that the detention without trial of nine foreigners at HM Prison Belmarsh under the *Anti-terrorism, Crime and Security Act 2001* was unlawful: and being incompatible with European Human Rights Laws.

The controversial aspect of this Act is that the Home Secretary can impose 'control orders' on people suspected of involvement of terrorism, or training.

After the September 11 attacks in 2001, the *Terrorism Act* of 2000 was thought to be too restrictive by police authorities to deal with this new threat. The key feature of the new *Anti-Terrorism, Crime and Security Act 2001* was that resident foreigners could be interned without trial; if they couldn't be deported to their native country, because it didn't practice comparable human rights policies: they might be tortured or have a death penalty imposed at home. Therefore, several individuals were detained indefinitely under this law at HM Prison Belmarsh. They were free to leave, if they left the country immediately. After the unlawful ruling against the Government, a new bill was introduced in February 22nd of 2005 (*the Anti-Terrorism, Crime and Security Act 2001* is now repealed). This Bill was modified so that the Home Secretary could now make 'control orders' for people suspected of involvement in terrorism. This basically allows for individuals to be put under house arrest; restricting their access to mobile telephones and the internet; and requiring visitors be named in advance, so they can be vetted by MI5.

After a great deal of political and moral wrangling took place in Parliament; eventually, a Bill built on compromise was submitted to Parliament and passed. It now requires a judge to adjudicate and authorize the control order, by determining on the 'balance of probabilities' that the suspect is involved in terrorism, terrorist training or preparatory acts. Critics suggest that the principle of habeas corpus has been compromised, the burden of proof now substantially rests with the suspect to prove their innocence. Additionally, there are no charges laid by police authorities: critics suggest this system is open to continued abuse by police authorities.

The basic restrictions under the Act are as follows (noting that the police authorities must justify each restriction under the control order):

- Restrictions on the possession of specified articles or substances (like a mobile telephone)
- Restrictions on the use of specified services or facilities (like the internet)
- Restrictions on work and business arrangements
- Restrictions on association or communication with other individuals, specified or generally
- Restrictions on where an individual may reside and whom may be admitted to that place
- Requirements to admit specified individuals to certain locations and to allow such places to be searched and items removed therefrom
- Prohibition on an individual being in a specified location(s) and specified times and days
- Restrictions on an individual's freedom of movement, including giving prior notice of proposed movements
- Requirement to surrender the individual's passport
- Requirement to allow the individual to be photographed
- Requirement to cooperate with surveillance or the individual's movements or communications; including electronic tagging
- Requirement to report to a specified person(s) at a specified time(s) and place(s)

CRIMINAL JUSTICE (TERRORIST OFFENCES) ACT 2005



This law seeks to implement the 1999 *United Nations Convention for the Suppression of the Financing of Terrorism* in Irish Criminal Law. It seeks to create a new offence of financing terrorism, whilst inserting a scheme for freezing and confiscating these funds, used or allocated in relation to the offence. It defines this activity two ways: if the person unlawfully collects monies knowing that the intended purpose of the funds is to cause serious bodily harm, or to fund a known terrorist organization. The Act goes on to define the activities of 'short selling', large deposits and withdrawals from banks and wire transfers in support of terrorist activities.

APPENDIX A: EMERGENCY PLANNING

OVERVIEW

This section outlines the emergency planning regimes in Great Britain and Ireland. It looks at government authorities, emergency teams and local government organizations. There is also a discussion about the resources and emergency teams developed to deal with the specific threat of CBRN (Chemical, Biological, Radiation and Nuclear) attack. There is a discussion about the safety arrangements made for Britain's nuclear facilities and the governments various citadels constructed in case of nuclear warfare.

It is hope this appendix might help to provide shadows of portent, or help stage a realistic aftermath for a failed operation to recover CBRN weapons within the United Kingdom.

COBRA – THE CABINET OFFICE BRIEFING ROOMS



The COBR (Cabinet Office Briefing Rooms) is a government coordination facility that is activated in case of national or regional emergency or crisis, or indeed, for events abroad with major implications for the UK. It is often referred to as COBRA, somewhat erroneously, as it may equally refer to the benign conference room A of the Cabinet Office. However, its usage is established even within knowledgeable government circles – mainly due to its ease of use. The term COBR is used to refer to the actual facility, *and* the Committee that meets there.

COBR is situated in an undisclosed part of Whitehall; however, it is reported to be “a suite of offices within the Cabinet Office building”. Although there are a number secure meetings places throughout the Whitehall region that can be alternately used to host COBR. The Number 10 Briefing Rooms are physically secure (presumed to be underground) and contain banks of telephone lines, fax machines, computer terminals, video conference facilities and other state of art communications equipment. Its purpose is to enable the Prime Minister, senior Ministers and key government officials to obtain vital information about an evolving incident and to provide secure lines of communication to the police and other emergency services, army, hospitals, and all other relevant branches of Government in times of crisis. The theory behind this setup is that in times of crisis, like fore-instance a nuclear strike on Britain, the Government has a secure site to mount an appropriate response, and be the mouthpiece for the country. Under extreme circumstances the Civil Contingencies Committee takes charge in each designated region to meet basic civil needs, whilst the Government maintains international relations.

The chairmanship of COBR meetings is dependant upon the nature of the incident or crisis. The committee members also vary according to the particular expertise needed to resolve the crisis. COBR has been convened for such crises as the Kosovo War in 1999, the fuel protests of September 2000, the foot and mouth crisis in 2001 and recently, the Underground bombings of July 2005. The Home Secretary Charles Clarke and Prime Minister Tony Blair have chaired meetings since the London bombings. The Committee was convened in this particular instance to explore investigation requirements and to take appropriate steps to avoid further attacks.

After the September 11 attacks in 2001, the Prime Minister, Tony Blair set up a War Cabinet, which is a more traditional institution for dealing with possible major attacks. Although it wasn't strictly a COBR meeting, the COBR facility was opened under its jurisdiction.

The committee considers issues such as whether to invoke the powers contained within part two of the *Civil Contingencies Act*: that gives considerable extra powers in times of serious emergency to the regional Civil Contingencies Committees – effectively devolving law and order to a regional authority. The contingencies within the Act were, in part, designed to deal with incidents involving chemical or radiological materials, such as a nuclear “dirty bomb”. The Act allows a minister to suspend sittings of Parliament if necessary and to declare a bank holiday to shut down businesses (i.e. to keep people off the street).

By executive decree, the Act allows for property to be requisitioned or destroyed, assemblies to be banned, freedom of movement limited, the Armed Forces mobilized and special courts set up to deal with suspects, if it was deemed another atrocity was planned.

CIVIL CONTINGENCIES SECRETARIAT (CCS)



The Civil Contingencies Secretariat is responsible for emergency planning in the United Kingdom; it was transferred from the Home Office to the Cabinet Office in 2001. The role of the secretariat is to ensure that the United Kingdom is resilient to disruptive challenges; it does this by working with other agencies to anticipate, assess, prevent, prepare, respond and recover from emergencies.

The Secretariat is comprised of three Divisions: Assessment, Operations and Policy.

The Central Government War Headquarters, at Corsham, Wiltshire, was the site of the highest level of government administration in the event of catastrophic emergency; purpose built to specifically handle nuclear war situations. Since 1991, this facility has been mothballed and is only run now on a care and maintenance basis; and presently available for sale. There are a number of bunkers under key installations in and around Whitehall in London that now serve this purpose.

In event of nuclear strike, pandemic, or major natural disaster in the United Kingdom the central government's role would become one, at least initially, of being the mouthpiece and the general policy advisor. Essentially, the role of the government would be devolved to Regional Emergency Committees, and in the event of nuclear war, the Regional Commissioners.

The current head of the Civil Contingency Secretariat is Bruce Mann (*Nov 05*).

Until 2001, the Home Office carried out all requisite emergency preparedness planning through its Emergency Planning Division, which had in-turn replaced the Home Defence and Emergency Services Division. From 1935 to 1971 a separate department existed called the Civil Defence Department.

The Committee currently sits within the Cabinet Office at Whitehall. It works in partnership with a cross-section of government departments, the devolved administrations and key stakeholders to prevent, respond to and recover from emergency situations.

The CCS reports to Ministers through the Security and Intelligence Coordinator and Permanent Secretary to the Cabinet Officer, Sir Richard Mottram KCB (*Nov 05*). The Minister for the Cabinet Office represents the Secretariat in Parliament.

The CCS has a number of specific objectives:

1. Spotting trouble, assessing its nature and providing due warning
2. Being ready to respond
3. Building greater resilience for the future
4. Providing leadership and guidance to the resilience community
5. Effective management

The CCS also attempts to maintain the wider set of goals of the Cabinet Office:

- To support the Prime Minister in leading the government
- To achieve coordination of policy and operations across government
- To improve delivery, by building capacity in departments and the public services
- To promote standards that ensure good governance, including adherence to the Ministerial and Civil Service Codes

The types of emergencies the CCS actively makes contingencies for include:

- Severe Weather, Flooding & Drought including severe snow and climate change
- Human Health including pandemics and epidemics
- Terrorism including CBRN attacks (Chemical, Biological, Radiological and Nuclear)
- Transport Accidents including ferry accidents and aviation accidents
- Animal & Plant Diseases including foot and mouth, rabies and karnal bunt
- Public Protest
- International Events including events like mass repatriations of UK nationals
- Industrial Technical Failure including loss of key utilities
- Structural Failure including structural failure of cityscapes and land movements
- Chemical, Biological, Radiological and Nuclear (CBRN)
- Industrial Accidents and Environmental Pollution

The Secretariat has a number of specialist teams:

HEAD OF THE CIVIL CONTINGENCIES SECRETARIAT

The Current Head of the Civil Contingencies Secretariat is Bruce Man (*Nov 05*). He was previously with the Ministry of Defence as Director General Financial Management. His role is to head the CCS and report to the Security and Intelligence Coordinator and Permanent Secretary to the Cabinet Office, Sire Richard Mottram (*Nov 05*).

ASSESSMENT AND COMMITMENT TEAM

This team is directed to assess circumstances that may precipitate an emergency and report its findings to the relevant authority. It also assists in developing effective preventative strategies where required. There are five specialist desks to meet a full range of disruptive challenges. The written assessments that are generated are forwarded to the cross-government Domestic Horizon Scanning Committee (DHSC), and once approved, they are issued to senior government officials and ministers. The DHSC may also request specific investigations by the Assessment team. During emergencies, the team is required to produce more regular and immediate assessments to aid the Cabinet Office Briefing Room and the CCS Coordination Centre in delivering an integrated government response.

CAPABILITIES TEAM

The Capabilities Team provides programme management of the Cross-Government Capabilities Programme. It also provides secretariat response to the cabinet committees responsible for driving the programme forward.

The aim of the Capabilities Programme is to ensure a robust infrastructure to rapidly, effectively and flexibly deal with emergencies. The Capabilities Programme is underpinned by the Resilience Capability Framework (RCF) that develops risk assessment procedures to judge the effectiveness of current deployments. The Capabilities Team works within an environment of limited resources, and there is a need to fairly allocate resources on a region by region basis. Finally, the teams develop Capability Targets to be met on a region-by-region basis; drawing heavily from their own National Capability Survey results.

STRATEGY AND COMMUNICATIONS TEAM

The Strategy and Communications Team provides support for the Head of the Secretariat to ensure that the Secretariat's work is properly focussed, intellectually consistent and coherently communicated.

LEGISLATIVE TEAM

The Legislative Team ensures the effective delivery and implementation of the *Civil Contingencies Act*, management of the local response capabilities, and provides doctrine for local civil protection. The Team takes the lead in work to ensure local authority civil protection funding is in place, and effectively manages the programme of ongoing contact between the CCS and the local authorities. The Team also represents the interests of local responders within government, and it works closely with the Regional Resilience Divisions to ensure local and regional civil protection work is undertaken.

INTERNATIONAL TEAM

The International Team handles the liaison functions of the Secretariat with other European Union and NATO partners on international civil protection issues. The Team also works with partners across the breath of government to manage civil protection issues in the context of the United Kingdom's role within the EU and G8 groups.

EXERCISES AND OPERATIONS TEAM

The Exercises and Operational Team role is to liaison and direct training regimes across the civil service and wider community, in preparation for various forms of emergencies. The Team also looks after CCS own interests, in making sure all government crisis facilities are up to the required standards for use in the event of crisis.

CORPORATE SERVICES TEAM

The Corporate Services Team supports the whole Secretariat in managing many of the systems that underpin the Secretariat's external relationships. The Team also oversees Secretariat staffing, resourcing and facilities issues.

THE EMERGENCY PLANNING COLLEGE

This site situated at Easingwold, is the home to the UK's leading experts in emergency planning and crisis management training. The facility attracts over 6,000 people a year to undertake a diverse range of training regimes, and it provides a forum for discussion and the sharing of good emergency practice.

The College's aim is to develop the key skills and awareness to improve the capabilities at all levels of government in the area of crisis management. The College draws representatives of all levels of government, plus members of the wider public sector, private and voluntary sectors.

CIVIL CONTINGENCIES ACT



The Civil Contingencies Act, and its accompanying non-legislative measures, are thought to deliver a single framework for civil protection in the United Kingdom to meet the needs of the twenty-first century.

The Act is essentially separated into two substantive parts:

Part 1: Local Arrangements for Civil Protection

Part 2: The Emergency Powers

Part one of the Act, its supporting regulations and statutory guidelines for Emergency Preparedness, establish a clear set of roles and responsibilities for those involved in emergency preparation and response at a local level. The Act seeks to divide local responders into two categories, imposing a different set of duties for each.

Those placed into category 1, are those organizations at the core of the response to most emergencies (e.g. emergency services, local authorities, NHS bodies). Category 1 responders are subject to the full set of civil protection duties that include:

- Assess the risk of emergencies occurring and use this information to inform contingency planning
- Put in place emergency plans
- Put in place Business Continuity Management arrangements
- Put in place arrangements to make information available to the public about civil protection matters and arrange to warn, inform and advise the public in event of an emergency
- Share information with other local responders to enhance coordination and efficiency
- Cooperate with other local responders to enhance coordination and efficiency
- Provide advice and assistance to businesses and voluntary organizations about business continuity management (Local Authorities only)

Category 2 denotes particular organizations (e.g. Health and Safety Executive, transport and utility companies). The ‘cooperating bodies’ are less likely to be involved in the essential planning work to avert emergencies, but are likely to be heavily involved in incidents that directly affect their sector. These responders have a lesser set of duties, generally involving sharing and cooperating with members of Category 1.

Members of both categories will be represented in the Local Resilience Forums (LRFs) that are based on police division areas, and they help coordinate and aid cooperation between responders at the local level.

The bulk of Part 1 of the Act was brought into force in November 2005. The duties associated with providing advice and assistance to business and voluntary organizations about business continuity management is set to commence in May 2006.

Part two of the Act updates the 1920 *Emergency Powers Act*, to reflect the developments in the interim years, and the current and future risks affecting the United Kingdom. It allows for the creation of temporary special legislation (emergency regulations) expressly to help deal with the most serious of emergencies. The use of the emergency powers, are an option of last resort, and guidance suggests that local officials shouldn't plan that they will be available in times of emergency. The powers are subject to a robust set of safeguards. Part two of the Act was brought into force in December 2004.

By Executive decree, the Act allows for property to be requisitioned or destroyed, assemblies to be banned, freedom of movement limited, the Armed Forces mobilized and special courts to be set up to deal with suspects, if it was deemed another atrocity was planned.

ENGLISH REGIONAL PLANNING

Regional government structures are designed to provide a platform for the coordination of the local and the centralized (national) response to emergencies. As such, it represents the middle tier in the civil contingencies formation.

THE GOVERNMENT OFFICES FOR THE ENGLISH REGIONS

The Government Offices (GOs) in the English Regions represent a useful link between local and central government during a non-terrorist emergency. Government departments under such circumstances may use the GOs to cascade information down and provide guidance to local responders. These GOs house a substantial knowledge base, and provide the experience of the central government. They represent the first point of contact for advice for local emergency groups.

A Regional Resilience Team (RRT) has been established in each of the GOs to coordinate the response of the whole GO in times of emergencies. The RRT are usually the first place government departments turned to for situation reports on non-terrorist emergencies. The RRTs in turn look towards local responders for their information.

To ensure an effective two-way flow of information between the local responders and the central government in an emergency, the GOs may place a Government Liaison Officer (GLO) within the Strategic Coordinating Group (SCG).

The mechanisms for alerting, mobilizing and sharing information between the local responders and the GO is generally set out in the Regional Response Plans; agreed upon on a region by region basis. The plans will generally outline procedures for; activating the emergency management facilities in the GO; activation of the Regional Civil Contingencies Committee (RCCC); and communicating with the local responders, other regions and central government departments.

The GOs can provide particular support in relation to consequence management; they can assess whether the scale and nature of an accident may overwhelm the local facility to respond. They can even coordinate Ministerial and VIP visits to assist. They work closely with the Government News Network (GNN) in the affected regions, and their links to government departments can ensure that a coordinated and coherent message is given out to the general public. In situations where a spokesperson is required for the whole region, the Regional Director of the GO can act as that spokesperson.

The GOs play an important role in cross-regional coordination, liaising with other GOs and the Devolved Administrations (DAs) to provide a coordinated response to cross-border emergencies.

Finally, the GOs can provide support for the Regional Civil Contingencies Committee (RCCC), if it is established.

REGIONAL CIVIL CONTINGENCIES COMMITTEES IN ENGLAND (RCCS)

The RCCCs are a means of coordinating the response to, and recovery from, emergencies at a regional level in England. While the majority of emergencies are dealt with by local emergency services, there are exceptional circumstances that require a coordinated response at a regional level. This may result in an emergency that overwhelms the local emergency responders, or result in an incident that affects multiple regions.

An RCCC is a multi-agency group including representatives from across the breadth of the emergency services, local authorities, the Government Offices (GOs) and others. The membership may, in principle, be similar to that of the Regional Resilience Forum (RRF), although the RRFs have no direct role in response activities.

The precise role of the RCCC is highly variable, depending upon the nature of the emergency. The role may include; maintaining a strategic picture of the evolving situation within the region; assessing any issues that cannot be resolved at local level; facilitating mutual aid arrangements within the region and, where necessary, between regions; ensuring effective communication between local, regional and national responders; identifying regional resource priorities; and providing, where appropriate, a regional spokesman.

In London, unlike other regions of England, many local responder agencies have boundaries that align closely with those of the region. Thus, in London there is little distinction made between an RCCC and the Strategic Coordinating Group (SCG). In practice, particularly for immediate-impact, police-led emergencies, the group is likely to be referred to as an SCG. The London Resilience Team would provide the GO representatives to either the SCG or the RCCC.

EMERGENCY SERVICE ROLES



POLICE SERVICES

The police normally coordinate the activities of those responding at, and around, the scene of land-based sudden impact emergencies. Their key priority is to save lives and in the protection of life, but their job requires that where possible, they should also attempt to safeguard evidence for subsequent investigations. The police cordon off the area where possible; they have the responsibility to remove any fatalities from the scene on behalf of H.M Coroner.



FIRE & RESCUE SERVICES

The primary role of fire and rescue workers is the rescue of people trapped in fire, wreckage or debris. They also deal with any released chemicals or other contaminants. They assist in removing large quantities of water and help with removing bodies or causalities. They may also assist the NHS in undertaking mass decontamination of affected peoples that may have been exposed to CBRN substances.

HEALTH BODIES

Ambulance services have the responsibility for coordinating the on-site NHS response, and in determining which hospital a patient may be taken to. An Ambulance Incident Officer (AIO) takes overall responsibility for the scene, and a Medical Incident Officer (MIO) may also be in attendance.

Acute Trusts, Primary and Community Care Services, Strategic Health Authorities (SHAs) in England, and Local Health Boards in Wales, are also engaged in providing provisions for specialist staff to attend the emergency site.

In the event of a major public health emergency, the Health Protection Agency (HPA) will provide specialist scientific/medical advice. The Regional Directors of Public Health (RDsPH), who represent the Chief Medical Officer in English regions, provides advice, support and leadership to help manage the emergency. In Wales, public health advice is available from the National Public Health Service for Wales. In the event of a national or international scale incident, the Department of Health (DH) will coordinate the NHS response from its Emergency Preparedness Division Coordinating Centre.

ARMED FORCES

The use of Armed Forces is provisioned under the Military Aid to the Civil Authority (MACA) arrangements. It is detailed, however, that such Forces don't necessarily have standing forces to deal with such emergencies.

GOVERNMENT AGENCIES AND OTHER NDPBS

The following agencies may have a part to play in emergency coordination:

- The Environmental Agency is involved in large-scale environmental emergencies (flood or pollution)
- Health & Safety Executive (HSE) seeks to ensure health and safety in workplaces and has a regulatory role in sites such as nuclear installations, hospitals, schools and railway safety. This authority has experts in CBRN and major industrial hazard containment.
- The Highways Agency is usually involved in incidents involving the road network in England (Wales Assembly Government has devolved responsibility in Wales).
- The Maritime & Coastguard Agency (MCA) is called in for incidents requiring civilian search and rescue (HM Coastguard), or where pollution or safety at sea is a factor.

OTHER RESPONDERS

The HM Coroner may be required to attend to undertake planning for the removal of bodies on masse; local authorities (like social services and housing) may be required to attend, to make ongoing provisions for displaced civilians and long-term restoration goals. The private sector may be called upon in line with the *Civil Contingencies Act*, which outlines their varied responsibilities (e.g. fixing telecommunications, evacuations, catering, site clearance, decontamination and engineering). The voluntary sector (first aid, transport and counseling services), and the general community (laboring) may be also required to act.

ENGLAND'S EMERGENCY SERVICES PREPAREDNESS FOR CBRN ATTACK

The threat of CBRN attacks has long been a consideration in mainland England; terrorist bombings by the IRA have made sure that the current threat of CBRN attacks has been well planned and equipped for. Most counties have access to GT decontamination suits and decontamination units. This equipment is held by various agencies including fire brigades, ambulance, accident and emergency departments, plus some police units. The various Health Protection Agency (HPA) regional departments have helped to coordinate these regional responses. Around most military bases, nuclear facilities and ports, higher levels of equipment have been allocated.

Greater London is seen as a natural target. The Greater London area has over 1,500 CBRN trained police officers, 10 mass decontamination units held at various locations across London: provided by a civil defence grant of £2,503,248. There are also ten mobile decontamination units present that are capable of dealing with about 4,000 people an hour. There are seven fire and rescue units with cutting capabilities stationed around London. Regional emergency forces get a lesser share of resources, and also have greater response times; but the lower likely hood of risk has been factored into the apportioning of resources.

DEVOLED ADMINISTRATION PLANNING

The devolved administrations in the areas of emergency response mirror the wider political processes of devolution to each local Assembly. The devolved administrations for crisis management replace some of the key responsibilities of UK government. They also take on some of the regional coordination responsibilities that fall to Regional Resilience Teams in England.

In general terms, the level of activity and interaction between the devolved authorities and the UK government will depend upon the nature of the incident, and the corresponding devolution settlement reached. However, the principles of emergency response are fairly standard across the United Kingdom.

EMERGENCY RESPONSE ARRANGEMENTS IN SCOTLAND



The responsibility for civil protection is largely devolved to the Scottish Parliament – in line with the greater powers invested in this government.

In emergency planning and preparedness phase, Strategic Coordinating Groups (SCGs) in Scotland are the equivalent to the Local Resilience Forum (LRF) in England and Wales. In Scotland; however, the SCGs' role also includes the response and recovery phases. This is usually constituted when the SCG meets to determine the strategy of the local response, and to ensure inter-agency coordination. The SCGs are based on Scottish police force areas.

The Scottish Executive may open the Scottish Executive Emergency Room (SEER) in times of crisis; to decide appropriate levels of coordination and support needed to resolve the emergency (similar to COBR in England). The SCGs determine what elements will be deployed to the region to resolve the emergency. This decision will be made in consultation with key agencies and the Scottish Executive. The response is greatly dependent upon the nature and extent of the crisis. If the emergency warrants a UK-wide response, SEER will keep in touch with the Cabinet Office Briefing Room (COBR), the Scotland Office and other relevant departments in Whitehall. Scottish interests, under these circumstances, will generally be represented in some form in CORB discussions.

The Scottish Emergencies Coordinating Committee (SECC) has a role in both preparing for emergencies and in providing advice and support for SEER at times of emergency. Under emergency conditions, SECC will comprise of senior managers of affected Scottish Executive departments and responding agencies.

When an emergency requires a significant police presence, the Scottish Police Information and Coordination Centre (S-PICC) can be activated to support SEER by collecting relevant information from Scottish police forces, and help in coordinating mutual aid between the various regional forces and national police agencies.

If emergency regulations are made covering Scotland, the UK government is compelled to appoint a Scottish Emergency Coordinator.

SCOTLAND'S EMERGENCY SERVICES PREPAREDNESS FOR CBRN ATTACK

The main responsibility for dealing with major incidents in Scotland falls to the Scottish Ambulance Service. It has about 500 Accident and Emergency vehicles and two emergency helicopters. The SAS has 1,000 PPE suits and 16 Plysu mobile decontamination units. It operates Special Response Teams (SORT) across Scotland; they are trained and equipped to deal with major incidents and CBRN attacks. The SAS has around 400 trained staff devoted to SORT operations: 81 members are operational.

The SORT teams have already proved their worth in May of 2004, when a plastics factory blast occurred. The country has major incident units (MIUs), but these proved ineffective in this particular case, as they don't carry decontamination equipment. There are four MIUs in Scotland located at: Grampian Fire Brigade (covering Aberdeen), Lothian Borders Fire Brigade (covering Edinburgh), Strathclyde Fire Brigade (based at Clydebank) and Central Scotland Fire Brigade (based at Falkirk).

There is also a number of Accident & Emergency (A&E) Departments prepared for CBRN attacks at major hospitals. Most Scottish Fire Brigades have access to gas suits, radiation dosimeters, survey meters and gas detection equipment. Some larger stations have access to decontamination units and plysu suits.

EMERGENCY RESPONSE ARRANGEMENTS IN WALES



The responsibilities for emergency arrangements in Wales primarily still lay with the British Government and its departments. However, the Welsh Assembly Government (WAG) has functional responsibility for a number of important policy areas (e.g health, the environment, animal health) and helps play a key coordinating role in these areas.

The operational response to most small-scale emergencies is undertaken at a local level through the Strategic Coordinating Group (SCG). The Wales Civil Contingencies Committee (WCCC) is convened in exceptional circumstances where a pan-Wales response is required. The WCCC will maintain the overall strategic picture of the evolving situation and will take overall management of recovery operations. Under such circumstance, WAG will provide support for the WCCC.

When the UK Government crisis management mechanisms are brought into play following an emergency in, or affecting Wales; the WAG will usually be represented by the First Minister, and the WAG's Emergency Coordination Centre (ECC(W)) will be activated. This will effectively link all SCGs, the Office of the Secretary of State for Wales and COBR. The ECC(W) is activated to gather and disseminate information in Wales on developing emergencies, and supports the WCCC and WAG Ministers.



The Wales Media Emergency Forum (WMEF) may be activated that brings together media representatives in Wales to consider media issues arising from civil contingencies. The WAG Communications Team will act as the link between the local media and community relations, and lead the UK government's News Coordination Centre (NCC).

If emergency regulations are made covering Wales, the UK Government is compelled to appoint a Wales Emergency Coordinator.

WALES' EMERGENCY SERVICES PREPAREDNESS FOR CBRN ATTACK

The threat of CBRN attack is somewhat diminished here next to some of the more prominent locations around the United Kingdom, although it does have some areas of concern (Holyhead the main seaport, Millennium Stadium in Cardiff, RAF St Athan in South Wales and RAF Valley on Anglesey). The three Welsh Fire Brigades have been supplied with new Incident Response Units (South Wales brigade has three, with two in Mid and West Wales). A number of police units have been trained to deal with such incidents, although the knowledge base is still seen as comparatively low compared to other UK areas.

The planning responsibility for the overall CBRN response in Wales falls to the UK Home Office, although the Welsh Assembly Government has a high level of involvement (especially in health planning). The First Minister, Rhodri Morgan (*Sept 04*) chairs the Wales Resilience Forum.

EMERGENCY RESPONSE ARRANGEMENTS IN NORTHERN IRELAND



The responsibility for civil protection is largely devolved to the Northern Ireland Executive (However, this may not be expressly the case since the suspension of the Northern Ireland Parliament: Ed.).

The response to emergencies in particular areas is normally managed by the regular, local emergency services. Generally, the local police have responsibility for inter-agency coordination at a local level.

The strategic-level response and coordination is provided by the emergency services on land: Northern Ireland has one Police Service, one Fire and Rescue Service and one Ambulance Service – and the Northern Ireland Office. The Maritime and Coastguard Agency (MCA) coordinates the emergency response to affected coastal areas. Northern Ireland Government departments will generally respond in accordance with the wishes of the lead department arrangements in the affected region: mirroring the process that takes place in England.

The Northern Ireland Administration is responsible for the strategic coordination of the response to those emergencies not primarily requiring an emergency service response. It is also responsible for impact management and recovery. The lead department in the Northern Ireland Administration will usually request the formation of the Central Emergency Management Group (CEMG) or the Crisis Management Group (CMG), depending upon the circumstances of the emergency.

The Central Emergency Planning Unit (CEPU) has the ability to activate its Northern Ireland Information Management Centre (NIIMC), which collates information from across the Northern Ireland public services and infrastructure providers.

The Northern Ireland Administration has its own Executive Information Service (EIS) that undertakes liaison duties with the media and issues public information for those aspects of the emergency response and recovery that fall to the Administration. It also works closely with the UK government News Coordination Centre.

In larger scale emergencies, especially those affecting the United Kingdom as a whole, the Northern Ireland CMG would be linked into the Northern Ireland Office's crisis management arrangements and the strategic management arrangements of the UK Department for terrorist incidents affecting Northern Ireland.

NORTHERN IRELAND'S EMERGENCY SERVICES PREPAREDNESS FOR CBRN ATTACK

Northern Ireland has been the most forward thinking of all United Kingdom's emergency planning bodies. The introduction of the EMART dedicated teams is the next step forward in multi-agency planning and implementation. Whether the group garners the funding to complete its grand design of a multi-skilled workforce and exemplary levels of equipment, is yet in the balance, but the blueprint has been set for CRBN's units of the future. Elsewhere, the Northern Ireland Fire Brigade has a half a dozen mass containment vehicles and around 100 GT suits at its disposal in the event of biological or radiological attack. There has also been the implementation of additional Accident and Emergency Units, dedicated to dealing with CRBN attack (in line with the EMART scheme).

THE EMERGENCY MEDICAL ASSISTANCE AND RESCUE TEAMS (EMART)

The Emergency Medical Assistance and Rescue Teams have been trained to deal with major incidents involving chemical, biological or nuclear attacks (CBRN) in Northern Ireland. These specialist teams help to foster a nexus, for the free exchange of information between medical, ambulance and fire personnel and to "provide a combined response to major incidents". There are more than 100 doctors, nurses, ambulance and fire officers trained to undertake these vital roles. The teams are regionally based and are only called upon in times of major incident.

The teams are designed to be as flexible in nature as can be. Other areas of expertise in development for this experimental service include teams capable of controlling the spread of SARS, smallpox, anthrax and other biological outbreaks. In the event of emergency, the DHSSPS convenes the Regional Health Command Centre, and its resources are deployed strategically throughout the affected province. The DHSSPS then can coordinate the transport of appropriate drugs, antidotes and/or vaccines to the incident site.

COMPOSITION

EMART draws heavily upon existing expertise and personnel from the DHSS&PS within Northern Ireland (with particular reference to acute care), the Northern Ireland Ambulance Service, the Northern Ireland Fire Brigade and elements of the Health Service connected with primary care (e.g. general practitioners). The EMART members in attendance at an incidence can vary according to the nature of the incident; not all members are necessarily called out. Most core members of EMART teams have a particular area of expertise (Ambulance: pre-hospital paramedical-based skills and patient assessment, Fire Fighters: fire fighting and hazardous chemical knowledge). Other skills that are being implemented include cliff rescue, confined spaces/urban search and rescue, and water rescue. Most team members are being concurrently trained in additional skills.

EMERGENCY PLANNING IN IRELAND



LOCAL LEVEL

The Emergency planning activities in Ireland have recently fallen under the umbrella of the Joint Major Emergency Planning Group; it has regional branches to facilitate better cooperation on a national and regional level. The Government has implemented this regime through the document entitled the *Framework for Coordinated Response to Major Emergencies*. This document outlines standardized basic procedures, and defines the responsibilities for each front-line agency (including fire brigades, police, health-services, Irish Coast Guards et al). If required, these front-line agencies can call upon the assistance of Defence Forces, the Civil Defence, voluntary agencies, Irish Mountain Rescue Association, the Order of Malta, St. John's Ambulance Service and other public utilities.

Major Emergency Plans are in place in all local authority areas and may be activated by the local authority, police or health service. Inter-agency exercises are conducted periodically to maintain cohesion, in case of a real incident occurring. The responsibilities outlined for each front-line agency are similar to those outlined in Britain.

NATIONAL LEVEL

The Government is responsible for ensuring that emergency planning exists on a national level. However, operational responsibility for such incidents rests with the emergency services, under the aegis of the Department concerned. The Government has established a Task Force on Emergency Planning, under the Chairmanship of the Minister of Defence. It consists of government ministers, senior police and defence personnel and other agencies involved in emergency planning. It meets on a regular basis to ensure preparations have been made to provide for a coordinated response to the threat of possible nuclear, chemical or biological attack.

An Office of Emergency Planning (OEP) was established on 2 October 2001 within the Department of Defence, to take a lead role in emergency planning for CBRN attack. It ensures that coordination is maintained between the various Departments and Agencies, it exercises an oversight role in peacetime planning and ensures that the best possible use of resources and compatibility between key emergency agencies occurs.

An Inter-Departmental Working Group on Emergency Planning was established by the OEP to support the functions of the Task Force and the OEP. It looks at planning, processes and mechanisms of government in planning for CBRN emergencies. An Inter-Departmental Advisory Committee, chaired by the Department of the Environment, monitors mainstream emergency planning activities.

REGIONAL CONTROL CENTERS

Three Regional Control Centers have recently been established in Ireland to cover the country, at a regional level, for emergency calls. These three centers have been established under the Computer Aided Mobilization Project (CAMP) that seeks to ensure that emergency responses can be better coordinated at a regional level, and national level. The three emergency call centers are located at Limerick (covering Munster), Dublin (covering Leinster, Cavan and Monaghan) and Castlebar, County Mayo (Connaught and Donegal).

SAFETY OF UNITED KINGDOM'S NUCLEAR FACILITIES



The following summary is taken from a British Parliamentary Office of Science and Technology briefing paper...

There are 13 generating nuclear power plants, 6 decommissioned plants and various other military civilian sites across Britain. They are mainly clustered around Sellafield in Cumbria, and in Dounreay in Scotland (this was the earlier site of research and reprocessing activities). The Office for Civil Nuclear Security (OCNS) creates Design Basis Threat (DBT) warnings (a classified document) that each power plant must prepare for. The DBT outlines potential weaknesses in the operation system and plant design, plus deals with rudimentary security planning of the facility, in line with Government policy. Such facilities do not have to plan expressly for terrorist attack, although they are encouraged to be responsive to these needs.

It is an increasing reality post 9/11, that most nuclear authorities are concerned at the ease with which large planes can be ploughed into important landmarks; the nuclear plant being a prime terrorist target. Other modes of attack are just as problematic – tampering with internal control systems could have the same affect as ramming a plane into the plant (uncontrolled chain reaction).

Each plant within Britain must meet government standards, for not only basic terrorist threats, but also for any accidental threats, plus of course, general safety. Each plant must be designed to withstand considerable force; most of these plants rely on several different safety systems (in line with the UK Nuclear Safety licensing regime). For nuclear installations installed in the last 10 years, many security considerations have to be incorporated into the design, being part of regulatory requirements. Other older stations have had to be retrofitted where possible.



SECURITY REGIME

The principle of ‘defence in depth’ has been utilized at all nuclear basis in Britain, requiring systems of interlocking personnel, procedural, physical and technical systems to ensure no one security breach will result in damage.

RECENT LEGISLATION

The UK *Nuclear Industries Security Regulations Act* 2003 has enabled measures to strengthen around UK civil nuclear facilities. Most sites now severely restrict public access, and some design information has been removed from the public domain.

GUARDING THE SITES

The United Kingdom prohibits civil nuclear sites from being protected by armed civilian guards. Certain nuclear sites like Sellafield and Dounreay, are protected by on-site armed police from the United Kingdom’s Atomic Energy Authority (UKAEA) constabulary. Other sites like nuclear power stations, are protected by on-site unarmed civilian guards. Since the jurisdiction of UKAEA has been extended, arrangements can now be made to provide mobile coverage while consideration are being made for armed-guards to be present at these sites.

EVALUATING THE CONSEQUENCES OF ATTACK

The variables related to an attack include:

- The size and nature of the release is known as the ‘source term’. Factors include the extent of physical damage to the installation and the chemical properties of the materials released.
- The movement of radioactive materials released into the environment, and its relative uptake into the human body. Weather conditions can greatly affect the dispersion and distribution of these elements.
- The efficiency of counter-measures to protect the local area from radiation e.g. restricting food and water supplies, sheltering, or evacuation procedures.

Regulation requires that UK operators of nuclear licensed sites evaluate the health and environmental impacts of accidental release.

ATTACKS ON SPECIFIC FACILITIES

TYPES OF ATTACKS

The core of a nuclear reactor contains around 100 tonnes of radioactive material at several hundred degrees Celsius. The safety of this process relies upon controlling the nuclear chain reaction, by cooling the reactor core and by containing the radioactive material.

Terrorist might attempt to cause release by one of two ways:

Directly: Reactor cores are protected by thick concrete shields, breaching the shields would require violent impact or explosion.

Indirectly: A release might occur if enough critical safety systems were overridden or damaged; this would generally require a high degree of access, coordination and detailed plant knowledge (i.e. ‘the defence in depth’ policy in action).

Studies have suggested that even if a military grade aircraft managed to breach the shielding, it would be highly unlikely to start an uncontrolled release of radioactive material (only a 3 to 4 percent chance). US studies have suggested that plowing large commercial planes into a plant would not cause a threat to modern nuclear plants: the angle of approach would be hard to achieve and the speed of these planes too low to generate enough force.

The United Kingdom currently has three different types of Nuclear Power Plants:

- ‘First Generation’: Magnox gas cooled reactors. There are 12 reactors operating in 5 power plants
- ‘Second Generation’: Advanced Gas Cooled reactors (AGCs). There are 14 reactors at 7 plants.
- ‘Third Generation’ pressured water reactor (PWR). There is only one PWR at Sizewell B in Suffolk.

The older Magnox plants are more vulnerable to physical attack, but they are all to be decommissioned by the end of 2006.

CONSEQUENCES OF RADIOACTIVE RELEASE

In the event of a release, radioactive iodine and caesium may be dispersed over a wide area. If such an emission was to occur, it would make a significant contribution to increasing the risk of thyroid cancer amongst the general population (especially the radioactive iodine), and particularly in children. It poses the greatest risk in the first few weeks of release. Radioactive caesium concentrates in the topsoil, and can be absorbed into plants, and so enter the food chain. This risk remains prevalent for hundreds of years to come.

The amount of material released would vary according to the extent of damage to the plant, the type of reactor and its operating state. The two major nuclear incidents to occur, namely Three Mile Island and Chernobyl has differing effects. The Three Mile Island incident managed to be contained within its reactor building, and only minimal amounts of radioactive material escaped. At Chernobyl, there was no effective containment structure around the reactor, roughly half of the reactor's iodine inventory and one third of its caesium inventory was released. Over 134 workers were exposed to acute radiation sickness and 28 others died. There is footage of the incident, where some valiant workers ran across the reactor structure, in an attempt to fill in the reactor core with shielding materials, knowing that they had only 24 seconds of exposure before they would take fatal amounts of radiation. Yet, they valiantly continued. Chernobyl is seen as the exception to the rule. Studies undertaken by the National Radiological Protection Board estimate in the majority of cases, only 0.003% of the material would be released, but the release fraction could exceed 50% (comparable to Chernobyl) in extreme scenarios.

FUEL STORAGE

A major planning oversight at most nuclear facilities has been the placement of cooling ponds. The reactors rely upon the cooling ponds to stop overheating of the fuel rods; damage to the cooling ponds could result in the biggest probability of an uncontrolled chain reaction, and additionally, the largest release of radioactive materials.

ATTACKS ON TRANSPORT VEHICLES

Many analysts suggest that an attack on road and rail shipments of radioactive materials is an easier target for terrorism (i.e. away from their usual secured sites). Although, these attacks would probably result in a minimal release of radioactive material, the effect on public confidence would be large.

REPROCESSING PLANTS

Reprocessing plants extract re-usable uranium and plutonium from used reactor fuel and handle a wide range of other radioactive materials. Public concern revolves around the storage of high level liquid radioactive waste (HLLW), plutonium and used reactor fuels, mainly due to their size and physical states. Sellafield is home to the largest store of HLLW (1000-1500 cubic meters); lesser amounts are stored at Dounreay. Certain isotopes are present in these quantities that are several hundred times greater than those found in a typical reactor core. The temperature of these materials is lower than in a reactor core, and they require constant cooling to keep them in a safe state. They are stored in tanks awaiting reprocessing. Release may come about through a breach of these tanks. There are insufficient studies to qualify what would happen upon release.

PLUTONIUM STORED AT REPROCESSING PLANTS

Sellafield stores separated plutonium in the form of powdered plutonium oxide. If a fire or explosion was to occur, it would likely spread over a considerable distance in favorable winds. It is expected that this would result in an increased risk of people developing lung cancer. Recently, Sellafield has constructed a protective wall around its plutonium oxide storage facility as a result of these concerns.

EMERGENCY PLANNING

The emergency containment area, in the event of release, can be extended by 10 to 15 kilometers from the plant upon release after a deliberate attack. Once the incident has been verified, the Government can quickly instigate emergency laws to deal with the threat of radioactive fallout within the region (a.k.a. *the Civil Contingencies Act*).

IRELAND'S NUCLEAR SAFETY POLICY



The Department of the Environment, Heritage and Local Government is responsible for monitoring nuclear safety in Ireland. The Nuclear Safety Section is responsible for the implementation Government policy with regards to nuclear safety and radiological protection. Ireland's policy of nuclear non-proliferation and disarmament is the responsibility of the Department of Foreign Affairs.

Ireland has been long opposed to Nuclear reactors to supply electricity needs: suggesting that the environmental, health and safety risks far outweigh the gains. It however, recognizes the rights of other states (e.g. Britain) to use them, but only in full compliance with international nuclear treaties and safety regulations. The 1999 *Electricity Regulation Act* prohibits the generation of electricity by nuclear technologies.

The Irish are particular concerned with British nuclear waste, especially from its Sellafield station in Cumbria in the North-West of England, dumped into the Irish Sea. The *Dumping at Sea Act* of 1996 seeks to clarify Ireland's position and prohibit it by its own citizens. The Radiological Protection Institute of Ireland (RPII) closely monitors such discharges to find out if they meet internationally accepted levels. The RPII also assists the Nuclear Safety Section in other areas of concern, like issues of climate change brought about by nuclear pollution (especially airborne).

INTERNATIONAL ATOMIC ENERGY AGENCY (IAEA)



The International Atomic Energy Agency is an independent, inter-governmental Agency of the United Nations. The Agency statute was approved on the 23 October 1956 by the Conference on the Statute of the IAEA, it came into force on 29th of July 1957. Its Headquarters is in Vienna; the membership of the IAEA now comprises of 136 member states.

Its functions include:

- ❑ The establishment and administration of safeguards and verification through its inspection system that states must comply with under their responsibilities under the Non-Proliferation Treaty and attendant agreements. It also seeks to promote nuclear science for peaceful purposes.
- ❑ The maintenance of its global notification system that reports nuclear incidents and accidents to all other responsible nation states. In the event of severe radiological emergencies, the IAEA can also provide medical and technical experts where necessary.
- ❑ The promotion of research and development into the application of atomic energy
- ❑ To promote and establish various safety standards, and to promote newer, higher levels of safety in the area of nuclear energy. It also seeks to protect human health and the environment against such ionising radiation.
- ❑ To assist its member states, in the context of social and economic goals, to plan for and use nuclear science and technology for peaceful purposes.

The IAEA has published a series of guidance documents, including Safety Standards Series, Safety Series, Safety Reports Series, Technical Reports Series, Technical Documents, Lessons Learnt From Accidents stimulus and Newsletters.

The IAEA has series of peer review Committees including:

- ❑ The Regulatory Standards Committee
- ❑ Nuclear Safety & Transport Safety Committee
- ❑ Radioactive Waste Safety Standards Committee

The Nuclear Information System coordinates the exchange of information and the IAEA undertakes its necessary database maintenance. The International Nuclear Event Scale provides a platform for the exchange of information on nuclear events. The IAEA Illicit Trafficking Database Office seeks to assist governments in uncovering and cataloging missing nuclear stores. The IAEA has been especially active in cataloging and securing ex-Soviet nuclear stores to ensure that they don't eventually end up in the hands of terrorists. The IAEA also maintains databases containing information on world conventions and treaties related to nuclear technologies.



NUCLEAR ENERGY AGENCY (NEA)

The Nuclear Energy Agency (NEA) is an agency of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). It is based in Paris. The NEA provides assistance to its member states in areas such as nuclear safety and regulation; radioactive waste management; radiation protection and public health; nuclear law and liability; and nuclear emergency management. The NEA works as an open forum for the free exchange of ideas and information, and consists of expert groups from a number of the OECD nations.

MILITARY CITADELS UNDER LONDON



There are a number of military citadels under central London, most date from the Second World War and the Cold War. Apart from the London Underground, there is another large network of tunnels below London created expressly for a variety of communications, civil defence and military purposes. It is not revealed to the general public just how these apparently disparate elements fit together, if at all.

It is not known just how many of these facilities exist, or the nature of them; and only a few have been officially admitted to. The following is a list of the major sites that are known to exist:

ADMIRALTY CITADEL

The Admiralty Citadel is London's most visible military citadel; it is located just behind the Admiralty building on Horse Guard Parade. It was constructed during 1940-41 to be a bomb-proof operations center for the Admiralty. It has foundations that are nine meters deep and has a concrete roof six-meters thick. The bunker, as it should probably be known, is virtually impenetrable to conventional warheads.

The building is famously visually unappealing; Winston Churchill quipped in his memoirs, “[a] vast monstrosity which weighs upon the Horse Guards Parade”. The brutal functionality of the building hid its practical purpose; in the event of a German invasion, it was intended to be a virtual fortress. It has loop-holed firing positions to fend off attackers. The Admiralty Citadel is still in use today by the Ministry of Defence (one suspects it is used purely as an administrative facility, although modifications may have been made below ground: Ed).

CABINET WAR ROOMS

The Cabinet War Rooms is the only London citadel open to the general public; it is located in Horse Guards Road in the basement of what is now HM Treasury. This location was not a purpose built citadel like the Admiralty site; it was instead a reinforced adaptation of an existing basement built many years before. The War Room was converted in 1938 and was heavily used by Winston Churchill during the darker days of the Second World War. However, not long after the war the site was considered too vulnerable to a direct hit and abandoned. They were opened to the public in 1984 and are now maintained by the Imperial War Museum.

The section of the War Room open to general public is, in fact, only a small portion of a much larger facility. The entire facility covers three acres (12,000 meters squared) and housed up to 528 people. The facility included a canteen, hospital, shooting range and dormitories. The centerpiece of the War Rooms is the Cabinet Room where Churchill's War Cabinet met. The Map Room is located nearby; here the course of the war was directed. The facility is well maintained and the original war maps can be espied upon the walls. The Telephone Room was housed next door to the Map Room and provided a direct line to the White House in Washington, D.C.

PINDAR



PINDAR is considered the most important military citadel in central London – and arguably in Britain. The bunker is built beneath the Ministry of Defence, located at Whitehall. Its construction, which took ten years, was finally completed in 1994. It cost a scandalous £126.3 million at the time to complete. Despite not being completed, the PINDAR facility became functional in 1992. Much of the cost overruns were associated with establishing a secure computer equipment facility – it became difficult to install because of the limited access to the bunker.

PINDAR's main function is to serve as a crisis management and communications centre, principally between the MoD headquarters and the actual center of military operations, the Permanent Joint Headquarters in Northwood. It is reported to be connected to Downing Street via tunnels under Whitehall; though manly consider this to be highly unlikely (obvious security weakness). Although rumors persist, the site does not connect to a secret underground transport system. The Armed Forces Minister, Jeremy Hanley, stated in the House of Commons on 29th April 1994 that, "the facility is not connected to any transport system". Obviously, having multiple access points to a secured location defeats the purpose of having security.



The PINDAR facility has seen some public exposure in the form of a 2003 BBC documentary on the Iraq conflict, called *Fighting the War*, in which BBC cameras were allowed to film a small part of a teleconference between ministers and their military commanders.

Q-WHITEHALL



Q-Whitehall is suspected to be the name given to a communications facility under Whitehall.

The facility was built in a 12ft diameter tunnel during World War II; it extends under Whitehall from Trafalgar Square to King Charles Street. The project was known as 'Post Office scheme 2845'.

Sites that are equipped with unusual amounts of GPO/BT telecommunications are given a BT site engineering code. This particular site's code was QWHI; this is presumably where the Q prefix has emerged.

The site provided (provides?) excellent protection for the telecommunications lines and terminal equipment servicing the most important government departments, both civil and military. It ensures that the command and control functions during war would continue despite any heavy bombing of London. At the northern end, the tunnel connects to the BT deep level cable tunnels that were built under much of London during the Cold War. At the southern end, an 8 feet diameter extension (named Scheme 2845B) was built to the Marsham Street Rontundas. Access to the tunnel is gained via an 8 feet lateral tunnel and a lift shaft installed in the nearby Whitehall telephone exchange at Craig's Court.

Spur tunnels, of 5 feet in diameter, were built to provide protected cable routes to the major service buildings either side of Whitehall.

The Whitehall tunnels appear to have been extended in the early 1950s. It is expected that these communications options may still be utilized on a day-to-day basis between government departments (being a major undertaking not likely to have been replicated since). It may be that fibre optic cables have been since installed to increase capacity, and to reduce replacement cabling costs. However, other more secure measures would presumably be now used in wartime.

CIVIL DEFENCE CENTRES IN LONDON

During the Cold War, every London Borough was obliged to construct a Civil Defence Centre. These structures caused controversy due to them being considered a waste of money at the time of construction; many considered the building of these centers, to aid planning after a nuclear war, to be both expensive and pointless (i.e. the total destruction caused would mean no reconstruction was possible).

London was designated Region 5 and had its own Regional Seat of Government in a former Radar Station at Kelvedon Hatch, Essex. Below this Regional authority, the region was split further into 5 groups: North, North-East, North West, South East and South West. Each group had a control centre.

Designated Control Centres

North Group – Not designated

North East Group – Northumberland Avenue, Wanstead group control

North West Group – Beatrice Road, Southall group control

South East Group – Pear Tree House group control

South West Group – Church Hill Road, Cheam group control

These facilities are not longer properly maintained; the Stoke Newington site is now mainly used for council storage, but in the event of impending war, it is estimated that they could be re-commissioned to provide some level of protection.

CORSHAM



The site better known as Corsham (or by its codename, TURNSTILE), was a purpose built nuclear bunker built 120ft below RAF Rudloe Manor, Corsham, Wiltshire. It was a purpose built site developed during the 1960s to act as the seat of government in the event of nuclear war (similar in concept to NORAD in the United States). It was to act as the command centre for the Central Government War Headquarters. It is now largely abandoned, and may never be viable to be refitted due to the lack of repairs performed in the interim.

The facility was an audacious undertaking in its day; the site included a railway station, bakery and accommodation for over 4000 people. This was to house the entire (shadow) Cabinet. It even had a pub named the 'Rose and Crown', modeled on a similar one near Whitehall. There was reportedly room provided for the Royal Family, though doubt has been cast on this hypothesis. The site was laid out on a grid plan. As of 2005, the facility is populated and maintained by just four maintenance staff. A number of alternate uses have been mooted over the years for this disused facility, including making it the largest wine cellar in Europe. The Times reported on October 31 2005 that the facility was up for sale: "A formerly secret Government underground site near Corsham in Wiltshire, which was a potential relocation site for the Government in the event of a nuclear war, was declassified at the end of 2004" and is now up for sale.

The codename BURLINGTON was first used in 1961 and in 1963 it was changed to TURNSTILE. Before 1961, it was known as SUBTERFUGE. Whilst the site was under construction it was referred to as STOCKWELL. Recently the site has been reportedly referred to as 'Site 3'.



The complex comprises of a series of connecting tunnels and caverns in the former stone quarries of North Wiltshire. In the 1940s it was an underground aircraft factory constructed at great expense. After the war, the facility became home to various government and military units. These included the Royal Observer Corps, signals unit and supply depots. From the 1950s, if not earlier, provisions were made for a government command centre, in the event of London sites becoming untenable. The development of thermonuclear weapons by the Russians at the start of the Cold War increased interest in the site. During the 1960s, rooms were apparently provided for the Commanders-in-Chief Committee, for the Prime Minister and the War Cabinet; even elements of the higher civil service.

Doubts about the safety of the site led to plans for the development of a reserve bunker, possibly to be sited in Wales. They were mooted, but they were never followed up.

By the early 1990s, the end of the Cold War saw a large cut in Civil Defence spending. The Corsham site proved to be a large White Elephant, and pressure developed to close it. The site is now largely decommissioned, although the capacity to revive the site hasn't been completely abandon. Although the original reasons for it falling out of favor: the distance from London would proved impracticable in the event of nuclear strike, and the development of similar smaller sites in the London Whitehall Complex like PINDAR seem to signal government intentions. Although the recent upsurge in Islamic fundamentalist terrorism seem to be persuading some military analysts to reconsider the merits of Corsham.

In contrast, the prospectus suggests otherwise:

"The Ministry of Defence is seeking new tenants for a secret underground city, built to shelter the Government in the event of nuclear war, which is now surplus to requirements. The site at Corsham, Wiltshire, is large enough to house 4,000 government personnel. Completed in 1961, it covers hundreds of acres and is connected by ten miles of tunnels. As well as two railway stations and a reservoir, the sunken suburb 120ft (37m) below ground even has a pub."

"Property developers looking for the ultimate place to get away from it all need not apply. The site has a notional value of £5m, but there is a catch. It is available only as part of a private finance initiative that involves investing in the military base on the surface above. Already two uses are being considered: a massive data store for City firms or the biggest wine cellar in Europe. More outlandish ideas put forward include a nightclub for rave parties, a 1950s theme park, or a reception centre for asylum seekers. The Ministry of Defence (MoD) has ruled out any suggestions of using it to store nuclear waste or providing open public access because of the dangers that still lurk below."



The 'dangers' suggested are of the natural, not the man-made variety. The tunnels of the complex have been carved out of relatively soft stone: remember, the whole site began life as an underground quarry. Much of the tunneling present is roughly hewn. The second stage of the development was the construction of the ammunition depots and aircraft engine factories. This stage was unfortunately undertaken in extreme haste, because of the needs of wartime, and so the civil engineering here isn't of the highest standard. The overall result is that much of the complex is damp, prone to falling roofs, and quite unsuited for long-term commercial exploitation.

Other facts include:

Rail Access was via a junction in or near the start of the Box Tunnel (that leads to Whitehall)
It had a dental surgery, BBC studios and large telephone exchange
The Rose and Crown pub was a replica of the Red Lion pub in Whitehall
The address of one (unspecified) feature was 3 East Second Street
The facility would have enough resources to keep 5,000 people alive for a year



APPENDIX B: THE TROUBLES

OVERVIEW



The Troubles of Northern Ireland have been a defining aspect of British and Irish government policy for the last 30 years. Little part of English and Irish society hasn't been affected at one point by the problems of Northern Ireland. So say nothing of the harsh realities for the actual residence of the province. It may be true to say that the outright violence of the past has been quelled in the province, but such scars grow deep and find other ways of express themselves. This section is provided as a background to the conflict. The sections are broke down into key incidents, ideals and factions. The history of violence, is usually the violence of history: historical incidents are usually the basis of retribution i.e. British partitioning of Ireland et al.



ORIGINS

The Anglo-Norman invasion of 1167, at the invitation of disgruntled chief, Diarmait MacMurchada, was facilitated by there being no established system of succession amongst the competing Irish dynasties. As a result of the invasion, the English established a colony known as the Pale, in and around Dublin. Over time, there was an exchange of ideas between the two groups and assimilation occurred.

The Reformation, Henry VIII's challenged to Rome, radically altered England's role in Ireland. The colony was now looked upon as an area of importance, in defence of attacks from staunch Catholic countries like Spain and France; and it was given the status of a Kingdom. Religion became a cause of bitter division in both England and Ireland, when Henry imposed Protestantism by force. During this time many English settlers started to colonize Ireland; posing a serious challenge to Gaelic culture.

Hugh O'Neil, the last of the great Irish chieftains, was forced into surrendering at Mellifont in 1603. The defeat of Ulster's Irish Kings after the Nine Years War led to the Flight of the Earls in 1607. This led to the *Plantation of Ulster* initiative that began in 1610. Under this Act of Parliament, most of the best farming land was confiscated from the native Irish population and given to settlers; most of whom were Scottish Presbyterians. The dispossessed Catholics rose up in rebellion in 1641, but they were soundly defeated by Cromwell's avenging army in 1649.

When King James II came to the throne in 1685, the Protestant powers became fearful of Catholic ascendancy. In 1688, William of Orange was asked to overthrow the King James; they met at the Battle of the Boyne in 1690 and William ended up victorious. Political authority was restored and the Anglican aristocracy instituted a series of new Penal Laws. These measures were effectively a series of punitive measures against Catholics that ensured political, economic and social ascendancy for the Protestant elite and settlers.

There were no sizable rebellions by the Catholics during the 1690s through to the 1790s. After the 1790s there have been a series of political movements to liberate Ireland from the English. All such rebellions failed. There were, however, a series of political concessions made culminating in Daniel O'Connell's astute political leadership leading to Catholic emancipation, and Charles Stewart Parnell putting Home Rule seriously on the parliamentary agenda.

The Protestants in the north-east of Ireland benefited greatly from the rise of the industrial revolution; their success attributed to their Protestant faith and culture. They supported the union with Britain and staunchly opposed any calls for an Irish Parliament. The Protestants feared an Irish Parliament would discriminate against Protestants. In 1912, the Third Home Rule Bill was submitted to Parliament and was likely to succeed. In response, the Protestants under the leadership of Sir Edward Carson, signed the Ulster Solemn League and Covenant. A year later, the Ulster Volunteer Force, a Protestant militia, was set up to resist Home Rule by force.

PARTITION AND THE BIRTH OF NORTHERN IRELAND

A great divide had occurred between the predominantly Protestant north-east of Ireland, and the predominantly Catholic south of Ireland; the north-east had grown into industrial powerhouse under English tutelage and the south remained predominantly an agrarian economy. Towards the latter stages of the 19th Century, there was growing pressure on the British government to institute home rule for Ireland. The Gladstone Liberal government responded to demands from nationalists. The Unionists believed that the Catholics would have power over the new parliament, instituting poor government planning and policies that would lead to diminished profits for their manufacturing businesses. By 1886, the Unionists also began lobbying for the preservation of the union. After realizing around 1912-1914 they were losing the battle to retain the union; they sought to press for partitioning. They were forced to accept that Home Rule was now inevitable.

Gladstone had little luck introducing his Home Rule Bills. His 1886 Bill was defeated in the Commons by a Liberal party revolt, and the 1893 Bill was defeated in the House of Lords.

Asquith's Liberal government took up the mantle and introduced the third Home Rule Bill in 1912. Armed resistance was threatened by Dublin Unionist MP, Edward Carson, if Ulster was governed from Dublin. Between 1912 and 1914, Unionists supporters signed the Solemn League and Covenant and formed the UVF. The Bill was passed, but suspended for the duration of the Great War.

The possibility of Home Rule stemmed the campaign for an independent Ireland; however, the 1916 Easter Rising created a volatile situation that seriously threatened this notion. The execution of its leaders inflamed nationalist fervor, and by 1918, Home Rule was no longer acceptable to nationalists. In the General elections later that year, Sinn Féin won virtually every seat outside of Ulster. The following year the Irish Republican Army began a guerilla war against Britain. In 1920, the British Parliament passed the *Government of Ireland Act*, which sought to set up a home rule parliament and government in both the north and south. The aim of this Act was to keep both jurisdictions under Westminster control, and satisfy and reconcile the competing interests. The Ulster unionists accepted the deal, but the Irish nationalists rejected it and continued to seek their independence. A treaty in 1921 eventually created a 26-county Irish Free State. This new state had dominion status similar to Canada.

The new state of Northern Ireland contained a built-in Protestant majority. At this time, Premier Craig sought to consolidate unionist power, than attempt to marry the competing interests of his constituency. At this time, the government sought to change the electoral system from proportional representation to the First-Past-the-Post system: further consolidating Unionist control. Premier Craig also altered local government boundaries to gain further advantage – even resting political control over the pro-nationalist city of Londonderry. There were also other policies of discrimination against Catholics in the area of housing and employment opportunities. This virtual one-party state eventually collapsed into violence 50 years later.

NORTHERN IRELAND CIVIL RIGHTS' MOVEMENT

The Northern Ireland Civil Rights Association was formed in January 1967 in response to four decades of Unionist discrimination against Catholics. The Association had five demands:

- One man, one vote in council elections
- The ending of gerrymandering of electoral boundaries
- Institute machinery to prevent discrimination by public authorities and to deal with complaints
- Fair allocation of public housing
- To repeal the *Special Powers Act* and disbanding of the B Specials (a predominantly Protestant auxiliary police force).

The civil rights movement came to prominence during the O’Neil era. The period from 1963-69 under the Prime Ministerial reign of Captain Terence O’Neil, who advocated reconciliation between Catholics and Protestants; this saw greater freedoms of political expression for nationalist ideals. O’Neil made history when he invited the Irish Taoiseach, Sean Lemass, to Stormont in 1965. He also angered fundamentalists becoming the first Prime Minister to visit a Catholic convent school and shake hands with a nun. Such shows of public reconciliation didn’t deliver Catholics from discrimination, and they called for joint participation in the political process. A new generation of Catholics, who had benefited from the 1949 Education Act, had higher expectations for their future. They watched the civil rights movement unfold in the United States and how the student movement in France had achieved change; concluding that direct action in Northern Ireland was their only alternative.

The civil rights campaign successfully mobilized Catholics for the first time since 1921. Protests were undertaken by NICRA in Londonderry on the 5th of October 1968, in response to the gerrymandering of votes by unionists in the pro-nationalist stronghold. The march had been banned by the Minister of Home Affairs, William Craig; he later accused the civil rights movement of being nothing more than a political front for the IRA.

The presence of a camera crew from RTE, the Irish national television station, captured graphic displays of police brutality perpetrated by the RUC against marchers and even prominent politicians. These pictures were broadcast around the world and reminded people of the tactics used by police against black civil rights campaigners in America’s southern states. The Catholic community’s confidence in the RUC was further eroded; helping to seriously undermine the Unionist State, and the reconciliation movement.

BATTLE OF THE BOGSIDE

By the Summer of 1969, the crisis engulfing Northern Ireland was becoming ever closer to outright conflict. Terence O’Neil who had sought open dialogue with the Catholics, was replaced by Major James Chichester-Clark. Negotiations between the Unionist government and the minority Catholic community had reached a stalemate, and Catholic demands for basic civil rights were not met. As the loyalist marching season approached, sectarian passions were inflamed.

The Orange marching calendar has two big annual events. On 12th of July Orangemen commemorate the Battle of the Boyne; the other being when Apprentice Boys march in Londonderry to commemorate the Siege of Derry in 1689: when two local apprentice boys closed the city’s gates against King James’ Army.

Tension was high in the summer of 1969 between the Derry Catholics and the RUC. The previous month had seen Sammy Devenney die of injuries sustained at the hands of RUC officers in his own home.

Sectarian clashes occurred as the Apprentice Boys marched past the perimeter of the Catholic Bogside. The RUC intervened and (assisted by a Protestant mob) charged at the nationalists and forced them into William Street. Within hours, the area had broken out into open warfare; the police were stoned and petrol bombed as they attempted to gain control kitted out full riot gear. After two days and nights of continued violence, the police were exhausted.



The new Prime Minister of Northern Ireland, James Chichester-Clarke, called the British Prime Minister, Harold Wilson and asked for troops to be sent to Derry. Unbeknownst to the Northern Irish premier the troops were already on standby. At around 4.00pm that day, a company of soldiers from the Prince of Wales Own Regiment relieved the police of their command. This direct intervention by the British in the internal affairs of Northern Ireland further incensed Catholics; the riot and intervention became known as ‘the Battle of Bogside’.

Riots erupted in Belfast after the Civil Rights Association called upon Catholics to take pressure off the Bogside by stretching police resources elsewhere. Five Catholics and one Protestant were killed on 14 August. The next day troops were also deployed in Belfast. That night Protestant mobs burnt almost every Catholic house in Bombay Street.

PROVISIONAL I.R.A EMERGES

Between 1956 and 1962, the IRA undertook an unsuccessful border insurgency campaign. Internment without trial laws curtailed such military operations and ultimately broke IRA morale. On the 26th of February 1962, the IRA announced that Operation Harvest, its border campaign, was over.

Under new leadership in the 1960s, the IRA movement embraced a Marxist agenda. It gave up violence as a means of achieving a united Ireland. Its new policy sought to create a 32-county socialist republic. They were influenced by the writings of Wolfe Tone; its strategy was to unite Catholic, Protestant and Dissenter in Northern Ireland, so that they would eventually be united with their brothers in the South and overthrow capitalism. The idealistic platform blithely ignored two important factors: Rev. Ian Paisley and other diehard unionists opposed to O’Neil liberal agenda (that had been his downfall), and working class Catholics who were fervently anti-Communist.

The Ulster Volunteer Force in 1966, in the meantime, was revamped and embarked upon a sectarian campaign against Catholics.

In 1967, the Northern Ireland Civil Rights Associations (NICRA) was set up and organized street demonstrations to lobby for basic civil rights. After a series of marches where the RUC resorted to heavy-handed tactics, leading to the outright conflict in Bogside in Derry, and eventually outright conflict in the streets of Belfast in August 1969. Catholics were calling out for direct action. At the IRA convention in December 1969, the Belfast Brigade argued that the IRA had lost credibility, because it had failed to protect Catholics from sectarian attacks. Many favored a return to an armed strategy. But the convention voted in favor of politics over direct action, and the Northern Brigade walked out and set up the Provisional Army Council.

The formal split came at the Sinn Fein Árd-Fheis in January 1970, when those opposed to recognizing the parliaments in Dublin, London and Belfast walked out and set up Provisional Sinn Fein. The Provisional IRA was established in December. In 1994, they were to call a cease-fire to allow for political solutions to work.

INTERMENT

At dawn on Monday the 9th of August 1971, over 3,000 soldiers backed up by RUC Special Branch officers swooped on houses throughout Northern Ireland and arrested over 300 men. Most were arrested using out-of-date intelligence; subsequently, it was discovered that many that were arrested neither belonged to the Provisional or the Official IRA. The entire operation had taken just 3 hours to complete. Within 48 hours, 104 prisoners were released. The remainder, were sent to Crumlin Road Jail, or on to the Maidstone: a prison ship moored at the Belfast docks. As the arrests continued, the army had to open up a disused RAF base called Long Kesh to accommodate the burgeoning prison population.

Brian Faulkner, Northern Ireland’s third Prime Minister in little over a year, had introduced internment without trial to counter IRA violence, but the strategy backfired. The security measures were almost exclusively used against the Catholic community, and within hours of the arrests rioting and shooting had broken out across Belfast; and then spread to Derry, Strabane, Armagh and Newry. By 11.15am that morning, Faulkner announced his government was at war with the terrorists.

The policy of internment without trial had worked successfully against the IRA during the 1950s, but in 1971 it proved to be a serious security and political blunder. In the year up until the 9th of August, 34 people had died in violence, three days later, a further 22 more people had lost their lives. Thousands of people had been forced to leave their homes in Belfast, and had left for refugee camps across the border.

Reginald Maudling was the Home Secretary at the time and had sanctioned the action wrote later, “[it] was by almost universal consent an unmitigated disaster, which has left an indelible mark on the history of Northern Ireland”.

The internment policy flouted international human rights obligations, and many who were arrested were subjected to inhuman and degrading treatment. The Army, desperate to get up-to-date intelligence to cover their embarrassment about he bungled raids, resorted to interrogation methods previously used in the former British colonies. Those thought to have valuable information, were subjected to sleep deprivation, poor food and sanitation; they were spread-eagled for hours against walls with hoods over their heads; and subjected to electronic white noise. Of course, physical violence was an ever-present threat, and reality.

Civil rights lawyers accused the government of advocating torture. The Irish Government made a formal complaint to the European Commission for Human Rights on their behalf, later also to the European Court of Human Rights. The Commission found the British Government guilty of torture, but the European Court ruled the treatment was inhuman and degrading; but it did not constitute torture.

The Internment policy not only provoked further violence, but it helped to galvanized simmering political tension into support for the IRA, and enabled republicans to raise monies in the United States for their cause.

BLOODY SUNDAY

Bloody Sunday is named after events occurring on Sunday the 30th of January 1972, in Londonderry. British Soldiers shot dead 13 men and injured 14 others. Another victim died later.

The victims were participating in an illegal march organized against the internment without trial policy. The march had been organized by the Northern Ireland Civil Rights Association (NICRA) and was both a protest against internment, and a protest against the ban on the right to march.

The organizers were so anxious about hostilities breaking out on the 30th of January march that they had sought and received reassurances from the IRA that they would withdraw from the area for the duration of the march.

On the day of the march, around 10,000 people had gathered in Creggan Estate and proceeded towards Guildhall Square in the center of the city. Paratroopers had sealed off the approaches to the square and the march organizers, in an effort to avoid trouble, had led most of the demonstrators off towards the Free Derry Corner of Bogside.



Groups of youths had stayed behind at the army barricades to confront the soldiers. The soldiers' orders were to move in and arrest as many rioters as possible. At 4.07pm, 1 Para requested permission to arrest the rioters. At 4.10pm, the soldiers had opened fire on the crowd. In just over 39 minutes, there were 13 civilians dead.

The soldiers claimed that they had been fired upon as they moved in to make their arrests. However, the people of Bogside firmly believed the army had summarily executed 13 unarmed civilians. The killings provoked outrage at home and abroad; some claiming it was "another Sharpeville". The British Embassy in Dublin was subsequently burnt down, and Bernadette Devlin MP physically attacked the Home Secretary, Reginald Maudling, in the House of Commons.

The British Prime Minister, Edward Heath, appointed the Lord Chief Justice of England, Lord Widgery, to undertake an inquiry. The verdict was controversial when it appeared in April 1972. It concluded that the soldiers had been fired upon first, yet there was no evidence that the dead or wounded were handling weapons. The Londonderry Coroner, Major Hubert O'Neil, did not share the Lord's conclusions. He said it was, "sheer unadulterated murder".

On the eve of the twentieth anniversary of the killings, there were calls for an independent inquiry. The Prime Minister John Major's response that those killed could be regarded as innocent did little to satisfy the relatives of the deceased and injured. In 1998, Prime Minister, Tony Blair, announced that there would indeed be a new inquiry on the grounds of 'compelling new evidence'. Lord Saville of Newdigate was appointed to chair the inquiry; as yet, the findings have yet to be published.

DIRECT RULE

The Unionist parliament at Stormont, which had governed Northern Ireland since its foundation in 1921, sat for the last time on Tuesday the 28th of March 1972. The British Conservative leader Edward Heath had decided to strip the parliament of its power to govern and reintroduced direct rule from Westminster. The response was in response to the worsening security situation that had started with Bloody Sunday. The British government had to deal with a widening threat to the homeland, after the bombing of the British Embassy in Dublin, and the detonation of an Official IRA bomb at the Aldershot HQ of the Parachute Regiment that killed three civilians (February). This was also followed by an assassination attempt on a Northern Ireland government minister.

The ranks of the IRA had swelled since Bloody Sunday and they stepped up their bombing activities. By March, the newly formed Ulster Vanguard Movement had assembled with over 60,000 supporters at a rally in Belfast; their leader, William Craig, stated that if politicians failed to neutralize the IRA, "it may be our job to liquidate the enemy".

With the security of Northern Ireland becoming desperate the Prime Minister, Edward Heath, called upon Brian Faulkner, the Northern Ireland Prime Minister, to transfer control for law and order back to the British Government. Neither Faulkner nor his cabinet agreed and they all promptly resigned.

On the final day of parliament, some 100,000 unionists converged on the drive before Stormont. This was the second day of a protest strike called by the Vanguard leader, William Craig, against British Government Policy. The strike had seriously affected power supplies, forced businesses into closure and stopped public transport. When Faulkner and Craig joined other leading unionists on the balcony at Parliament they were greeted and cheered. Many speculated that Craig would announce a Vanguard coup, but this failed to materialize. Faulkner called for restrained and dignified protest against British actions and asked the crowd to disperse. This marked the end of the two-day strike.

The newly appointed Secretary of State, William Whitelaw, was given the role of managing the day-to-day activities of Northern Ireland; including security. Catholics generally greeted the fall of Stormont as progress, but the IRA saw the introduction of direct rule as further evidence of the British Government's intent to remain in Northern Ireland. The IRA in response stepped up their bombing campaign.

Apart from the five months of the power-sharing Executive in 1974, Northern Ireland was solely governed from Westminster until 2 December 1999, when the Northern Ireland Executive set up under the Belfast Agreement took over limited responsibility for government. Due to a myriad of concerns, not the least the decommissioning of terror organizations, the British Government imposed direct rule again in October 2002.

CEASE-FIRE & BLOODY FRIDAY

There were sustained attempts to persuade the IRA to call a halt to its bombing campaign, after the Abercorn Bar bomb of 4 March 1972. The next day the Independent Unionist MP Tom Caldwell met with IRA leaders in Dublin. Negotiations were suggested to take place further in London and the IRA demonstrated good will by calling a three-day cease-fire to begin on the 10th of March. On the last day of the cease-fire, the opposition Labour leader Harold Wilson and his Shadow Northern Ireland spokesman Merlyn Rees flew to Dublin.

The meeting eventually took place at a house in Phoenix Park, but achieved nothing substantial. On 24 March, the government introduced direct rule from Westminster. The IRA in response intensified its military campaign.

Following the disastrous publicity generated by the death of a Catholic soldier in Derry and the Bloody Sunday revenge bombing in Aldershot, the Official IRA declared a permanent cease-fire in May. The Provisional IRA called a press conference in Derry to announce that they were too prepared to call a truce. But in exchange for a cease-fire and talks, they wanted the government to grant prisoner of war status to its members. The Government agreed to Provisional IRA demands and introduced special category status for such prisoners on 20 June. The IRA reciprocated by enforcing a cease-fire six days later.

IRA leaders, including Martin McGuinness and Gerry Adams, were flown to London on 7 July to meet with the Secretary of State William Whitelaw at a house in Chelsea. At the meeting, the IRA demanded that Britain withdraw from Ireland before 1 January 1975. Whitelaw was in no position to agree and the talks broke down.

The cease-fire ended dramatically two days later on Sunday 9 July; the IRA opened fire on soldiers who had been preventing displaced Catholics moving into empty Protestant houses in Lenadoon Avenue in West Belfast. Later that night, nine people were dead including a Catholic priest.

The militia and bombing campaign continued and on Friday 21 July nine people were killed, in just over an hour, when 21 bombs exploded systematically one after another in Belfast. This day has become known as Bloody Friday. A police officer interviewed by the BBC at the time said, "You could hear people screaming and crying and moaning. One of the most horrendous memories for me was seeing a head stuck to a wall. A couple of days later we found vertebrae and a ribcage on the roof of a nearby building".

The IRA subsequently blamed the security forces for not passing on the warnings in time.

POWER SHARING EXECUTIVE

The 1974 power-sharing Executive was the first experimental attempt at creating a cross-community government in Northern Ireland. It lasted only five months. The Agreement to set up the Executive had been reached at Stormont in 21 November 1973. The agreement was counter-signed by Brian Faulkner for the Unionists; Gerry Fitt for the SDLP; Oliver Napier for the Alliance Party; and they were joined by the British Prime Minister Edward Heath and the Irish Taoiseach Liam Cosgrave at Sunningdale (the Civil Service College in Berkshire) on 6 December. This meeting was to negotiate arrangements for a Council of Ireland and the political framework for the new government at Stormont. Politicians who were opposed to a political settlement were excluded from participation.

The Sunningdale Agreement was announced on 9 December and was quickly denounced by anti-power-sharing unionists as a step towards a united Ireland. They subsequently vowed to destroy it. The two most controversial areas in the Agreement were the proposed Council of Ireland and reforms of the RUC.

The power-sharing Executive took office on the 1st of January 1974 and they were led by UUP leader Brian Faulkner; with SDLP leader Gerry Fitt as his deputy. The first political casualty was Brian Faulkner after the Ulster Unionist Council rejected the Agreement on the 4 January. He immediately formed a new party, the Unionist Party of Northern Ireland, but only 17 pro-Sunningdale colleagues joined him. This posed constitutional problems, as the Executive leader now only represented a minority within the majority unionist community. Conversely, the SDLP had 19 seats, which meant they were the minority community, but had a majority stake in the parliament.

The three parties opposed to the power-sharing arrangements; the UUP led by Harry West; the DUP lead by Rev Ian Paisley and Vanguard led by William Craig, dared to set up an opposition umbrella organization (the United Ulster Unionist Council) and planned efforts to destroy the Agreement and therefore; the legitimacy of the Agreement.

The Executive was faced with further complications when Edward Heath called a general election in Britain on 7th of February. The UUUC won 11 of the 12 Westminster seats and the newly formed Unionist Party of Northern Ireland failed to have any of its seven candidates elected. The slogan of the UUUC was, ‘Dublin is just a Sunningdale away’, the message couldn’t have been clearer to the Northern Ireland Executive. The only pro-Sunningdale candidate to win a Westminster seat was Gerry Fitt, the SDLP leader and deputy Chief Executive of the power-sharing administration.

The UUUC, encourage that they had a mandate, threatened industrial disruption if the new Labour government under PM Harold Wilson didn’t scrap the Executive. On 14 May the Ulster Workers’ Council called the strike, and 14 days later, the Executive was forced into resigning.

ULSTER WORKERS’ COUNCIL STRIKE

A short time after the results of the Assembly debate and the Sunningdale Agreement was announced in 14 May 1974, Harry Murray, a Belfast shipyard worker and chairman of the Ulster Workers’ Council call for an industrial strike. The Ulster Workers’ Council was a group of loyalist trade unionists, who were determined to defeat the power-sharing arrangements as instituted.

The strike began the next day, Wednesday 15 May, when power cuts forced the closure of several factories. On the first day of the strike it appeared the call was not heeded when many workers turned up for work. It appeared that the UWC had implemented poor control strategies and lacked the support of the majority of Protestant workers. Later that afternoon, the Ulster Defence Association and the Loyalist Volunteer Force issued a statement that ordered loyalist to cease work immediately. The statement was reinforced by widespread intimidation, so that by Friday of the first week the stoppage was all embracing. Tension mounted on 17 May when UVF bombs detonated in Dublin and Monaghan killing 33 people – there had been no-warning issued.

On 18 May, Len Murray, the General Secretary of the Trades Union Council, arrived in Belfast to head up a Back to Work march. Only 200 workers turned up and it seriously dented the credibility of the organization.

Brian Faulkner, the Chief Executive of the power-sharing administration, pressed the Secretary of State, Merlyn Rees, to send in troops to break up the strike, but neither the army nor British Government wanted to undertake such drastic actions – or be seen to be doing so. On Saturday 25 May, Harold Wilson undertook a Prime Ministerial broadcast accusing the strikers of ‘sponging on Westminster’ and to decry the leadership of the trade unions as being led by thugs and bullies. Needless to say, this was a serious political blunder that led to increasing solidarity amongst the disparate union groups. Within three days of the broadcast the Executive had collapsed, the Council of Ireland was shelved and the power-sharing arrangements were at an end.

DUBLIN-MONAGHAN BOMBS

The Dublin and Monaghan bombs represent the greatest, single loss of life during one day of the Troubles. The bombs exploded without warning on 17 May 1974, killing 33 people and injuring hundreds more. Three cars were used in the Dublin attack had been stolen from Belfast and the car used in the Monaghan bomb had been taken from Portadown.

Twenty-six people were killed in Dublin as three car bombs exploded within minutes of each other during Friday evening rush hour. The first bomb exploded in Parnell Street at around 3.30pm. Less than a minute later, another exploded outside of O’Neil’s Shoe Shop in Talbot Street. The third went off in South Leinster Street, near the Irish Parliament. Ninety minutes later in Monaghan, incidentally while the customers at Greacen’s Pub watched in carnage in Dublin, another car bomb parked outside exploded killing seven people.

The attacks coincided with the Loyalist Ulster Workers’ Council Strike. Sammy Smyth, a UDA spokesman said at the time of the bombings, “I am very happy about the bombings in Dublin. There is a war with the Free State and now we are laughing at them”. At the time, no group claimed responsibility for the action, but later in 1993, the Ulster Volunteer Force admitted to the atrocity. There have been documentaries that claim British military intelligence had a hand in developing the sophisticated bombs for the UVF: previous UVF bombs had been fairly primitive in design. Relatives of the deceased have sought to clear up the circumstances of the deaths, another broadcast had claimed that the Irish Police and the RUC knew of the identity of the bombers. There have been calls for an independent inquiry by the Irish Government to determine who indeed was responsible. No one has yet has been charged or convicted of the bombings.

HUNGER STRIKES, BLANKET AND DIRTY PROTEST

The Secretary of State, William Whitelaw, in July 1972, granted special category status to all prisoners convicted of terrorist related crimes. This had been one of the conditions demanded by the Provisional IRA when they negotiated with the British Government about establishing a truce. The Special category was effectively that of prisoner of war status, which meant prisoners didn’t have to wear prison uniforms, perform prison work and they were allowed extra visits and food parcels.

The republican and loyalist prisoners used this privilege to run the Maze compounds they occupied similar to that of a prisoner of war camp. In January 1975, the Gardiner Committee, which was detailed to look at how the Government should deal with terrorism in the context of civil liberties and human rights, recommended the suspension of the special category status. It argued that the special category status undermined the role of prison authorities in maintaining discipline.



On 1 March 1976, the new Labour Secretary of State Merlyn Rees announced the phasing out of the special category status. Anyone now undertaking terrorist related activities would be considered an ordinary criminal and afforded the same rights.

By Autumn of 1976, the new cellular prison accommodation as recommended by Gardiner was ready to receive its first inmates. In the week that Merlyn Rees was stood aside for Roy Mason as the new Secretary of State, Kieran Nugent, the first prisoner sentenced under the new regime, arrived at the Maze Prison and was ordered to wear a prison uniform.

Nugent refused point blank to wear the uniform claiming he was a political prisoner, not a criminal. He was locked in his cell where he wrapped himself in a blanket, rather than to remain naked. The blanket protest was born and soon many other prisoners followed suit. By 1978, nearly 300 republican prisoners were refusing to wear prison uniforms.

The protest failed to have any substantial political impact, despite a number of republican street protests. In March 1978, the prisoners fed up with constant harassment by prison guards when they went in the toilets; the prisoners began their no-wash protest; it soon became known as the Dirty Protest. The prisoners sensing the theatre value of doing so began to daub their excreta on the walls of their cells.

The dirty protest ended on 2 March 1981, the day after Bobby Sands began his 66-day hunger strike that ended in his death.

THE DEATH OF BOBBY SANDS

The republican prisoners' blanket and dirty protests had established five specific demands:

- The right to wear their own clothes
- The right not to do prison work
- The right of free association
- The right to a weekly visit and to educational and recreational pursuits
- The full restoration of remission lost through the protest.

In the autumn of 1980, the Thatcher government offered limited concessions, offering civilian-type clothes; the prisoners subsequently rejected them.

The Provisional IRA commander Brendan Hughes decided to escalate the pressure on the British Government by announcing that seven men would begin a hunger strike to death, until their five demands were met. The Provisional IRA Army Council opposed the strike, but a number of prisoners on H-Block were determined to participate. On 27 October 1980, Brendan Hughes and six other men refused food. Three republican women prisoners interned at Armagh jail enjoined the protest on 1 December.

During the second month of the hunger strike and intermediary was sent to tell Hughes that a compromise was possible – despite public assurances to the contrary. Hughes found himself in a quandary between believing the offer was genuine, and possibly saving the life of one hunger striker, Sean McKenna, who was on the verge of death, and to continue the strike after 53 days. The hunger strike was aborted. When the document finally arrived it simply stated the Government's ongoing public position; the hunger strikers had been outmaneuvered.

The command of the Provisional IRA at the Maze then passed to Bobby Sands who immediately started making plans for a second hunger strike. This time it was decided that the prisoners would stagger their starting dates: as to initiate a rising mortality rate, and corresponding political pressure. There were numerous volunteers, but the Army Council rejected the requests of women at Armagh prison to join the strike.

The second hunger strike began on 1 March 1981, when Bobby Sands refused food. On 5 March, the MP for Fermanagh and South Tyrone died. Bobby Sands was nominated as an anti-H-Block candidate and won the election. Bobby Sands plight became international news and the international press were generally sympathetic to the prisoners' demands. Pope John Paul II even sent his Papal Envoy, Monsignor John Magee, to dissuade Sands from giving up his life.

Three weeks after his election, Sands collapsed into a coma and died on 5 May. His hunger strike had lasted 66 days. A hundred thousand people attended his funeral. His death initiated riots across Northern Ireland and street protests in many cities around the world.

By the time the hunger strike had been suspended on 3 October 1981, ten men had starved themselves to death.

VIOLENCE AND NEGOTIATIONS

After the death of Bobby Sands in 5 May 1981, riots engulfed republican areas of Northern Ireland. A few hours after his death an RUC constable named Phillip Ellis was killed whilst holding the peace-line in North Belfast by a Provisional IRA gunman. A Protestant milkman and his son also died after being attacked during riots in the Catholic New Lodge area of Belfast.

As more hunger strikers perished in Sands wake, the killings on the streets continued. Two Catholic schoolgirls, Julie Livingstone and Carol Ann Kelly, died after being hit by plastic bullets fired by soldiers. As Raymond McCreesh approached his death on the 59th day of his hunger strike, the Provisional IRA detonated a 600lb landmine near Camlough, County Armagh, the hometown of McCreesh. The explosion killed the five occupants of an army Saracen vehicle.

A fortnight after the last hunger striker, Mickey Devine, had died, two off-duty soldiers, Sojan Singh Virdee and John Lunt, were lured by two women to a flat in the Strammillis area of South Belfast. Shortly after their arrival, three members of the Provisional IRA burst in and opened fire. Sojan Singh Virdee died instantly, but John Lunt survived.

The Thatcher government attempted to tough out the situation and refused to accede to prisoner demands. A Dungannon priest named Fr Denis Faul attempted to persuade the prisoners' families to intervene. On 28 July, as Kevin Lynch approached 69 days of his fast, Father Faul met some of the prisoners' families. He told the families that the prisoners' deaths would prove futile, as Thatcher wouldn't make any further concessions. Nothing would be gained by more deaths.

At a later meeting in Belfast, Gerry Adams told the prisoners' families that the Provisional IRA couldn't order the men off their fast. The following morning Father Faul received a call from Adams saying he was prepared to talk with the hunger strikers to dissuade them from their course of action. He said the Republican movement would welcome their decision to call it off. The prisoners, however, insisted on continuation until their demands were met.

The prisoners' families decided to act on Father Faul's advice; Paddy Quinn and Pat McKeown were moved to the medical wing. By the 6th of September, a further four more prisoners joined them. On 3 October, the remaining hunger strikers ended their fasts. Three days later, the Thatcher government announced prisoners could wear their civilian clothes. Subsequently, the substance of the prisoners' five demands were met, however, no formal recognition was granted in regards to their political status.

During the 217 days of the hunger strike, ten prisoners had starved to death and outside of the prison structure another 61 people were killed in escalating and continued violence.

THE ANGLO-IRISH AGREEMENT

The Anglo-Irish Agreement (AIA) was signed by Prime Minister, Margaret Thatcher, and Irish Taoiseach, Garret Fitzgerald, at Hillsborough Castle on 15 November 1985. It was considered at the time to be the most significant development in the relationship between Ireland and Britain since the partition settlement in 1920. The Agreement was an internationally binding treaty lodged with the United Nations and supported by the House of Commons and the Dáil Éireann.

The Agreement was embraced by the nationalist SDLP, but denounced in the Republic by the leader of the opposition party, Charles Haughey; he accused the Irish government of betraying the constitution by 'copper-fastening' partition and acceptance of, "the British presence in Ireland as valid and legitimate".

The Unionist movement also vehemently opposed the Agreement. They could not accept the Republic's government meddling in Northern Ireland affairs. The day after the signing, their News Letter summed up unionist opposition, when it claimed, "yesterday the ghosts of Cromwell and Lundy walked hand in hand to produce a recipe for bloodshed and conflict, which has few parallels in modern history".

The Agreement represented a compromise between British and Irish governance. In return for Dublin's formal recognition of the legitimacy of Northern Ireland, London had agreed to confer with the Republic's government on all matters relating to Northern Ireland's nationalist minority. The relationship was outlined in the Agreement's 13 Articles. The following Articles appear:

Article 1	Status of Northern Ireland
Article 2-4	Intergovernmental Conference
Article 5-6	Political Matters
Article 7	Security and Related Matters
Article 8	Legal Matters including the Administration of Justice
Article 9-10	Cross Border Cooperation on Security, Economic, Social and Cultural Matters
Article 11	Arrangements for Review
Article 12	Inter-parliamentary Relations
Article 13	Final Clauses

A major feature of the Agreement was the setting up of an Inter-governmental Conference, to be headed by both the Secretary of State for Northern Ireland, and the Irish Foreign Minister. This conference was to have a permanent secretariat composed of civil servants from both sides of the border. It was to be based at Maryfield, near the Stormont Estate, and had responsibility for monitoring political, security, legal and other issues of concern to the Nationalist minority.

The two governments had differing views as to the significance of the Agreement. The Irish Taoiseach believed it was effectively a joint Authority; whilst Margaret Thatcher maintained the Irish input was merely consultative. Especially, as the constitutional position of Northern Ireland remained unaltered.

UNIONIST REACTION

The unionist movement saw the Anglo-Irish Agreement as a betrayal of their support for the British Government; they felt shocked and humiliated. They could not understand how the government could undermine their birthright by imposing the Agreement on them, without their consent. They suspiciously looked upon the Republic of Ireland's government new role in the agreement as the first step towards a united Ireland, and a victory for the Provisional IRA.

At the Martyrs Memorial Church in Belfast the Sunday after the Agreement was signed, the Rev Dr Ian Paisley exhorted his congregation to invoke God's wrath upon Margaret Thatcher. "We pray this night that thou wouldst deal with the Prime Minister of our country. We remember that the Apostle Paul handed over the enemies of truth to the Devil that they might learn not to blaspheme. O God, in wrath take vengeance upon this wicked, treacherous, lying woman; take vengeance upon her, Oh Lord, and grant that we shall see a demonstration of thy power."

These words were soon the catalyst for demonstrations, strikes and violence. Five days after the signing, a loyalist crowd attacked the Secretary of State, Tom King, as he visited Belfast City Hall. Three days later, 100,000 unionists descended upon City Hall to demonstrate their opposition. A fortnight later, 2,000 workers from Harland and Wolff shipyard, Shorts aircraft manufacturers and Ballylumford power station undertook a protest march to the Anglo-Irish Secretariat at Mayfield. All 15 Unionist MPs resigned from Westminster on 17 December, forcing embarrassing by-elections for the British Government. A day of action was declared on 3 March 1986, which eventually closed down most industry and commerce. Upon evening fall, rioting took place as snipers opened fire on police, mainly in the loyalist areas of Belfast.

The unionist-controlled local councils in Northern Ireland refused to recognize the legitimacy of the Assembly and concentrated their efforts solely to oppose the Agreement. The Assembly was finally dissolved in June 1986. The Agreement effectively created a stalemate in Northern Ireland politics for the next five years. The unionists refused to consider any form of negotiation with the nationalists. By 1987, the opinion of the world was slowly turning towards resolving the Northern Ireland problem, once and for all.

THE ENNISKILLEN BOMB

Just before 11.00am on 8 November 1987, a Provisional IRA bomb detonated without warning as people gathered for the annual Remembrance Day service in Enniskillen. Eleven people died and a further 63 people were injured. Then, the three-story gable wall for St. Michael's Reading Rooms crashed down, burying people in several feet of rubble. The Provisional IRA admitted responsibility the following day and expressed, "deep regret". The President of Sinn Féin, Gerry Adams, suggested another similar atrocity would undermine the validity of the armed struggle.

The Remembrance Day massacre was a publicity disaster for the Provisional IRA, substantially reducing their credibility worldwide. Amateur video footage of the immediate aftermath horrified people on either side of the nationalist/loyalist divide. All sides condemned the bombing. Loyalist paramilitaries were intent upon retaliation, but may have been swayed by the words of Gordon Wilson, who lost his daughter in the attack. "I have lost my daughter and we shall miss her, but I bear no ill will. I bear no grudge. Dirty sort of talk is not going to bring her back to life. She was a great wee lassie."

Wilson's words seem to ring true in terms of honoring the victims, but also in sparking renewed efforts at reconciliation. A fortnight after the bombing, the Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher and the Prince of Wales joined 7,000 others for a second Remembrance Day service at the war memorial in Enniskillen.

The excesses of Provisional IRA rhetoric lost favor with the worldwide audience after the Enniskillen bombing; with Sinn Féin attempting to distance its self with a more moderate policy. Locally, the Catholic community put pressure on the nationalist SDLP to stop the policy of supporting Sinn Féin for the posts of Chairman and Deputy Chairman on the Fermanagh District Council. They were forced by their actions to support unionist candidates, and this helped to improve community relations somewhat. A group called Enniskillen Together was founded to help the cause of reconciliation in the area.

HUME/ADAMS DIALOGUE

A series of discussions occurred between Sinn Féin President Gerry Adams and SDLP leader John Hume between 1988 and 1993; they have become known as the Hume/Adams talks. The dialogue began on 11 January 1988, just two months after the Enniskillen bombing; they broke down nine months later. These talks were resumed again sometime in 1993. It emerged on 13 April, that both leaders had begun a series of secret talks at the instigation of a group of Catholic clergy. Hume and Adams issued a joint statement on 24 April 1993, which rejected an internal Northern Ireland solution and asserted the right to 'national self-determination' of the Irish people.

Hume knew when the dialogue began that there would be two factors that would determine the success or failure of the talks: republican acceptance of the principle of unionist consent to any settlement and the British government's acceptance of the right to Irish self-determination. The meetings broaden to include other representatives from the respective parties. Several position papers were generated for discussion, but invariably the issue of self-determination dominated the discussions for months.



Hume argued that the Anglo-Irish Agreement, in particular Article 1, made it clear that a united Ireland was a matter for the Irish people to decide; albeit the republicans and nationalists would have to convince the unionists of the relative merits of union. Hume related to Adams that his interpretation of the AIA was that Britain had no real interest in Ireland and its main interest was in fostering the agreement, per say. Adams refuted the claims that Britain was indeed an uninterested party, arguing that its presence, "distorts the political landscape". The dialogue was terminated on 5 September 1988.

When the Hume/Adams joint statement appeared in April 1993, Gerry Adams made it clear that Sinn Féin could pursue a peace strategy, because the Secretary of State Peter Brook told his constituency party in November 1990, that the British Government had, “no selfish strategic or economic interest in Northern Ireland”. The major stumbling block, at least in Gerry Adams’s mind, seemed scalable.

The Hume/Adams statement stated that everyone had, “a solemn duty to change the political climate away from conflict”, and that a, “new agreement is only achievable and viable if it can earn and enjoy the allegiance of the different traditions on this island, by accommodating diversity and providing for national reconciliation.”

John Hume presented the Irish Government with a document outlining the joint Hume/Adams peace strategy. The Taoiseach, Albert Reynolds, didn’t forward it to the British government, because each side had decided to achieve their own peace initiatives. The discussions culminated in the Downing Street Declaration.

Although, there was relief at a political strategy engaging both sides of the divide, the political strategy angered some unionists who found it difficult to accept that two seemingly diametrically opposed positions could foster a lasting peace. There was also doubt about Sinn Féin’s leader, Gerry Adams, who refused to fully distance himself from the Provisional IRA and its violence. However, without such discussions, the eventual Good Friday Agreement would have been unachievable.

THE DOWNING STREET DECLARATION

The Joint Declaration for Peace, commonly known as the Downing Street Declaration, was proclaimed at Downing Street on 15 December 1993, jointly by the Prime Minister John Major and the Prime Minister of Ireland, Albert Reynolds. Both governments hoped the gesture would lead to political dialogue between all sides of the debate; including Sinn Féin and representatives of loyalist paramilitaries.

The initiative hoped to take advantage of the current thawing in relations between union and nationalist representatives in the wake of the Hume/Adams talks. The Taoiseach, Albert Reynolds, had already established his own lines of communications with the Sinn Féin representatives and hoped the backing of Britain would end the violence in Northern Ireland. The British had also opened up secret channels of communications with the Provisional IRA. In October 1993, the Ulster Unionist leader, James Molyneaux, had also indicated that UUPs willingness to sit down at the same table with Sinn Féin representatives, if political violence was ended.

The British declaration of no, “selfish strategic or economic interest in Northern Ireland”, was followed up assurances that the British government would, “encourage, facilitate and enable [an agreement]”. However, the British asserted such an agreement must be based upon the right of people from both parts of the island to, “exercise the right of self-determination on the basis of consent, freely and concurrently given, north and south, to bring about the united Ireland, if that is their wish”. The declaration was thought to be sympathetic to the unionist principle of consent and the nationalist principle of self-determination. However, republicans were not enamoured with this dual agenda.

The Joint Declaration for Peace was a simple brief document that the political parties managed to all interpret the 12 clauses, differently. Sinn Féin argued that it reinforced the unionist veto and locked nationalists into a British state. There was also disappointment that it lacked some of the perspectives of the Hume/Adams declaration, although political analysts detected many similar ideas and phrases in common between the two documents. The SDLP on the other hand, welcomed the declaration enthusiastically. Its leader John Hume declared, “[it is] one of the most comprehensive declarations” about British-Irish relations in 70 years. Ian Paisley’s DUP denounced the document as a betrayal of Ulster, while the UUP leader, James Molyneaux, was on the whole more cautious. Unlike the Anglo-Irish Agreement, unionists were part the consultation process; Molyneaux conjectured that he was satisfied that the Agreement bore no threat to the union with Britain because the principle of unionist consent had not been compromised.

THE CEASE-FIRES: REPUBLICAN AND LOYALIST

In the wake of the momentum surrounding the Hume/Adams talks and the Downing Street Declaration in 1993, by the beginning of 1994, it was clear the Provisional IRA was seriously looking at the possibility of a cease-fire. The US President took what was seen as a political risk, against the wishes of the British government, and granted Sinn Féin President Gerry Adams a limited duration visa to the United States. Adams arrived in New York on 1 February 1994, to address the National Committee on American Foreign Policy. Between Adams visit and the US government’s decision to allow Sinn Féin to fundraise in America provided a political fillip to pro-cease-fire republicans. Despite such endeavors, back at home the Provisional IRA hard-liners continued their campaign of violence.

Sinn Féin continued during the year to press the British government for clarification about a number of points contained within the Downing Street Declaration. The government at first, refused to be seen bargaining with terrorists; however, the Prime Minister, John Major, came under increasing pressure to respond to a series of 20 questions that Sinn Féin had submitted, via the Irish government. In a detailed response in May 1994, the Northern Ireland Office accepted Sinn Féin’s electoral mandate, stated that no party had the right of veto on progress and that the *Government of Ireland Act* that created the border between north and south could be on the negotiating table.

Despite a negative response at Sinn Féin meetings at Letterkenny and Donegal in July, Adams at the beginning of August said that he was, “guardedly optimistic”, about the possibility of a cease-fire.

An IRA cease-fire came into effect on 31 August. The Provisional IRA declared it to be a ‘complete cessation of military operations’. The British government and unionists decried the statement for the absence of ‘permanent’ in the cease-fire commitment.

On the day the Provisional IRA declared its cease-fire, the Ulster Volunteer Force (UVF) abducted a Catholic joiner and shot him dead. Another Catholic was gunned by the very next day by a UDA/UFF gunmen.

The Taoiseach, Albert Reynolds, sensing a serious impediment to the fragile cease-fire, sought to contact loyalist paramilitary group to persuade them that no secret deals had been undertaken with the Provisional IRA, and to convince the loyalists to end their campaign of violence. On 10 October, loyalist leaders went to the Maze prison to discuss the possibility of a cease-fire with loyalist prisoners. Three days later, the Combined Loyalist Military Command announced a cease-fire that was to be, “completely dependant upon the continued cessation of all nationalist/republican violence”. The statement even included an apology: “abject and true remorse”, to the, “loved ones of all innocent victims”.

BREAKDOWN OF PROVISIONAL IRA CEASE-FIRE

The next 17 months, of the unilateral cease-fire, saw republican supporters becoming increasing frustrated by the slow progress in political change. Shortly after releasing a statement accusing the British government of, “acting in bad faith”, a massive bomb exploded at London’s Canary Wharf. They claimed that, “time and again over the last 18 months, selfish party politics and sectional interests in the London parliament have been placed before the rights of the people of Ireland”. The Provisional IRA reaffirmed that resolution to the conflict demanded justice and an inclusive negotiated settlement.

On the whole, the Provisional IRA cease-fire in 1994 had failed to translate into political goodwill; neither, the British government or the unionist politicians believed it was meant to be a lasting and genuine commitment to change. Sinn Féin had hoped that the cease-fire would have led to inclusive talks, but the Major government had indicated that such talks would not take place for at least two years. The unionist leader, James Molyneaux, agreed. He suggested that the cease-fire, “was not an occasion for celebration, quite the opposite”, and talked about the need for Sinn Féin to go through a ‘decontamination’ process - Sinn Féin was seen to be too closely aligned with a terrorist group to fully commit to peaceful negotiation.

A botched robbery in November further confirmed unionist suspicions, when the Provisional IRA killed a postal worker. The words of Sinn Féin saying that the Provisional IRA had rejected violence; were in stark contrast to the reality projected on television screens, nightly.

In the next few months, the political debate had moved on to whether the cease-fire would be made permanent and demands for the decommissioning of weapons (and IRA personnel) prior to any political negotiations were made. In March 1995, Secretary of State Mayhew, on a visit to Washington, stipulated that the Provisional IRA would need to decommission some weapons before they would be allowed to rejoin all party talks. The republicans in response suggested that, that tantamount to surrender.

In an effort to break the deadlock, a retired US Senate leader named George Mitchell was asked in November 1995 to head up a three man international body to address the issue. Mitchell’s report suggested that decommissioning should occur in tandem with peace talks. John Major rejected this proposal and called elections instead. These elections were called in part to provide delegates for negotiations on the future of Northern Ireland. The unionist sensed the smell of a small victory in the air, whilst the republicans and nationalists were angered by the apparent lack of faith in their commitment to negotiation.

Two-weeks later, the IRA bombed London’s Canary Wharf region, killing two people and causing £85 million pounds worth of damage.

PEACE PROCESS

After the elections in May, Sinn Féin had won enough seats to warrant a place at the negotiating table, but were refused entry because of their association with the Provisional IRA, and especially, their recent actions at Canary Wharf. The political landscape radically changed after the elections, when the British Labor Party won the United Kingdom election by a landslide; elections in Ireland also brought about a change of government. With the Blair government’s massive mandate, it set about prioritizing the peace process. The new Irish Taoiseach, Bertie Ahern, was vigorous in his support for the British government’s commitment. The Provisional IRA renewed its cease-fire in July, and within weeks, Sinn Féin were invited back to the negotiations. Ian Paisley’s DUP and Bob McCartney’s UKUP boycotted the talks in protest.

After eight confrontational months of intensive negotiations, agreement was finally reached on Good Friday of 1998. The *Belfast Agreement*, commonly known as the Good Friday Agreement, was signed by the British and Irish governments and eight interested political parties, plus it included the support of US President Bill Clinton.

THE GOOD FRIDAY AGREEMENT

The Belfast Agreement was signed on 10 April 1998. Former US Senator George Mitchell, Canadian General John de Chastelain, and the Finnish ex-Prime Minister Harry Holkeri chaired the multi-party talks. The participants included the governments of both the Republic of Ireland and the United Kingdom and eight political parties drawn from unionist, loyalist, nationalist, republican and the cross-community constituencies in Northern Ireland. The US President Bill Clinton also provided political support and encouragement for the process.

There were two parties: Rev Dr Ian Paisley's Democratic Unionist Party and Bob McCartney's United Kingdom Unionist Party who boycotted the process mid-way through them, in response to the inclusion of Sinn Féin in talks at the beginning of June 1996. The talks had started in June 1996. The voluntary exclusion of the two loyalist parties represented 43 percent of the unionist electorate that were not represented in the multi-party discussions. Senator George Mitchell has described this tactic as a 'fateful error' on their behalf. The senator speculated that if the DUP and UKUP had stayed the course in the talks, "there would have been no agreement. Their absence freed the UUP from daily attacks at the negotiating table and gave the party room to negotiate."

The actual 65-page document is divided up into three separate strands:

Strand One: Outlines the institutional arrangements in Northern Ireland

Strand Two: Seeks to clarify the relationship between the Republic of Ireland and Northern Ireland

Strand Three: Establishes the relationships between both parts of Ireland and the rest of the United Kingdom (including the Isle of Man and the Channel Islands)

The Agreement sets out the establishment of a Human Rights Commission and an Equality Commission. The document also has sections devoted to Economic, Social and Cultural Issues including; the advancement of women in public life, the promotion of the Irish language, promoting social inclusion and targeting areas of social need, community development, reconciliation and victims of violence, and new economic and regional development strategies. The Agreement also deals with opposing claims to sovereignty, and provides unionists and nationalists with the equivalent rights of self-determination. The people in Northern Ireland are allowed to choose to be British or Irish (or both).

The Belfast Agreement represents a comprehensive step forward in Northern Ireland relations; it has sought to address major conflicts over opposing national identities by providing a flexible framework that maintains the principle of consent that will enable and ensure fairness of any future constitutional change.

A copy of the Agreement was ratified in joint referenda on 22 May 1998, in the United Kingdom and the Republic of Ireland; with a 71.12% majority in Northern Ireland and a 94.4% majority in the Republic that creates a 85.4% all-Ireland majority.

OMAGH BOMB

On the 15th of August 1998, twenty-eight people were killed when a 500lb bomb was detonated in a busy shopping street in Omagh. It was planted by a dissident republican group, the Real IRA, who had telephoned a warning to the Ulster Television newsroom in Belfast and the Samaritans in Coleraine. The caller related that a bomb had been placed in the courthouse in the main street. The police evacuated the area and ushered people towards the Dublin Road junction of the town. However, a Vauxhall Cavalier had been packed with explosives and parked outside RD Kells' drapery shop near the junction.

The bomb exploded at 3.10pm and caused horrific destruction. A local shop owner said: "It was horrible; so much blood and flesh and glass sticking out of people". A police constable relates: "I was numbed by the whole thing. I saw a young boy covered in blood and I knelt beside him. I hadn't a clue what to do."

The bomb had exploded four months after the signing of the Belfast Agreement and shocked the world. Prime Minister Tony Blair interrupted his family holiday in France to fly to Northern Ireland and President Clinton, on behalf of the American people, condemned it as 'butchery'.

In the aftermath, it was thought the bomb would spell doom for the fragile peace agreement, but within days, it was clear that public sentiment and political determination sought to bring an end to such carnage. The Northern Irish people, despite years of senseless violence occurring within its borders, sought to regard such actions as senseless and barbaric. The Sinn Féin leader Gerry Adams broke with republican protocol and condemned the bombings – causing ructions within the Provisional IRA/ Sinn Féin alignment, but established Sinn Féin as a credible political force committed to a peaceful resolution.

The region of Omagh is about 60 percent Catholic and 40 percent Protestant, and the dead consisted of Protestants, Catholics, a Mormon and two Spanish visitors. A region of relative tolerance became symbolic of the new Northern Ireland, and the violence of paramilitaries as being a threat to the new order of things. One newspaper reported: "They killed young, old and middle-aged, fathers, mothers, sons, daughters, and grannies. They killed republicans and unionists, including a prominent local member of the Ulster Unionist Party. They killed people from the backbone of the Gaelic Athletic Association.

"They killed unborn twins, bright students, cheery shop assistants and many young people. They killed three children from the Irish Republic who were up north on a day trip. The toll of death was, thus extraordinarily high and extraordinarily comprehensive."

The Real IRA claimed responsibility and claimed in their statement that they apologized for the casualties, but claimed it had been aimed at a commercial target. In the wake of public outcry, on the 18 August the Real IRA declared that all military operations had been suspended. To date, no one has been convicted of these killings.

THE ASSEMBLY

The first 108 member Assembly was elected on 25 June 1998, using a proportional representation system, utilizing the single transferable vote (STV). Six members of the legislative assembly were elected from each of the existing 19 Westminster constituencies. The results were announced on 26 June. The UUP had won 28 seats, the SDLP 24, the DUP 20, SF 19, Alliance 6, UKUP 5, PUP 2, NIWC 2 and independent anti-agreement unionists 3. The elections were to take place at least every 4 years, with the next scheduled for May 2003.

In July, the 1st the Assembly met in shadow form (i.e. without legislative power) at Castle Buildings on the Stormont Estate to elect the First and Deputy First Ministers designate. Under the terms of the Belfast Agreement, an Executive and North-South Council had to be established before 31 October 1998. However, political wrangling over decommissioning ensured it wasn't appointed until 29 November 1999. The formal powers were devolved from Westminster to the Assembly on 2 December 1999.

Problems associated with decommissioning lead to continued problems for the Assembly; eventually, the British Government on 12 February suspended the Assembly's operations in a return to direct rule. After intensive negotiations, the Provisional IRA indicated it would put its arms beyond use and the Assembly was reconvened on 30 May 2000.

The mood of hostility remained, and on 1st of July 2001, First Minister David Trimble resigned after the failure of the IRA to decommission; this in turn forced the Deputy First Minister to step down. The Deputy First Minister Mallon, eventually, also resigned as deputy leader of the SDLP, indicating he would not stand again as Deputy First Minister.

After the events of September 11 2001, when Islamic Terrorists attacked the World Trade Centre in New York, enormous pressure was put upon the Provisional IRA to decommission. On 23rd October they announced that they had begun the process of disposal of arms. Although, Ulster Unionist leader David Trimble was satisfied of the validity of the statement, many others in his party and anti-Agreement Democratic Unionist Party were not.

This had implications for Trimble's chances of being re-elected as the First Minister. Under the Assembly's parameters, he needed the majority of the unionists to support him for the top post. On 3rd November, Trimble had failed in his attempt to get re-elected, despite the Women's Coalition re-designating its two MLAs as unionists to give him at least one additional vote.

The Alliance Party stepped in and later re-designated their votes as unionist; eventually of the 6th of November Trimble (and Durkan) were elected First and Deputy First Minister at a special meeting.

DECOMMISSIONING

The issue of decommissioning has dominated peace talks since the Provisional IRA declared its cease-fire on 31 August 1994. The Downing Street Declaration demanded that Sinn Féin would be allowed to participate in all-party talks only after the Provisional IRA declared a cease-fire. But unionists and conservative MPs insisted that Sinn Féin be excluded from the process until the Provisional IRA had entirely decommissioned its arsenal and operations.

Between August 1994 and March 1995, political debate focussed upon whether decommissioning should follow or precede political agreement. The Secretary of State, Sir Patrick Mayhew, clarified the British position in March 1995, saying Sinn Féin's participation was conditional on IRA decommissioning. The republicans considered that these conditions tantamount to surrender.

The 1998 Belfast Agreement (the Good Friday Agreement) contains a loosely worded section on decommissioning. This section commits the signatories, "to use any influence they may have to achieve the decommissioning of all paramilitary arms". The timetable agreed set a target date of 22 May 2000, but the date was contingent upon the, "implementation of the overall settlement."

The deadline, although not observed by the Provisional IRA, was overtaken by political upheaval when David Trimble refused to form an Executive shortly after he was elected First Minister of 1 July 1998. His position was made clear when he stated, "no guns, no government": referring to the Provisional IRA's lack of observance of the decommissioning targets. Sinn Féin, on the other hand, saw this an act of bad faith. They argued that decommissioning was linked to the implementation of the overall settlement, and therefore, the Provisional IRA was under no legal obligation to disarm until the remit had been fulfilled.

This particular issue hindered the devolution progress. In September, a political compromise was brokered by US Senator Mitchell. In November, devolution finally took place. It collapsed in February when the UUP pulled out of government because the Provisional IRA still had not decommissioned. In May 2000, the Provisional IRA declared it was putting its arms beyond use and even to allow two international observers to inspect their sealed arm dumps.

In July 2001, David Trimble yet again resigned in protest at the Provisional IRA's failure to fully decommission its weapons cache. After the cataclysmic events of September 11, the Provisional IRA on 23rd October announced that the process of putting arms beyond use had begun. The Independent International Commission on Decommissioning verified this. Despite this, many unionists aren't satisfied and regard this process as little more than farce (suggesting old weapons are being effectively decommissioned, whilst others are elsewhere).

PARAMILITARIES

OFFICIAL IRA

The Official IRA came into being effectively in January 1970, when a split occurred in the IRA over political strategy: the Provisional IRA going one way and the newly dubbed Official IRA the other. The Official IRA under the leadership of Cathal Goulding sought to end its avoidance of political engagement and allowed successful candidates to take their seats, if elected, in the parliaments in Dublin, Belfast and London. In December 1969, the majority of republicans backed this policy. But a large contingent of Northern members, angered that the IRA weren't defending Catholic areas from increasing loyalist attacks in August 1969, withdrew and set up their own Provisional Army Council. At the January 1970 Ard-Fheis in Dublin, those who sought to adopt the new approach failed in securing the two-thirds majority to change policy; ending with the Provisionals walking out and setting up their new HQ in Kevin Street.

After the acrimonious split the Official IRA had to deal with taunts from disaffected republicans in Belfast for not defending them. The Officials soon earned the nickname the *Stickies*, referring to their propensity to stick adhesive Easter lilies on their coat lapels to mark the annual commemoration of the 1916 Easter Rising in Dublin. The Provisionals alternately became known as the *Provos*.

The Official IRA had steadily headed towards a policy of political engagement over violence; however, with the introduction of internment policy in August 1971, the faithful demanded action. The Officials continued their use of violence for political ends and in February 1972, just three weeks after Bloody Sunday, they planted a revenge bomb at the Aldershot HQ of the Parachute Regiment, killing seven including five women canteen workers.

The Official IRA called a unilateral cease-fire in May 1972 after admitting to the shooting of Ranger William Best, who was home for leave in Derry. The killing had stirred up such emotion locally that there were calls for the Official IRA to leave Bogside and the Creggan areas of Derry. The Official IRA soon took up arms when the Irish National Liberation Army split from the Officials.

Cathal Goulding sought to channel the Official IRA energies into class based politics and to secure the support of Protestants on social and economic issues like housing and unemployment. As part of this process of legitimization, the Official IRA adopted the name of the Workers' Party – being now partly inspired by communist ideals. According to the book *Lost Lives*, the Official IRA was responsible for the deaths of 54 people during the Troubles. It cannot be ruled out that rogue elements might still be perpetrating violence under the behest of the Official IRA. However, most hard-liners have generally been attracted away to the more confrontational splinter groups.

THE REAL IRA/ 32-COUNTY SOVEREIGNTY COMMITTEE



The Real IRA is a dissident republican splinter group that was responsible for the Omagh bomb on August 1998. It opposed the 1994 and 1997 Provisional IRA cease-fires, and Sinn Féin's support for the Belfast Agreement. Several of the mainstream IRA's 12-member executive left the organization in late 1997, in direct opposition to Sinn Féin signing up to the Mitchell Principles on democracy and non-violence.

In the run up to a special Provisional IRA convention, when it was expected to ratify Sinn Féin entry in the new Assembly at Stormont, the dissident group released a statement saying that the cease-fire was over and there would be a return to military attacks. This group styling themselves as the Real IRA denounced the 'old leadership', namely the Provisional IRA, and accused them of betraying republicanism in their support for Sinn Féin's entry to Stormont, "in defiance of the constitutional position of Óglaigh na hÉireann to uphold the Republic". The Real IRA claim that the Republic was proclaimed in 1916, and ratified by the first Dáil in 1919. They accuse the Provisional IRA of playing, "the game of Collins and de Valera" who, it believes, betrayed republicanism.

The movement has attracted skilled bomb makers from the ranks of the Provisional IRA, and includes the quartermaster general who resigned from the Provisional IRA in October 1997 in protest against the peace process. The group is said to have attracted a number of Provisional IRA's South Armagh brigade, formally their most important stronghold. The 32-County Sovereignty Committee is the closest political organization in thinking to the group, though the Real IRA strongly deny this. The Real IRA most high profile member is Bernadette Sands-McKevitt, the sister of the famed, dead hunger striker Bobby Sands.

The Real IRA lay claim to the single worst atrocity caused during the Troubles; the Omagh bomb that killed 29 people in August 1998. The organization was also responsible for many similar operations, including another 500lb bomb planted in Banbridge shopping precinct, two weeks earlier than Omagh. The warning on this occasion proved inadequate and 33 people and two RUC officers were injured. Earlier that same year, they had bombed Moira and Portadown.

With the worldwide condemnation of Omagh, the Real IRA was forced to issue a statement within days proclaiming that it had suspended all 'military operations'. However, the suspension proved short-lived when in February 2000, they re-emerged. Since this time, they have carried out a number of attacks in Northern Ireland and Britain. The most high-profile of these incidents was in September of 2000, when they fired an RPG rocket at the British foreign intelligence HQ, MI6, in London. Another mainland attack was in March 2001, when they planted a bomb outside BBC Television Centre in London. The organization has not made a formal declaration that its cease-fire is over.

In May 2001, the US State Department designated the Real IRA as a foreign terrorist group and froze its financial assets. This incident is a double-fold blow to the organization in making it an offence in the United States to supply a known terrorist group with funds, and in cutting off financial support from historically, one of the major supporters of IRA operations (the United States ex-patriot Irish Community).

In August of 2001, a bomb exploded in Ealing Broadway in West London, and on 3rd of November a car bomb containing around 30kg of home-made explosives was left in Birmingham city center. Luckily, the bomb failed to detonate and no one was injured. British and Irish sources have suggested that the Real IRA were in disarray by early 2001, the above incidents suggest otherwise.

CONTINUITY IRA

The Continuity IRA was created in the mid-1980s, coinciding with a split within the mainstream republican movement. It came to international prominence in 1996, when it opposed the Provisional IRA's cease-fire. In a statement at the time it pledged, "unremitting hostility to the British forces of occupation in Ireland".

The political roots of the organization can be traced back to Republican Sinn Féin (RSF), a breakaway group that emerged after the General Army Convention of October 1996, that voted to end abstention from the Irish parliament. The following month, Sinn Féin, at their Árd-Fheis in Dublin's Mansion House, also voted to end their policy of abstentionism and allowed elected Sinn Féin candidates to take their place in the Dáil.

Two senior Sinn Féin figures; namely Ruairí Ó Bradaigh, a former President, and Daithí Ó Conaill, a former Chief of Staff on the Provisional IRA, led Republican Sinn Féin. The political goal of the RSF is a democratic socialist republic. It wants 32-county elections and a federal government based on Ireland's four provinces. At its Árd-Fheis, it sought to reaffirm its commitment for an armed struggle to achieve its aims.

The Republican Sinn Féin didn't recognize the 1994 Provisional IRA cease-fire and said that decommissioning weapons would be a, "national treachery". After the cease-fire, the Gardaí (Irish Police) systematically raided the homes of prominent RSF members. The following year, Gardaí detained a senior RSF member in connection to two bombs discovered in County Monaghan.

The RSF has strenuously denied that it has a military wing over the years, despite suggestions by security commentators that it has links with the Continuity Army Council, which opposed the Provisional IRA cease-fires and Sinn Féin's role in the peace process. The Continuity IRA planted the 1,200lb bomb at the Killyhevlin Hotel in Enniskillen; the building was destroyed only minutes after it had been evacuated. It has been at the center of a continuous campaign of bombings in towns and cities since the IRA's first cease-fire in 1994.

In July 1998, the Secretary of State, Mo Mowlam, announced that Continuity IRA prisoners would not be eligible for early release under the terms of the Good Friday Agreement.

At their annual conference in October 2001, Republican Sinn Féin, the political wing of the Continuity IRA, defiantly stated to continue their campaign of armed violence, "to achieve Irish Freedom". When the Provisional IRA declared that it would be putting its arms beyond use on 23rd October, the CIRA in reply vowed to continue their fight against, "British Colonial rule in Ireland". Six days later, the group was suspected of killing a former loyalist prisoner in Strabane, and placing a bomb on a hijacked bus outside of a Belfast police station.

IRISH NATIONAL LIBERATION ARMY

The INLA was established in 1975 as a military wing of the Irish Republican Socialist Party. Their aim was to reunify Ireland and create a revolutionary socialist republic. The initial core members were drawn from the disaffected Official IRA ranks who disagreed with its 1972 unilateral cease-fire, and ex-members of the Provisional IRA who also defected during its own cease-fire in 1975. Members of these groups came from the Markets and Lower Falls districts of Belfast, and parts of County Derry.

Early in 1975, there was a bitter feud between the Irish Republican Socialist Party and the Official IRA. One of the first sanctioned military operations was the killing of Billy McMillan, a leading Official republican in Belfast. The group gained international notoriety after killing the Conservative Northern Ireland spokesman, Airey Neave, at Westminster in 1979. In justification of the assassination, the INLA said he had been engaged in, "rabid militarist calls for more repression against the Irish people".



The INLA was justifiably considered the most ruthless of the republican military organizations, and it is said that the Provisional IRA members used to talk of the INLA as wild men. In December 1982, the INLA bombed the Droppin'Well public house at Ballykelly, killing seventeen people including 11 soldiers. It later emerged that an INLA member had frequented the area on several reconnaissance missions, "to see if there were enough soldiers to justify the possibility of civilian killings". This kind of rhetoric did little to endear the movement to the mainstream Catholic community.

Three INLA prisoners died during the 1981 H-Block hunger strike. Their willingness to put forward men to die for the cause brought closer co-operation with Sinn Féin. However, various murderous feuds between 1983 and 1987 alienated them, again, from future cooperation with the mainstream republican movement. The feud been the senior figures of the IRSP and INLA led to an INLA informer Harry Kirkpatrick giving evidence that put many of their senior figures behind bars. The evidence was later deemed inadmissible and in 1986, 25 INLA members convicted on such evidence were released. After the release of the prisoners, a feud developed between a breakaway INLA faction calling itself the Irish People's Liberation Organization, which tried to force IRSP/INLA to disband. The feud led to the deaths of 12 men during the first three months of 1987. After the feud, the INLA continued with low-level terrorist activities until in April 1995, it announced in a press statement that the INLA had been operating a cease-fire since July 1994.

Yet another feud enveloped the INLA structure in January 1996, and ended nine months later after six people, including a 9-year-old girl, were killed. In December of 1997, an INLA prisoner shot dead LVF leader Billy Wright at the Maze prison. The INLA recognized the result of the May 1998 referendum and announced a complete cease-fire in August. It has been estimated that the INLA killed 150 people during the height of the Troubles.

ULSTER VOLUNTEER FORCE



The Ulster Volunteer Force was formed in 1966, in a direct response to what it saw as the rise in Irish nationalism centered around the commemoration of the 50th anniversary of the 1916 Easter Rising. The militia force adopted the name and symbols of the original UVF; that movement was founded by Sir Edward Carson in 1912, to fight against moves towards home rule. Many UVF men joined up to the 36th Ulster Division of the British Army, and died in large numbers in the Battle of the Somme in July 1916. Curiously, fifty years later, the Prime Minister of Northern Ireland, Captain O'Neill, had to rush back from a commemorative service at the Somme to ban the new UVF. It had been formed a few months earlier, with the expressed intention of executing, "mercilessly and without hesitation", known IRA men. However, the first three victims of the UVF (Protestant women and two Catholic men) had no connections with the IRA. It was the murder of the third victim, Peter Ward, which brought the UVF and its leader Gusty Spence to public attention. Spence was convicted of Ward's murder and sentenced to 20 years in prison.

The new UVF opposed the liberal reforms that were being introduced by the Prime Minister O'Neill. In March and April 1969, the UVF bombed water and electricity installations as part of a broader political campaign to oust O'Neill from office. The bombings were blamed on the IRA; O'Neill resigned at the end of April.

It is reported that between 1966 and 1999, the UVF and its affiliate group, the Red Hand Commando, killed 547 people. In December 1971, a UVF bomb was planted at McGurk's bar in Belfast, killing 15. In the mid-70s the infamous unit known as the Shankill Butchers were waging war on the local Catholic populace. In May 1974, they planted bombs in Dublin and Monaghan killing 33 people, and in 1975, they shot dead three members of the Miami Show Band.

UVF operations were seriously undermined when in October 1975 soldiers and police swooped on houses in Belfast and East Antrim and arrested 26 men. In March of 1976, they were sentenced to a total of 700 years in prison for their crimes. The police eventually got more evidence in 1983 when a UVF commander turned informant.

The Combined Loyalist Military Command, which includes the UVF, called a cease-fire. At this time, Gusty Spence, made an announcement expressing, "abject and true remorse" to all the innocent victims of loyalist violence. The political wing of the UVF, the Progressive Unionist Party, played a prominent role in brokering the peace agreement and it supported the 1998 Belfast Agreement. The UVF since 1996 has become embroiled in a feud against the Loyalist Volunteer Force. In August 2000, a similar state of affairs has developed against the UDA's C Company, on the Lower Shankill.

By the time a truce could be negotiated in December of 2000, seven men had been killed as a result of the feuding; additionally, it had led to hundreds of families being displaced. There are still simmering tensions between the UVF and the UDA.

ULSTER DEFENCE ASSOCIATION/ULSTER FREEDOM FIGHTERS



The UDA is an amalgamation of various loyalist vigilante groups occurring in 1971. It is the largest paramilitary organization in Northern Ireland. It is modeled on military lines and at its peak in 1972, could claim to have some 40,000 members ready for action. The group laid claim to the motto 'Law before Violence' and it remained legal until it was banned in August 1991. It is claimed that since 1973, it has used the cover name of the Ulster Freedom Fighters to kill Catholics. It is estimated that between 1971 and 1999 the UDA/UFF killed over 408 people.

The UDA was a prominent opponent of street protests against direct rule in March 1972. The UDA also created its own no-go areas in protest of the Provisional IRA no-go areas in the Bogside and Creggan areas of Derry. On 3 July 1972 there were council plans to erect barriers between the Catholic Springfield area and the Protestant Shankill; this led to 8,000 masked men, many armed with cudgels, confronting the 250 British troops sent to maintain order.

The biggest and most successful operation undertaken by the UDA was at the 1974 Ulster Workers' Council strike that eventually forced the power-sharing Executive to resign. The UDA also played a support role in the 1977 United Unionist Action Council strike, but it declined to support or take part in Ian Paisley's Day of Action and his Third Force in 1981.

The UDA in 1978 set up the New Ulster Political Research Group. This was replaced in 1981, by the Ulster Loyalist Democratic Party (ULDP). This new group advocated independence for Northern Ireland. But the party failed to gather support in the by-election in East Belfast in 1981, and in the 1982 Assembly elections. Its two candidates only polled 0.2% of the vote. In 1989 the party renamed itself the Ulster Democratic Party.

In 1987, the UDA published *Common Sense*, a policy document that outlined their support for an Assembly and Executive elected by proportional representation, an all-party coalition government and a Bill of Rights. The document was favorably received by mainstream political interests. However, also during the late 1980s, the UDA was assassinating Catholics listed on leaked intelligence files. This led to the Stevens Inquiry and the conviction of Brian Nelson, an army spy of the UDA, and exposed the uncomfortable reality of sympathetic British security forces to the loyalist cause. There were even some who speculated about actual collusion between the two groups.

In 1994, the UDA called a cease-fire under the aegis of the Combined Loyalist Military Command. On 4 January, UDA/UFF prisoners voted 80 to 40 to withdraw their support for the peace process. Four days later, Secretary of State Mo Mowlam met them at Maze prison and she managed to persuade them to change their minds. The political success did not stop a spate of loyalist killings in revenge for the death of Billy Wright. In February, the Provisional IRA killed a member of the UDA and subsequently two Catholics were shot dead in retaliation. After the Chief Constable blamed the UDA for these killings and another one on New Year's Eve, the UDA admitted to breaking the cease-fire. The Ulster Democratic Party, the UDA's political allies, were subsequently suspended from the Lancaster House talks for several weeks. The UDA supported the 1998 Belfast Agreement. However, by the year 2000, some elements of the UDA were involved in a bloody feud with the UVF.

A tenuous truce was negotiated between the UDA/UFF and the UVF in December 2001, but only after seven men had been killed and hundreds of families forcibly expelled from their homes. There was subsequently a notable increase in sectarian attacks against Catholics, with more than 200 blast bomb attacks reported.

In September 2001, the Secretary of State, Dr John Reid, gave the UDA one last chance to cease its violent campaign. Earlier that year the UDA/UFF had withdrawn its support for the Belfast Agreement. The violence continued, and on the 12 October, Dr John Reid declared their cease-fire over.

LOYALIST VOLUNTEER FORCE



The Loyalist Volunteer Force formed in 1996 when the UVF expelled Billy Wright, its renegade mid-Ulster brigade commander. Wright, nicknamed King Rat, had terrorized Catholics in the Portadown district for many years. The UVF had expelled him on the grounds that he authorized the killing of a Catholic taxi driver named Michael McGoldrick at the height of the 1996 Orange Order stand-off at Drumcree, in Portadown. The Unit declined to disband and the UVF issued a death threat, which Wright ignored. A short while after, he formed the LVF, which was proscribed by Secretary of State Mo Mowlam in June 1997.

The LVF in July 1997 was linked to the murder of an 18-year-old Catholic woman as she lay sleeping with her Protestant boyfriend at his home in Aghalee, near Portadown. It also admitted to planting bombs in Dundalk and firebombs in two Northern Ireland Tourist Board offices in Banbridge and Newcastle. At Christmas 1997, an INLA prisoner shot dead Billy Wright at the Maze Prison, where he was serving an eight-year sentence for threatening to kill a woman. After the death of Wright, the LVF established close ties with the UFF, even to the point of the UFF using LVF title and code words, to try to hide its involvement in the sectarian murder of Eddie Treanor in December 1997. Despite this, the Chief Constable publicly linked the UDA/UFF to that and other killings, and the Ulster Democratic Party was suspended from continued peace talks.

In March 1998, LVF gunmen shot dead Protestant Philip Allen and his Catholic friend Damien Trainor at a bar in Poyntzpass. Shortly afterwards, the LVF issued a ten-page document brazenly threatening politicians, church and industry leaders, and paramilitaries who it claimed colluded in the, "peace surrender process designed to break the Union and establish the dynamic for Irish unity, within the all-Ireland Roman Catholic, Gaelic Celtic state." In a Sunday Times interview, an LVF representative stated the organization supported the political analysis of Rev. Ian Paisley, leader of the Democratic Unionist Party.

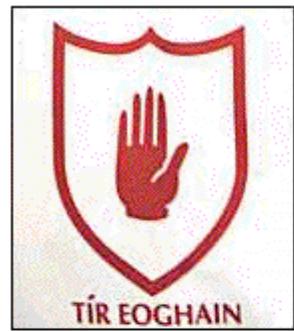
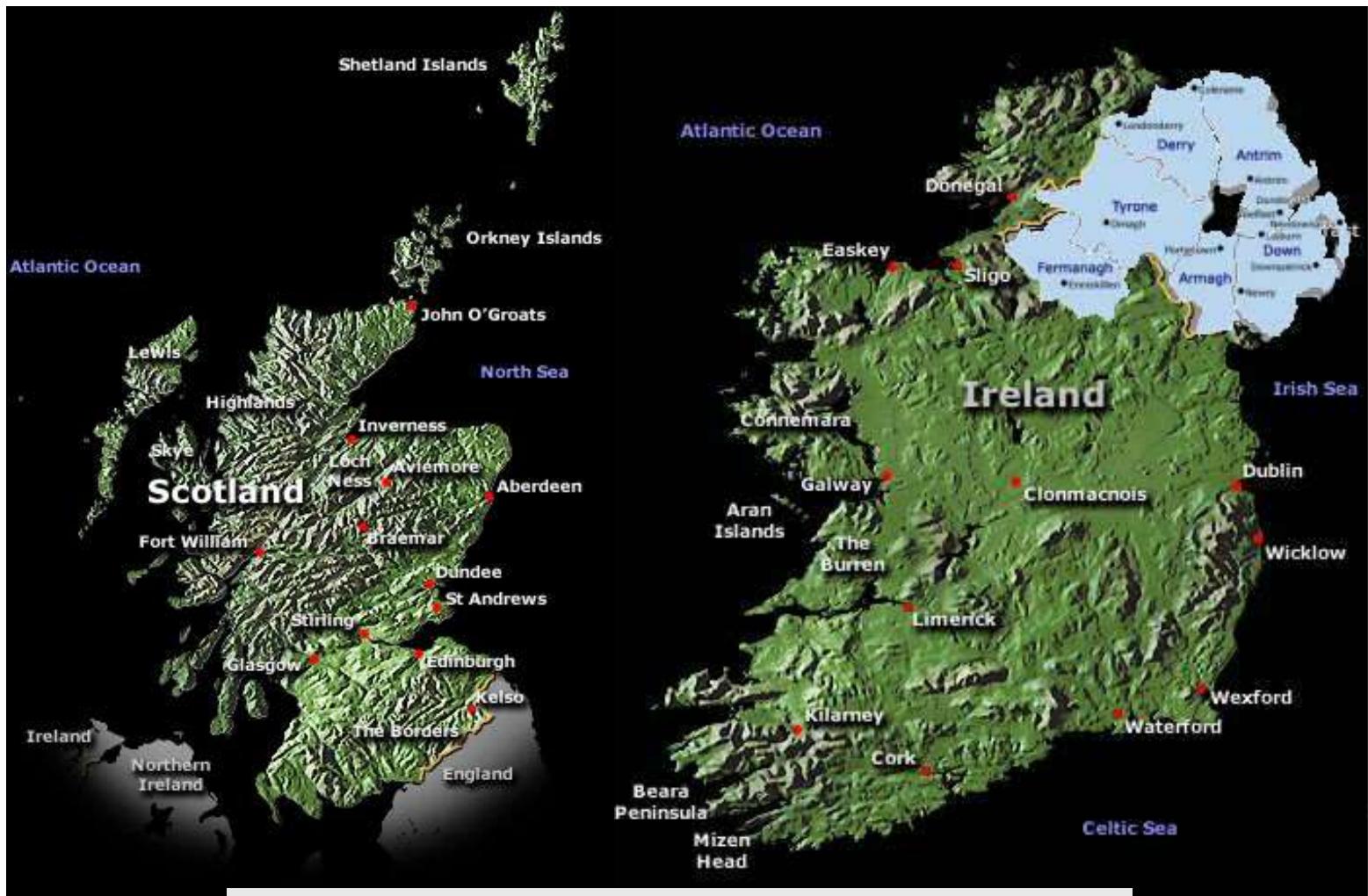
In response to the Provisional IRA second-cease fire in July 1997, the LVF stated its would not reciprocate because it would not be in the interests of the Protestant people of Northern Ireland. Yet, later in May 1998, it called a cease-fire and urged people to vote 'No' in the referendum. The NIO accepted its cease-fire in November, making it eligible for the early release of its prisoners under the Belfast Agreement. Later it handed over a small cache of weapons to the Independent International Commission on Decommissioning.

In January 2000, tensions between the LVF and the UVF led to a bloody feud that claimed the UVF leader Richard Jameson, who was shot dead in Portadown. The UVF blamed the LVF for his death. The next month, the LVF blamed the UVF for the brutal stabbing of two teenagers in Tandragee, County Armagh. The LVF was, also said to have been, involved in ongoing conflict between the UVF and the UDA in Shankill, later that year. The conflict between the UVF and LVF in the Portadown area is still unresolved.

Despite its official 'cease-fire', the LVF has continued its sectarian campaign under the guise of the Red Hand Defenders, basically, a badge of convenience used also by the UDA. The LVF was linked to the murder of journalist Martin O'Hagan at the end of September 2001; the Secretary of State declared on 12th October 2001, that the government no longer recognized their cease-fire.

APPENDIX C: MAPS & LOGOS





RED HAND COMMANDOS



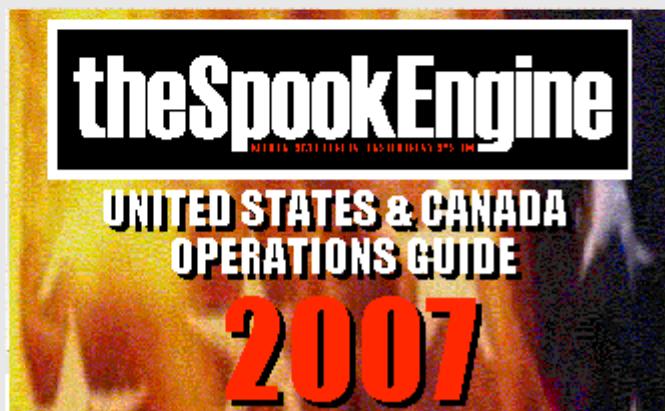
ULSTER DEFENCE ASSOCIATION



ULSTER YOUNG MILITANTS



MI6 INTERNAL LOGO





SPECIAL RECONNAISSANCE REGIMENT



DEFENCE INTELLIGENCE STAFF



JOINT NBC REGIMENT



UK 16TH AIR ASSAULT BRIGADE



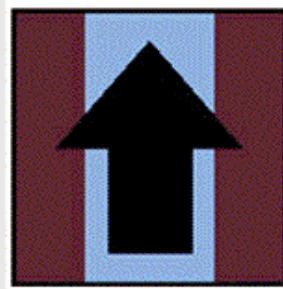
SPECIAL BOAT SERVICE



15 (UK) PSYOPS GROUP



PARACHUTE REGIMENT



PATHFINDER PLATOON



RAF REGIMENT



IRISH ARMY RANGERS



MINISTRY OF DEFENCE



ROYAL MARINES



BRITISH ARMY



ROYAL NAVY UK



ROYAL AIR FORCE UK



SPECIAL AIR SERVICE



SECRET INTELLIGENCE SERVICE



GCHQ



COMMUNICATIONS ELECTRONICS
SECURITY GROUP



MI5 SECURITY SERVICE



BRITISH TRANSPORT POLICE



CITY OF LONDON
POLICE



CITY OF LONDON POLICE

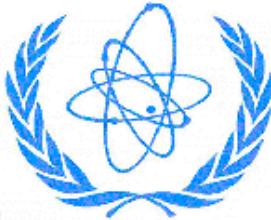
SCOTTISH DEA



HM REVENUE & CUSTOMS



CIVIL NUCLEAR CONSTABULARY



IAEA



METROPOLITAN POLICE



MOD POLICE



NCIS



NATIONAL CRIME SQUAD



NORTHERN IRELAND
POLICE SERVICE



S019 FORCE FIREARMS UNIT



GARDA SÍOCHÁNA HA ÉIREANN



ULSTER VOLUNTEER FORCE



I.R.A LOGO



LOYALIST VOLUNTEER FORCE