

COMMUNICATING

WITH

INTELLIGENCE

WRITING AND

BRIEFING

FOR NATIONAL

SECURITY

M. PATRICK HENDRIX JAMES S. MAJOR

Communicating with Intelligence

SECURITY AND PROFESSIONAL INTELLIGENCE EDUCATION SERIES (SPIES)

SERIES EDITOR: JAN GOLDMAN

In this post–September 11, 2001, era there has been rapid growth in the number of professional intelligence training and educational programs across the United States and abroad. Colleges and universities, as well as high schools, are developing programs and courses in homeland security, intelligence analysis, and law enforcement, in support of national security.

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Communicating with Intelligence

Writing and Briefing for National Security

Third Edition

M. Patrick Hendrix and James S. Major

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Preface

In February 2018, I was sitting at my desk at the writing center at the Citadel, South Carolina Military College's Student Success Center. I was minding my own business when the head of the Intelligence and Security Studies Department, Carl Jensen, walked in with Jan Goldman. Dr. Goldman was on a job interview and getting a school tour. But before we could even get through the introductions, Dr. Goldman pointed at a copy of Jim Major's *Communicating with Intelligence* on my desk. He was the editor for Rowan and Littlefield's Security and Professional Intelligence Education Series. Coincidentally, he was looking for someone to write the third edition. He glared at me intently.

Three years later, this is that third edition. For a good reason, most of the original writing and insights remain from Jim Major. The second edition of *Communicating with Intelligence* is a seminal work in the field. Based on the decades of practical experience of the author, Jim Major, the second edition directly responded to the growth of the intelligence community by providing a detailed and comprehensive handbook of functional instruction on the best practices for writing and briefing intelligence.

The field has continued to grow and change rapidly in the few years since it was published in 2014. The result is increased public attention on the methods and means of the intelligence community and a rise in the number of students aiming for intelligence careers. This revision of *Communicating with Intelligence* is intended to meet the growing needs of academics without losing the second edition's practicality. Expediency, efficiency, and effectiveness are the qualities such instructors and members of the intelligence community need in a communication handbook, and that's what we intend to offer with this edition.

For that purpose, I reduced the book's length by consolidating and streamlining the content. Second, I added declassified documents to serve as examples and to give added context for students unfamiliar with intelligence writing. Finally, I added a bit more to the research and analysis piece. It is not a comprehensive look at research and analysis—after all there are already books for that—but I felt it was essential to include open-source intelligence and structured analytic techniques in this edition.

The book is divided into four parts. Part I, “The Foundations of Good Intelligence Communication,” is a brief explanation of the intelligence field and the consumer's needs. Part II, “Writing with Intelligence,” contains material on how to write concisely and coherently. Part III, “Briefing with Intelligence,” breaks down best practices for presenting your intelligence to the consumer. Finally, part IV, “Citations and Classified Material,” is an abridged guide to citing your sources and handling classified material.

Still, the basic outline and intent of the first two volumes remain the same. There seemed no reason to overhaul a book that had done so well over the years: a detailed book about communicating intelligence. Indeed, Jim Major's writing is as fresh and pertinent as in 2008.

Series Editor's Introduction

Jim's Major's *Communicating with Intelligence* first appeared in the Security Professional Intelligence Education Series (SPIES) in 2008. It was extremely popular and is based on his years working in the federal government, specifically the US intelligence community. I encouraged Jim to write this book, and I am proud to say this was one of the first books to appear in our series.

Jim and I have been friends since the early 1990s, when we were colleagues at what is now known as the National Intelligence University. Students working on their theses, threat assessment, or any paper that required clear writing would stop by his crowded office for assistance. He would explain to the students what makes a good introduction or conclusion or how to draft an outline. It is important to remember that this school's main focus was only one subject: intelligence. Intelligence is a process that requires the planning, collection, and exploitation of information to be analyzed and disseminated as products within the intelligence community.

Consequently, your professional career in the US intelligence community will not likely be very long if you cannot communicate. While almost anyone can share information, an analyst's writing and speaking ability (i.e., ability to communicate) will determine their effectiveness in the intelligence community. Writing and briefing are fundamental to working in the intelligence community, especially as an analyst. Communicating concisely and coherently is essential to all intelligence disciplines. In 2014, the second edition of this book was published. With lots of exercises, examples, and graphics, this book was well-received in introductory intelligence courses and government training facilities and is a reference for anyone interested in becoming a better writer.

Although it is difficult to improve that edition, I am incredibly pleased to offer this third edition. This edition, similar to a well-crafted letter, is shorter and more direct in its objective. It has fewer pages than the previous editions. While both previous editions were well over four hundred pages, this publication has much fewer. Given the swift pace of today's society, Pat Hendrix fine-tuned the previous versions into a concise and updated new edition. As mentioned in Pat's introduction, it was by chance and good fortune to have met him before becoming colleagues. In many ways, it feels like history is repeating itself from when Jim and I first met many years ago working at the same school.

This new edition includes many suggestions and references on how to write in a cyber-consumed world. Nevertheless, this remains Jim Major's book. His voice remains throughout the book, providing a blueprint to improve your communication skills.

Jan Goldman, EdD

Series Editor

Security and Professional Intelligence Education Series (SPIES)

Part I

THE FOUNDATIONS OF GOOD INTELLIGENCE COMMUNICATION

What It's All About

BOTTOM LINE UP FRONT

To think like an analyst, look not only at what happened but also at what it means. Keep in mind three goals common to all analysts: (1) making judgments about the future, (2) interpreting foreign cultures and alien problems, and (3) supporting decision makers.

Key Points

- When writing intelligence, consider your reader.
- Get right to the point. Don't begin by "defining methods."
- The three goals of intelligence are (1) to make judgments about the future, (2) to interpret foreign cultures and alien problems, and (3) to support decision makers.
- Intelligence writing differs from academic writing because it focuses on the future, is written for an audience of generalists facing real problems, achieves meaningful characterization, and reaches conclusions and explores their implications.

ANALYSTS: THE VOICE OF THE INTELLIGENCE COMMUNITY

In August 2010, the US intelligence community (IC) identified al-Qaeda courier Abu Ahmed al-Kuwaiti and tracked him to Pakistan, where he visited the same location as another messenger. "We've been following two individuals who were historically couriers for bin Laden," a briefer informed the CIA's

top brass. “We found them, and we followed them down a dead-end street in a town called Abbottabad. At the end of the street, there’s a place that looks like a fortress.”

CIA director Leon Panetta looked up from his briefing binder. “A fortress? Tell me about that fortress.”

The briefer said there were twelve-foot-high walls on the front; eighteen-foot-high walls in the back; no phones; no electricity; no phone service; and, most curiously, balcony off the third floor with a privacy wall. The occupants of the compound also maintained tight security, burning all trash and traveling ninety miles away to use their cell phones.

“As he was going through what was unique about this compound, the hair on the back of my neck literally stood up,” Deputy Director Michael Morell recalled. The CIA set up a safe house in Abbottabad, where they logged and analyzed all activity at the compound. Geospatial intelligence (GEOINT) pulled from satellites and unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs) identified one individual they dubbed “the pacer,” who only left the safety of the buildings for brief walks on the balcony or strolls in the garden.

In the White House’s Situation Room, President Obama listened as CIA officers laid out the case that “the pacer” was Osama bin Laden. As is often the case on matters of intelligence, there was no consensus. Two officers put the chances of the individual being bin Laden at 95 percent. A few were less sure, telling the president the odds were 40 percent or lower. Most put the chances at around 80 percent.

“Look, guys, this is a flip of the coin,” Obama told his team. “I can’t base this decision on the notion that we have any greater certainty than that.”

The CIA assembled a Red Team to assume the role of the enemy, considering the culture, operational environment, and ideology of those living inside the compound. After a reassessment, the team downgraded the likelihood of bin Laden being at the location to 40–60 percent. It was not the certainty President Obama had hoped for, but absolute certainty is rare in the intelligence business.

“[W]hen you put all these pieces together—the security precautions, the nature of the compound, some of the additional information that we had gotten—we had the best intelligence case that we ever had on bin Laden since Tora Bora,” Leon Panetta later said. “And I think it was that information that required that we had an obligation to act.”

The next morning, the president announced his decision: “It’s a go. We’re going to do the raid. Draft up the orders.”

The operation commenced in the early-morning hours of May 2 using SEAL Team Six aboard two Black Hawk helicopters. “Once those teams went into the compound, I can tell you that there was a time period of



Fig. 1.1. President Barack Obama and Vice President Joe Biden, along with members of the national security team, receive an update on the mission against Osama bin Laden in the Situation Room of the White House, May 1, 2011. Seated, from left, are: Brigadier General Marshall B. “Brad” Webb, Assistant Commanding General, Joint Special Operations Command; Deputy National Security Advisor Denis McDonough; Secretary of State Hillary Rodham Clinton; and Secretary of Defense Robert Gates. Standing, from left, are: Admiral Mike Mullen, Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff; National Security Advisor Tom Donilon; Chief of Staff Bill Daley; Tony Blinken, National Security Advisor to the Vice President; Audrey Tomason Director for Counterterrorism; John Brennan, Assistant to the President for Homeland Security and Counterterrorism; and Director of National Intelligence James Clapper. Please note: a classified document seen in this photograph has been obscured. Official White House Photo by Pete Souza

almost 20 or 25 minutes where we—you know, we really didn’t know just exactly what was going on,” Leon Panetta later recalled. “And there were some very tense moments as we were waiting for information. But finally, Adm. McRaven came back and said that he had picked up the word ‘Geronimo,’ which was the code word that represented that they got bin Laden.”¹

While the scene described here has the feel of a Hollywood thriller, it was very real; the stakes couldn’t have been higher. “A lot of these people were intelligence analysts, people who had been involved in operations for a period of time,” Leon Panetta later said. “I encourage the people around me not to tell me what they thought I wanted to hear but what they believed, and to be honest.”

Ask intelligence analysts what they do. You'll probably get as many answers as the number of analysts you interview. Somewhere in each answer you might even hear the word *analyze*—like the dictionary definition that defines a word by repeating it in the definition: “An analyst analyzes.” In fact, many analysts come to the job hoping to find some manual that covers the subject of doing analysis. They are likely to be disappointed.

What does an intelligence analyst really do? They form the backbone of the community. They compile and review often massive amounts of raw data and information, study it, and try to find some meaning in it. In their report to the president titled “The Commission on the Intelligence Capabilities of the United States Regarding Weapons of Mass Destruction” (2005), Senator Charles S. Robb and Judge Laurence H. Silberman wrote, “Analysts are the voice of the Intelligence Community.”²

Analysts turn information into intelligence, ensuring policy makers receive unbiased and accurate intelligence to inform their decisions and plan for the future. But that job isn't complete until they have communicated that intelligence to someone who needs it to make a decision, formulate a plan or policy, or carry out a military operation. Communicating intelligence is hard work. Both writing and briefing require a great deal of time and effort if they are to be any good. The good news is that reading, writing, and briefing intelligence products are skills that can be developed through study and practice.

GETTING STARTED: CONSIDER THE READER

Commanders, war fighters, decision makers, planners, and force developers depend on intelligence. How you communicate that intelligence to them might be the key to successfully accomplishing the mission. Before writing, ask yourself three basic questions:

1. Who are the most likely readers of my work?
2. What do my readers need to know about this subject?
3. What do my readers already know?

This simple act of thoughtfulness will pay dividends in the final product, making it more targeted, readable, and impactful. Besides, it requires very little of your time to accomplish.

Reader consideration will also have an important influence on the way you write your paper. Generally, the higher the rank of the intended recipients, the more formal your product should be. If it's a fact sheet or a background paper for a flag rank officer or senior civilian, you'll need to adhere to the proper

format and keep it brief. If it's a think piece to be circulated among peers in your section or division, then you can be less formal. As a student, you'll want to make certain your course papers meet the criteria of your institution and the individually imposed requirements of your professors. *If you don't know the required format, ask.*

THE STYLE OF GOOD INTELLIGENCE WRITING: THE BOTTOM LINE UP FRONT (BLUF)

Don't bury your lead. Several chapters in this book begin with a BLUF. That summary encapsulates the main points made in the chapter. For intelligence writing, that translates simply as "bottom line up front."

Consider the following example. In 1983, US intelligence analysts noted increasingly worrisome behavior on the part of the Soviet Union, including large-scale military exercises, preparations for air operations against Afghanistan, and an uptick in alarmist propaganda about the danger of nuclear war. Signals intelligence also indicated the Soviet Fourth Air Army alert "included preparations for immediate use of nuclear weapons" in response to a NATO military exercise code-named Able Archer 83.

At the Reagan administration's behest, the intelligence community produced a report titled "Implications of Recent Soviet Military-Political Activities." The Special National Intelligence Estimate (NIE) leads with the conclusion, providing the reader with the *bottom line up front*: "We believe strongly that Soviet actions are not inspired by, and Soviet leaders do not perceive, a genuine danger of imminent conflict or confrontation with the United States."³

NIEs are the IC's most authoritative written judgments on national security issues, providing information on the likely course of future events and highlighting the implications for US policy makers.

Even if President Reagan read only this sentence of the NIE, the fundamental question—Is the Soviet Union preparing for nuclear war?—was answered in unambiguous language. Like the writer of this estimate, you need to lead with your knockout punch.

THE THREE GOALS OF INTELLIGENCE WRITING: JUDGE, INTERPRET, AND SUPPORT

Embedded in all intelligence writing are some basic truths. When a student makes the transition from an academic mind-set to that of an analyst, he or she must recognize those truths, expressed here as the three “goals.” These goals are to judge, to interpret, and to support. Accomplishing each goal is essential to the production of a well-written intelligence product.

Goal 1: Make Judgments about the Future

The new analyst often has difficulty accepting the idea that readers are less concerned about what happened than in determining the event’s significance for US interests. Moreover, conditioned by college to search for artistic and scientific “truth,” the new analyst is sometimes slow to believe that often there is no certainty. And then there is that dogged determination to get all the facts, a compulsion reinforced by the mistaken notion that an analyst’s job is to know everything. But that is rarely possible. The new analyst must accept the following:

- Judgments will invariably be made based on incomplete and conflicting information.
- An analyst rarely has the luxury of asking the consumer to wait until additional information is available.
- An analyst’s job is not so much to be clairvoyant as it is to provide the best answer possible given the time and information available.

“Do not be afraid to predict the future, or of being wrong,” one veteran analyst advises. “If you are right most of the time, you are doing pretty well. But if you are always right, then you are not doing your job.”⁴

Goal 2: Interpret Foreign Cultures and Alien Problems

As an analyst, you are the interpreter of a large, complex world that emerged from different cultures and traditions. Your job is to make sense of that world for policy makers. That might mean explaining the logic of Russia’s seizure of Crimea or the motivation behind a Boko Haram attack on a school. Culture, ethnicity, religion, and ideology all matter. What may seem irrational to us may be entirely logical to someone else.

A failure to consider cultural context can have devastating consequences. America's fourteen-year involvement in the Vietnam War provides one example. "Not the least of the operational and policy problems in Vietnam was our national ignorance of Vietnamese history, society, and language," CIA director Richard Helms later acknowledged.⁵

Afghanistan proved equally vexing. A coalition of international allies spent trillions of dollars and lost thousands of lives in building a national government and military. "My experience is, over a period of 10-plus years watching and working on Afghanistan closely, that we failed to accumulate a deep understanding and expertise about Afghanistan that would then empower our strategy making," Douglas Lute, a three-star army general who served as the White House's Afghan war czar during the Bush and Obama administrations, later admitted. When America began a scheduled withdrawal from the country, it took only eleven days for the entire investment to collapse and the Taliban to capture Kabul. The parallels with Saigon in April 1975 are hard to miss.⁶

Goal 3: Support Decision Makers

New analysts readily accept the concept that they support the policy process. Indeed, for many, it's one of the strongest selling points of the job. But inexperienced analysts often have difficulty putting this notion into practice because they don't understand what constitutes support. "[I]ntelligence is not the formulator of objectives; it is not the drafter of policy; it is not the maker of plans," Sherman Kent, who developed the analytic doctrine for US intelligence, emphasized at the Central Intelligence Agency. "It is ancillary of these. . . . [I]t performs a service function."⁷ This is often one of the most difficult concepts for new analysts to grasp: *It is not your job to not make policy recommendations*. This is perhaps the most sacrosanct rule of intelligence analysis. You are a political agnostic.

You should also remember that politicians and policy makers are no different than most of us—they hate bad news. As an analyst, it's not your job to soothe their anxieties. Trust is built on giving accurate and timely intelligence to the consumer. Sometimes that means giving policy makers intelligence they don't like.

In 2007, a young analyst briefing Director of the Central Intelligence Agency Michael Hayden on a white paper described the situation in Iraq as a "civil war." "Let's go to Iraq," Hayden said to his staff. "Let's make sure we know what we're talking about." They visited Iraq and did interviews with the people closest to the situation. "Iraq looks like one of Dante's circles

of hell,” Hayden found. It was not going to be welcome news at the White House.

Hayden briefed President George W. Bush on what he’d seen: “Mr. President, I just got back from Iraq, and it’s very bad.” The revelation had a profound and immediate emotional impact on the president. “He wasn’t mad or yelling back at me, but somebody he liked and trusted was saying this was very bad.” After that briefing, it was decided that a surge of American troops was necessary to push the violence down, a policy change that President Bush previously resisted.⁸

REAL-WORLD PROBLEMS

Analysts must also be taught to distinguish between providing answers to real problems and expanding the body of knowledge on some subject. As Sherman Kent noted, analysts are not paid to “pursue knowledge for its own sake” but rather for the “practical matter of taking action.”⁹

For analysts, supporting the policy maker comes down to the following related functions:

- Providing answers to specific questions, only some of which might be asked by the policy maker
- Providing a framework that allows the policy maker to understand an issue and to process new information
- Providing a warning, when appropriate

FOUR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ACADEMIC AND INTELLIGENCE WRITING

The nature of intelligence writing flows clearly from three goals. This section discusses four distinct differences between academic and intelligence writing (see table 1.1).

Difference 1: Focus on the Future

New analysts must learn that discovering facts alone is insufficient for and/or occasionally immaterial to the real job of analysis—thinking about the future. A new analyst who was struggling to make the transition from academia captured this problem best. In college, she gathered all the facts, and the “conclusions just fell out.” Like many new analysts, she was under the

Table 1.1. Differences between Intelligence Writing and Academic Writing

<i>Intelligence Writing</i>	<i>Academic Writing</i>
Look to the future	Focus on the past as historical background
Early and strong statement of your conclusions	Describe methodology or applied theories
Readers are <i>not</i> subject-matter experts	Readers are scholars in their field
Stick to the essentials, focus on your topic, narrow it to its essence, and stay focused on the topic throughout the paper	Expand to include many details

misimpression that the primary goal of intelligence writing is to discover the truth or set the record straight. As a result, the first instinct was to lay out in detail how the present situation evolved.

Students become analysts when they stop thinking in terms of what happened and start thinking in terms of what the facts mean. More importantly, they need to consider what those facts mean for the future so that policy makers can plan for and protect against hostile activities.

Difference 2: Write for Generalists Grappling with Real Problems

One of the hardest things for new analysts to grasp is the nature of their audience. They are accustomed to writing for academics who value detail and have no obligation to act on the information. Consequently, these “apprentice” analysts find themselves in unfamiliar situations where their audience does not judge the product’s value by its length, devotion to detail, or complexity. Unlike academic writing, the value of an intelligence paper is directly proportional to its clarity, brevity, and focus on issues.

Some intelligence analysts never make the adjustment, preferring to showcase their skills by cramming lots of collected materials into their reports and briefs. During Operation Desert Storm, General Schwarzkopf complained about this tendency, citing the example of a bridge that an intelligence report described as 52 percent destroyed. He asked if tanks could cross the bridge. The analysts said no. He asked if trucks could cross the bridge. The analysts said no. From an operational military standpoint, that meant the bridge was 100 percent unusable, as far as General Schwarzkopf was concerned. “The formalized analysis done from an engineer’s standpoint was misleading and unhelpful to the military professionals,” an after-action report found.¹⁰

Difference 3: Write with Meaningful Characterization

New analysts resort to “data dumps” for two basic reasons: (1) They cannot differentiate what is important, so they include everything, or (2) they believe piling up details is the best way to demonstrate their expertise, a lesson learned in college. Instead, they need to understand that the “art of intelligence” consists of identifying what’s important in a mountain of details. Reporters describe a situation; analysts characterize it by making meaningful generalizations that help the reader put events in perspective and then think about them. Analysts reconcile conflicting information, isolate the governing principles in the data, and recognize the exception that demands a reevaluation.

Difference 4: Begin with Conclusions, then Explore Their Implications

Going beyond the evidence is new for most analysts. Academic writing rarely reaches this point; what passes for conclusions in academia is often a summary of the preceding pages. In college, students learn by design or default to focus on how situations develop and fit the evidence into intellectual constructs that are more descriptive than predictive. Intelligence analysts have to move beyond descriptive writing, providing policy makers with clear conclusions and their implications for the future.

As an analyst, you must learn to think in terms of, “This is the situation; these forces are at work; this is what it means for the future.” In 1990, the US intelligence community was tasked with predicting the future of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia, a federated country consisting of six ostensibly equal republics: Croatia, Montenegro, Serbia, Slovenia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Macedonia. In Serbia, the provinces of Kosovo and Vojvodina were largely self-governed by the ethnic Albanians and Magyars, respectively.

Following the collapse of communism in Eastern Europe in 1989 and the reunification of Germany a year later, there was fear that internecine conflict might break out as different republics pushed for more autonomy. Given the simmering ethnic and nationalist hatreds that could be unleashed with the dissolution of Yugoslavia, US policy makers hoped the federation could be preserved.

On October 18, the intelligence community produced NIE 15–90, “Yugoslavia Transformed,” predicting the country’s immediate future:

Yugoslavia will cease to function as a federal state within one year, and will probably dissolve within two. Economic reform will not stave off the breakup.

(Continued...)

~~Secret~~

Key Judgments

The old Yugoslav federation is coming to an end because the reservoir of political will holding Yugoslavia together is gone. Within a year the federal system will no longer exist; within two years Yugoslavia will probably have dissolved as a state. ☐

Although elsewhere in Eastern Europe economic and political reform will be interdependent, Yugoslavia's future will be decided by political and ethnic factors. Even successful economic reforms will not hold the country together. ☐

The strongest cohesive forces at work in Yugoslavia are those *within* Serbia, Croatia, and Slovenia. They are a mix of national pride, local economic aspirations, and historically antagonistic religious and cultural identifications. In Slovenia, and to a lesser extent Croatia, the new nationalism is westward looking, democratic, and entrepreneurial; in Serbia, it is rooted in statist economics, military tradition, and a preference for strong central government led by a dynamic personality. ☐

Neither the Communist Party nor the Yugoslav National Army (JNA) will be able to hold the federation together. The party is in a shambles; the army has lost prestige because of its strong Communist Party identification and because much of the country considers it a Serb-dominated institution. No all-Yugoslav political movement has emerged to fill the void left by the collapse of the Titoist vision of a Yugoslav state, and none will. ☐

Alternatives to dissolution now being discussed in various quarters are unlikely to succeed. A loose confederation will appeal to Croatia and Slovenia, but Serbs will block this in an effort to preserve Serb influence. Moreover, a Serb-dominated attempt to muddle through, using the old federal institutions and military brinksmanship to block independence, will not be tolerated by the newly enfranchised, nationalistic electorates of the breakaway republics. Serbs know this. ☐

It is likely that Serbian repression in Kosovo will result in an armed uprising by the majority Albanian population, supported by large Albanian minorities in Macedonia and Montenegro. This, in turn, will create strong pressure on those republics to associate themselves closely with Serbia. ☐

v

~~Secret~~

Fig. 1.2. Central Intelligence Agency, "NIE 15-90 Yugoslavia Transformed," October 18, 1990.

- Serbia will block Slovene and Croat attempts to form an all Yugoslav confederation.
- There will be a protracted armed uprising by Albanians in Kosovo.

A full-scale, interrepublic war is unlikely, but the serious intercommunal conflict will accompany the breakup and will continue afterward. The violence will be intractable and bitter.

- There is little the United States and its European allies can do to preserve Yugoslav unity. Yugoslavs will see such efforts as contradictory to the advocacy of democracy and self-determination.¹¹

The predictions in the NIE unfolded almost exactly as the analysts forecast. Yugoslavia disintegrated into its constituent parts, and the subsequent conflict cost 100,000 lives and displaced nearly 2 million people, prompting a NATO military intervention.

NIE 15-90 was both prescient and well written. Nevertheless, policy makers failed to plan for the disintegration of Yugoslavia. This leads to another important point: No matter how well-written or insightful the analysis, the consumer has no obligation to act on that intelligence. The analyst can provide strategic warnings and forecasts for the future, but decisions are made by policy makers.

MAKING THE DISTINCTION CLEAR—ESPECIALLY FOR STUDENTS

The most difficult point for most students to understand is that they are writing intelligence papers in an academic environment. This also applies to faculty members and intelligence professionals. For that reason, we must ensure that students leave the course with a clear idea of what constitutes a well-written intelligence paper.

FACILITATING THE PROCESS

Writing finished intelligence is a process and as such can be viewed in four steps to create a finished product:

1. Identify the intelligence issue within the topic.
2. Identify the questions that must be addressed.

3. After completing research, identify two or three key points for the policy maker.
4. Draft, using questions to organize the paper.

A new analyst must know what he or she is supposed to do and how it differs from what was done in the past; furthermore, the analyst needs a concise and simple scheme of how to produce analysis. A “how to” diagram accomplishes four things:

1. It reduces anxiety by giving guidelines.
2. It starts the individual off in the right direction.
3. It reinforces the message of the three goals and the four natures.
4. It provides a common vocabulary and a framework for critiquing fledgling efforts.

Step 1: Identify the Intelligence Issue within the Topic

Ask a new analyst what he or she is writing about, and you will likely get a reply like this: “Chinese activity in the developing world.” And what you get is *everything* about Chinese activity in the developing world, from Afghanistan to Zimbabwe. Unfortunately, most new analysts really don’t know what they are writing about. They are researching a title given to them. Therein lies the problem: Titles are constructed more with an eye to snagging the reader’s interest than conveying the substance of the paper.

The solution is easy: *The analyst must first learn to identify specifically what he or she is writing about.* Introducing the concept of a difference between an intelligence topic and an intelligence issue is helpful in this regard. An intelligence topic is a broad question of interest, such as North Korean activity in the developing world. An intelligence issue is the development of something new and different that narrows the topic and gives a focal point to the paper. Here is a simple test: An issue phrase conveys a sense of

Table 1.2. Examples of Topics and Issues

<i>Topic</i>	<i>Issue</i>
Sino–Russian relations	Significance of China’s expanding economic relations with Russia for Western investors in China
	<i>or</i>
	The implications of the Putin succession for Russian policy toward China
Sino–North Korean relations	Improvement in Russian–North Korean relations and what it means for China

change, movement, or activity; a topic does not. Table 1.2 provides examples that might help clarify this subtle but important distinction.

Making this necessary distinction causes the analyst to stop and think about what he or she is attempting to do before doing it. The new hire will generally not be able to make this distinction; the ability to identify intelligence issues is one of the skills that separate the apprentice analyst from the veteran.

Step 2: Identify the Questions That Must Be Addressed

An intelligence issue is still too broad to provide the new analyst with much help. Guidance is required as he or she reads, files, and gathers information. One answer is to break the intelligence issue into a series of general questions. To do this, the analyst should be encouraged to step into the policy maker's shoes and ask him- or herself, "What do I want or need to know about this issue?" The questions should flow from the intelligence issue; if they do not, then the purpose of the paper is probably not clear. Using the Sino-North Korean issue as an example, a policy maker probably would want to know the following:

- Have warmer Russian-North Korean relations caused cooler Sino-North Korean relations, or is it more complicated than that?
- Are the Chinese concerned?
- What steps has Beijing taken to change the situation?
- Is Chinese leadership divided on the issue? What would China like to have happen?
- What is Beijing doing about it? Is it working?
- What do the Chinese expect from the United States?

The first cut at this should be a spontaneous, stream-of-consciousness exercise. The analyst can then weed and consolidate the list.

The list of questions serves to sharpen the focus of the paper. The new analyst now knows "what's in" and "what's out." For instance, is it necessary to be concerned about Russian-North Korean economic relations? The list also tells what should be looked for as the files are read; once that is done, it helps to identify intelligence gaps and to write requirements. Knowing what information is relevant should focus the research and prevent an indiscriminate collection of data. The questions might change as the analyst does the actual research, but this serves to define the paper more precisely. The analyst must pose questions by considering audience, policy relevance, and the meaning of events. With these questions at hand, the analyst can properly research the issue.

Step 3: After Completing Research, Identify Two or Three Key Points for the Policy Maker

Doing research is crucial, but it is also useless unless the research is understood. Understanding requires digesting information and discovering what is known and unknown. That clarity may result in further research. Two or three key points should crystalize the information into the bottom line of the paper. If an analyst cannot concisely summarize the bottom line, then proper analysis has not been done. If the bottom line is determined before the writing begins, then there was almost certainly no analysis.

The distance from information to interpretation (meaning) is enormous. The analyst cannot get there without first deciding what is known. The manager's function is to get the novice analyst to answer explicitly what is known. That done, the analyst is in a position to go beyond the evidence and think about what the answers mean. The preferred methodology is to use questions to think through the issue, questions designed to bring out the implications of the facts. Having digested the research, the analyst should reflect on some questions:

- What is new, or what is being done differently?
- Why is it occurring?
- What are the goals and broader concerns of the principal actors?
- What factors influence success or failure? Are the actors aware of these factors? Do they have a plan to deal with the factors?
- What are the prospects for success? More importantly, what are the implications for the actors, their broader concerns, the United States, and other countries?
- Where do the principal actors go from here?

By concentrating on these questions, the analyst can focus on the big picture. The questions must not be answered by restating facts. The questions get at the processes and call for generalizations, the essence of effective, polished intelligence. The key points to be impressed on the reader are a distillation of this thought process. For example, an analyst working on the Sino–North Korean paper might ask,

- What has changed in Chinese–North Korean relations?
- Why has it changed? Is it just because North Korean–Russian relations have improved, or does something else account for both developments?
- What would Beijing like to have happen?
- Does Beijing have a strategy for achieving its goals? What factors will shape success or failure? Does Beijing appreciate these factors?

- What are China's chances of success? What happens if the Chinese succeed? If they fail? What is the US stake in this? Other nations?
- Where do the Chinese go from here?

Step 4: Draft, Using Questions to Organize the Paper

The final step should be the easiest. Once the analyst knows the two or three key ideas that must be conveyed, the task is to organize the material in a way that makes the points most effectively. The best papers are organized into sections that address what policy makers want and need to know. The questions used in step 3 often can be used to organize the draft. Chapter 6 of this book has more detail about writing the first draft.

FINAL THOUGHTS

This chapter lays out the goals of intelligence writing, designed to point the student, professional analyst, or manager toward writing a better product. One of the three primary aims of an intelligence professional is to support decision makers. Your work in that regard provides crucial support of national security. However, you must always be careful as you write that you do not prescribe policy. You can certainly give the policy maker your best estimate of what is about to occur, whether that constitutes a national perspective or an operational military command. But do not tell policy and decision makers what to do next. That is not in your job description as an intelligence analyst. The next chapter explains how to use argumentation in your writing.

EXERCISES IN THE FOUNDATIONS OF ANALYSIS

The exercises for this chapter have multiple possible answers. For that reason, no answers are provided for these exercises.

Group Exercise

The purpose of this exercise is to evaluate an intelligence publication. To complete this assignment, read the following *Memo for the Director and Deputy Director from Vice Chairman of the National Intelligence Council Herbert E. Meyer, "Subject: Why Is the World So Dangerous?," November 30, 1983* (see Appendix A), and answer the following questions in discussion groups:

1. Does the memo make judgments about the future?
2. Does the memo interpret foreign cultures and alien problems?
3. Does the memo support decision makers?
4. Does the memo focus on the future?
5. Does the memo focus on an audience of generalists facing real problems?
6. Does the memo achieve meaningful characterization?
7. Does the memo reach conclusions and explore their implications?
8. Does the memo provide a policy prescription?
9. Does the memo provide objective analysis?

Individual Exercises

Exercise 1

The purpose of this exercise is to determine if the following intelligence meets the needs of the consumer. To complete this assignment, do the following:

1. After reading the FBI intelligence estimate *White Supremacist Infiltration of Law, Enforcement October 17, 2006* (see appendix B), write a three- to four-sentence Bottom Line Up Front (BLUF) for the document. Your BLUF should cover the most salient information in the document, from most to least important. *Remember, lead with your knockout punch.*
2. After reading and analyzing the FBI intelligence estimate, determine whether the outlook presented at the end is consistent with
 - a. key judgments—explain
 - b. main body of the publication—explain

Exercise 2

1. Write a short paragraph (four to six sentences) about a current news event that “grabbed” you from today’s newspaper or television news. Reread the paragraph with an eye toward the discussions in this chapter. Is the bottom line up front, in the first sentence? Are all other sentences directly related to the first sentence? Do they provide support, evidence, or further information?
2. Look again at the paragraph you have written, and consider the earlier discussion of a topic versus an issue. Is your paragraph focused solely on information (Who? What? Where? When?) and lacking in analysis? Is there an issue inherent in your topic—some change, movement, or activity?

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Using Argument in Intelligence Writing

Solveig Eggerz Brownfeld

BOTTOM LINE UP FRONT

Intelligence analysis is an argument. It suggests likely causes for war and offers predictions without certainty. All the thinking and reasoning methods that comprise argument reside in the world of probability rather than certain truth.

Key Points

- An argument in intelligence writing is a persuasive statement that takes a position on an issue and is supported with evidence.
- In taking a stand, you formulate a thesis statement, a positive assertion about your subject.
- Ancient thinking methods that support an argument correspond to how humans process information to attain knowledge. By applying ancient thinking methods in a systematic manner, we can move from informal reasoning to persuasive argument.
- Methods by which we *think* include specific-to-general, general-to-specific, division/classification, comparison/contrast, cause/effect, induction, and deduction.
- To improve your own capacity for argument, read and evaluate the arguments posited by others in intelligence products.

WHAT IS AN ARGUMENT?

An argument that persuades—and thus resides at the core of intelligence writing—transcends the emotional conflicts we traditionally associate with argument; rather, it involves taking a stand on an issue and supporting it with evidence. A variety of ancient thinking methods support a persuasive argument, some of which are anchored in formal logic. In ancient Greece, citizens argued their own cases in the assemblies and law courts. They devised moral arguments using the rhetorical devices of such Greek philosophers as Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle as well as Latin rhetoricians Quintilian and Cicero.

Argument Is Central to Intelligence Analysis

As an analyst, whatever assertion you make, you will face counterassertions. Because you can anticipate a challenge to your reasoning, perhaps even a fully reasoned competing assertion with a full body of evidence, it is a good idea to apply more than one reasoning method to your argument. Be prepared to make a concession to competing viewpoints, and be ready to refute them. By showing awareness and understanding of the opposing viewpoint, you will enhance the credibility of your argument. In his “Fifteen Axioms for Intelligence,” analyst Frank Watanabe writes, “Differences of opinion are healthy because they force both sides to make their case on the field of intellectual battle.”¹

When You Argue, You Take a Stand

Taking a stand means supporting an assertion that develops from your research. If you begin with a premise and look for supporting evidence, then you’ll find it. That’s how Iraqi weapons of mass destruction ended up being a “slam dunk.” Do this instead: First, research your topic; then, draw a conclusion from what you have learned. Next, transform your conclusion into an assertion. Write your assertion as a clear thesis statement. Finally, support your thesis statement with evidence from your research. Convince your reader with persuasive arguments, selecting your reasoning and thinking methods from the previously mentioned examples. An argument might encompass an entire document, such as an intelligence estimate, but you will also use lines of argument within your overall argument. Any form of argument for intelligence analysis should proceed from the basis of a thesis statement.

FORMULATING A THESIS STATEMENT

As you explore your topic, try formulating and reformulating possible thesis statements. *Assert* something about your subject in order to create a thesis statement. For example,

- Intelligence collection (a subject)
- Intelligence collection during war (a narrower subject)
- Intelligence collection during war (subject) is hampered by poor coordination with allies (predicate)—a subject with a predicate that *asserts* something about the subject.

Consider your thesis statement an organizational tool. Questions, descriptive statements, or statements of fact are not thesis statements. The thesis statement benefits both writer and reader. It will help to organize your ideas and add a sense of purpose to your writing; it will also help your reader comprehend your ideas more easily.

A statement of fact or description is not a thesis statement. Note that the following “yes” statements all make an assertion, use key words that will lead to lines of argument, and use such words of assertion as *should* and *must*. One of the “no” statements uses key words but asserts nothing about the subject. Note also the intelligence focus of the “yes” statements:

No: This paper will attempt to redefine the roles of the Army and Air Force in close air support. (No assertion is made. Key words are not specific. The focus is policy, not intelligence.)

Yes: To increase operational efficiency and realize the full potential of close air support, the Army must increase intelligence resources devoted to the close air support mission, freeing the Air Force to concentrate on other missions. (The writer makes an assertion and specifically addresses how to improve a situation with an intelligence focus.)

No: This paper will focus on US arms sales to Saudi Arabia, the advantages and disadvantages of these sales, and the effect these sales have on US and Saudi Arabian policy. (This paper will probably simply describe arms sales. Its focus is policy, not intelligence.)

Yes: The intelligence community should monitor the sales of American-made arms to Saudi Arabia because these sales will preserve US interests in the region without deploying US troops, will help prevent Russian expansion, and will increase security in the Persian Gulf and the Middle East. (The assertion includes key words and specifics. The

“because” statement leads into a cause/effect line of argument that supports the assertion. The focus is intelligence.)

ARGUMENT REFLECTS HOW HUMANS THINK

To be persuasive, the ancient philosophers and rhetoricians had to apply reasoning tools that corresponded to how human beings think. The skills of rhetoric, central to argument, comprised the art of persuasion. Before devising oral arguments for orators, these scholars studied how human beings gain knowledge through language. These scholars were simply applying, in a conscious manner, the methods human beings unconsciously use to process information. These can be called thinking or reasoning methods. They can all contribute to the argument.

Whether consciously or subconsciously, the human mind tries to apply order to what might otherwise be chaos or disarray. Some of the ways, which are discussed here in detail, include the following:

- Specific-to-general
- General-to-specific
- Division/classification (or categorization)
- Comparison/contrast
- Analogy
- Cause/effect
- Induction
- Deduction

Specific-to-General

Reasoning from specific observations to a general conclusion is perhaps the most common thinking method for making sense of the world around us. Specific-to-general thinking is at the root of the informal method of logic called induction or inference. Analysts use this form of argument regularly to draw conclusions from information they have read or observed. For example:

Specific Observations: Osama bin Laden, Abu Bakr al-Baghdadi, and Abu Musab al-Zarqawi are all terrorists. All three are also Sunni Muslims.

General Conclusion: Terrorists tend to be Sunni Muslims.

Specific Observations: According to the YouGov Polling, Ipsos, and a series of random interviews, the Scottish National Party is leading heavily in the polls.

General Conclusion: The Scottish National Party will win a clear majority in Scotland's Parliament.

Specific-to-general thinking can lead to a common fallacy or hasty generalization, which occurs when the collection of observations is too small or not inclusive enough to allow for a solid generalization.

General-to-Specific

Reasoning from general-to-specific is “bottom line up front” thinking. Instead of leading the reader through your reasoning process, as in specific-to-general, you provide your conclusion first. Follow it up with specific evidence. This is how most readers prefer to receive the information that you, the writer/analyst, have thought through and transformed to knowledge. And this is the preferred method of argument in the intelligence community. For example,

General Conclusion: The Scottish National Party will win the election.
The reader might ask, “Why?” You tell the reader why.

Specific Observations: According to the YouGov Polling, Ipsos, and a series of informal random interviews, the Scottish National Party is in the lead.

General Conclusion: We cannot rely on the Analysis Branch to submit the assessment because of the section's incompetence. *The reader might ask, “Why?” You tell the reader why.*

Specific Observations: In the Analysis Branch, Jenkins submitted her portion of the report late, Smith plagiarized ideas from another publication, and Thompson is afraid to stick his neck out.

Division/Classification (or Categorization)

This thinking method relates to the basic way we organize our thoughts. We break things down into component parts and label the parts, a technique basic to intelligence analysis. Before dividing a larger entity into smaller parts, however, make sure that you have selected a sound dividing principle. For example, you sort domestic terrorism into one of four categories: (1) racially motivated violent extremism, (2) antigovernment/antiauthority extremism, (3) animal

rights/environmental extremism, and (4) abortion extremism. *The dividing principle is ideology.* The manner in which you divide and classify (categorize) might in itself constitute argument. Examples include classifying (categorizing) a political organization as a terrorist group rather than as a rebel group.

Comparison/Contrast

In conversation, we regularly make comparisons between concepts, incidents, or objects, to name a few. Informally, we point to similarities and differences. However, for a logical comparison, we must establish the basis for the comparison, choose specific points of comparison, make sure that those points are relevant to our purpose, and make it clear to the reader what the points of comparison are.

Example: Compare terrorist groups A and B.

Basis for Comparison: They have similar goals and founding principles. Points of comparison include ideology, methodology, and composition.

Thesis: Group A and group B, although rooted in different Middle Eastern countries, are radical sects that share a goal of a worldwide caliphate (basis of comparison).

You might compare them on the following points:

1. **Ideology:** Compare group A's ideology with group B's ideology.
2. **Methodology:** Compare group A's methodology with group B's methodology.
3. **Composition:** Compare group A's composition with group B's composition.

Analogy

Analogy is a form of comparison that involves the following reasoning: If two concepts or phenomena share one similarity, then they will be alike in other ways. When circumstances are comparable, intelligence analysts often use analogies to make sense of the situation, assuming that the same forces are at work or that conditions are similar enough to draw generalizations inferred from comparable cases. Relating contemporary events to earlier events is one of the most common forms of analogy. These types of analogies have a downside, especially if the historical precedent is so familiar and powerful that it causes the analyst to see the present situation exactly the same as the past.²

The most frequently abused historical analogy is “Munich,” referring to the Munich Conference in September 1938, where British Prime Minister Neville Chamberlain declared “peace in our time” right before Hitler sent troops into Poland. Since then, *appeasement* has served as the catch word for failing to confront a dictator. President Harry S. Truman felt compelled to challenge Joseph Stalin’s Soviet Union for fear of another Munich. The Cuban missile crisis was nearly John Kennedy’s “Munich moment,” where he had to confront Nikita Khrushchev. And when Saddam Hussein invaded Kuwait, he morphed into the Middle Eastern Adolf Hitler.

One of the most productive uses of analogy is in the formulation of hypotheses, allowing the analyst to use his or her imagination to think of alternative explanations or scenarios. For instance, a group of analysts examining the issue of Taiwan could look at Japan’s attack on Pearl Harbor, hypothesizing how the Chinese leadership might use strategic surprise if Washington imposed economic and political pressure similar to that used against Japan beginning in June 1941.

The next step would be an examination of how American strategists misjudged the thinking of Emperor Hirohito and Prime Minister Hideki Tojo on the eve of the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor and how the United States could be making a similar mistake with Chinese president Xi Jinping. Similarly, Admiral Husband Kimmel, who commanded the US Pacific Fleet in 1941, believed it was technologically and logistically impossible for Japan to lead six aircraft carriers and two dozen other warships halfway across the Pacific and attack Pearl Harbor.

Drawing lessons from this historical miscalculation, analysts could determine if the Chinese DF-26 antiship ballistic missile is capable of damaging or disabling Andersen Air Force Base on Guam. The analogy’s function is limited to a jumping-off point that suggests new lines of reasoning that might not have first occurred to the analysts.

Cause/Effect

Intelligence analysis and writing seek to determine relationships between incidents, ideas, or phenomena. While we cannot prove causality except in narrow, highly controlled experiments, we can apply causal thinking to discover how incidents, ideas, or phenomena are related. You can apply the causal relationships that you discover to your overall argument; however, keep in mind that they might be speculative or hypothetical (see Fig. 2.1).

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Brief
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RELEASED IN FULL

DPRK/PRC: "Refugee" Roundup? (C)



See also map showing routes of North Korean refugee flows into China.

Despite recent reports that the food situation has temporarily stabilized, deteriorating living conditions in North Korea and a relaxation of Pyongyang's internal security controls have caused a wandering population of mostly rural residents periodically to look to China for a respite from food shortages. But the burden of increasing numbers of illegal DPRK migrants crossing into China--and a parallel increase in crime--may be forcing some Chinese officials to be more aggressive in rounding up "refugees." (C/NF)

Chinese police reportedly are conducting house-to-house searches near the border as part of a policy of forced repatriation; fines for harboring DPRK "refugees" have been increased. A Chinese foreign ministry spokeswoman recently said Beijing had taken "appropriate measures" to contend with the influx of DPRK migrants, though she refused to provide numbers and played down the possibility of a mass migration to China. (C)

Illegal DPRK migrants easily blend with and find support from some three million ethnic Koreans living in China's border provinces, suggesting that whatever Beijing's estimates are, they still may be substantially lower than the actual number of people who cross each year. Though house-to-house searches and roundups in China are not new, firmer measures to stem unauthorized crossings might be in store if Beijing determines that DPRK migrants are destabilizing the border area. (C/NF)

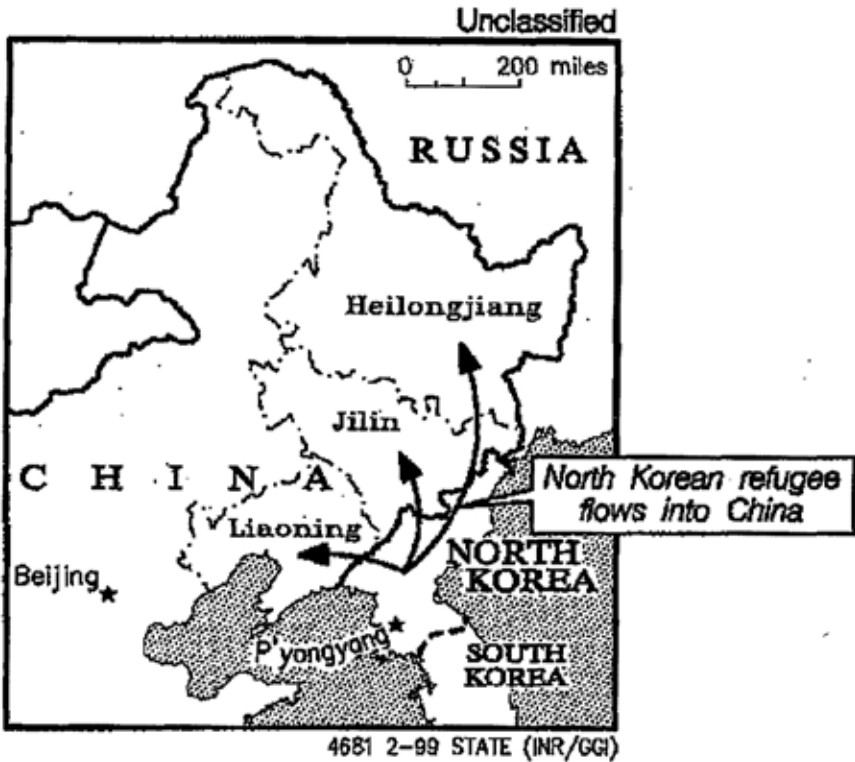
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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF STATE
REVIEW AUTHORITY: DONALD A. JOHNSTON
DATE/CASE ID: 24 AUG 2005 200404808

UNCLASSIFIED

Fig. 2.1. This document asserts that a Chinese crackdown on North Korean refugees was caused by a "relaxation of Pyongyang's internal security controls . . ." However, the analysis asserts the underlying cause was likely food shortages in the DPRK. State Department Bureau of Intelligence and Research Intelligence Brief, DPRK/PRC: "Refugee" Roundup?, February 8, 1999. The document is #18 in National Security Archive Electronic Briefing Book No. 205, <https://nsarchive2.gwu.edu/NSAEBB/NSAEBB205/index.htm>. These materials are reproduced from www.nsarchive.org with the permission of the National Security Archive.



Causality thinking is frequently applied to investigations of disasters, analyses of historical events, searches for the solution of a problem, or predictions of future events. In other words, your causal analysis will attribute causes and effects on a hypothetical basis. Causation can include clusters of potential causes and effects as well as contributing conditions and influences.

A key aspect involves distinguishing between direct and indirect causes. A direct cause triggers an event. It is the immediate cause without which the event cannot occur. While the direct cause might be straightforward, the indirect cause might be controversial. From among several indirect causes, you will select the ones that, based on your research, you consider the most likely contributors to, for example, a riot. *You must support your choice of indirect cause.* Your choice will become part of your argument. For example,

What might be the *direct* causes of a riot? Perhaps there was a sudden heat wave accompanied by a power outage, or perhaps the police shot an unarmed man.

What might be *indirect* causes of a riot? Possible reasons might include long-term unemployment, unresolved housing issues, or ongoing political tension caused by systemic racism.

Readers might agree on the direct causes of an event, but they might disagree on indirect causes. It is here that the writer or analyst must be prepared to support an assertion with solid evidence and respond to challenges with more evidence.

Cause/Effect and History

Determining the causes and consequences of events as they occur in the succession of time is central to intelligence writing. When you apply cause/effect reasoning to historical phenomena, you are seeking the answers to two questions: (1) Why did this occur (causes)? (2) What are its consequences (effects)? Whatever you state here is open to challenge, so be sure to support your argument with solid evidence; otherwise, your assertion will face competition from competing theories and supporting evidence. For example, Lee Harvey Oswald assassinated President John F. Kennedy on 22 November 1963. Oswald was deemed to have acted alone, but a whole causal chain with supporting evidence formed around a competing theory—that Oswald did not act alone.

Isolating Causes

Methods used in causality thinking are “isolating causes” and “key differences.” This involves using comparison/contrast in combination with cause/effect and is used to establish key differences. For example, two urban battles appear to have been quite similar, yet the outcome was different. Why? You need to isolate the projected cause for the different outcomes—in other words, the key difference:

1. Compare the battles in a general way.
2. Establish specific points for a point-by-point comparison.
3. When you discover the one point on which the two differ, stop.
4. Determine whether that point constitutes the key difference to the outcome.

Induction

In argument, induction (or inference or inferential thinking) is based on specific-to-general reasoning. You make specific observations and draw a

general conclusion. This is one of the most common means of processing information into knowledge. Recognized as a form of informal logic, induction's fallacy is a hasty generalization.

Most intelligence estimates are the product of inductive reasoning, which is generalizing based on observations. For example, an Eastern European analyst might discover that Russia becomes increasingly belligerent toward Ukraine when Vladimir Putin is challenged by internal dissent. Or an analyst might notice a sharp uptick in North Korean missile launches when there is a food crisis in the DPRK. No matter how rigorous the analysis or how strong the evidence, conclusions reached by induction cannot be guaranteed because there is no way to know what evidence remains to be found that could invalidate the working hypothesis.

It is important to distinguish between reasoning your way to a conclusion and presenting the consequence of your reasoning to the reader. Readers do not wish to reason with you. They simply want to read your conclusion, followed by your evidence backing up that conclusion. In other words, they want the "bottom line up front." See the examples in the previous specific-to-general and general-to-specific sections.

Deduction

Whereas induction is an informal version of logic, deduction represents formal logic. While deduction moves from a general statement to a particular instance, it does not exactly mirror general-to-specific reasoning. Deduction moves from a sampling of incidents, humans, or ideas to form a general truth about the sampling. That truth is then applied to one of the members of the group. Those who doubt the validity of an argument will challenge either one of the premises.

In the earlier North Korean case, the analyst identified an increase in missile launches when the country was facing acute food shortages. Later, after receiving a report that the government reduced rice rations to North Koreans, the analyst concludes another ballistic missile launch is imminent. The first premise, that food scarcity was related to ballistic missiles launches, was derived inductively—from specific observations to a conclusion. The second premise, that another ballistic launch was about to take place, was arrived at deductively—from a generalization to a specific case.

Intelligence analysts seldom have the luxury of working with closed systems with formalized and universally understood rules. Consequently, deception or misconception can lead to the wrong conclusions. For example, in the missile launch case, Kim Jong-un may order launches based solely on when new ballistic missiles come out of production. The food shortage

may be simply a coincidence. After all, North Korea frequently faces food shortages.

EVALUATING ARGUMENTS

Evaluating arguments—those we read, see, and hear and those we construct ourselves—is challenging. We might generally be wary of statistical evidence, perhaps because numbers can be distorted easily or because we do not understand complex statistical tables. At the same time, though, we might be suckers for emotionally charged arguments. Show me pictures of helpless animals being subjected to scientific experimentation, and I become an animal rights activist. Whether such reasoning is deliberate or accidental, it is manipulative. The vigilant reader who catches such arguments, though, is not likely to take the work seriously. As writers of credible reports and assessments, we must write for the vigilant reader. Watch for common fallacies of hasty generalizations, either/or hypotheses, post hoc fallacies, appeals to emotions, and statistics.

Hasty Generalizations

Hasty generalizations are conclusions based on insufficient evidence. Examples of this fallacy are widespread in the intelligence community. Analysts might decide prematurely that they have collected enough data to make an assessment, or an organization under pressure to produce an estimate will reach a generalized conclusion based on an incomplete source or even conflicting sources.

Either/Or Hypotheses

Either/or reasoning, like hasty generalizations, almost always oversimplifies the evidence. This reasoning demands that we accept one of two extreme positions. The committee that proclaims either private health companies or a federal agency should manage a national health insurance program has failed to consider other viable options. Arbitrarily reducing a set of possibilities to only two choices is a false dichotomy.

Post Hoc Fallacies

This reasoning assumes that, because event B happened after event A, event A caused event B. Superstitions are based on this fallacy. The black cat that

crossed your path did not cause your flat tire. Another example of a post hoc fallacy is a person who runs over broken glass carelessly dropped by a garbage truck, has a flat tire ten minutes later, and automatically assumes the broken glass caused the flat. The assumption might be correct, but the driver must be able to prove his conclusion in a court of law if he is to receive compensation from the waste management company.

Appeals to Emotion

Who thinks about the human lives being saved by scientists when pictures of maimed bunnies are shown graphically? Who thinks of air pollution and health problems linked to cigarettes in an advertisement picturing a robust, tanned cowboy enjoying the fresh air and glory of space in Montana? Photographs, direct quotations from famous people, music, name dropping, and loaded words all can mask central issues.

Statistics

How to Lie with Statistics and similar works expose the problems rooted in statistical evidence. Statistics can be based on unrepresentative data or on unreliable data (data that cannot be or have not been validated). What is the size of the data base? What is its composition—people or laboratory animals?

Consider the following polls surveying Americans' response to US intervention in Afghanistan: (1) a television survey that invites viewers to register their opinion on U. action in the country by calling one of two telephone numbers flashed on the bottom of the screen and (2) a telephone survey by a neutral pollster who randomly selects names from current voting lists. Which results would you rely on? Consider the factors that might affect accuracy. Does the television poll have any way to screen multiple votes from one caller? How does each poll verify voter eligibility? Were "no opinion" votes counted? Were all geographic sections of the United States represented? Were both Democrats and Republicans polled? Men and women? Eighteen-year-olds and retired? Who was most likely to call?

FINAL THOUGHTS

Chapter 4 discusses the importance of research. After identifying the source material, you use it to formulate one or more thesis statements, and you *argue* the issue with sound reasoning that is backed up by the evidence. For the sake of credibility, you consider and, if possible, dismiss counterarguments. The

next chapter presents other intelligence products from which to form a more solid basis for your own writing.

EXERCISES IN ARGUMENT

Group Exercise

As a group, select a controversial intelligence issue currently in the news. Divide the group into teams A and B. Team A formulates an assertion about the issue and presents three examples of supporting evidence. Team B formulates a counterassertion with three examples of supporting evidence. This constitutes the argument and the counterargument (or refutation). Working separately, A and B each apply thinking methods from this chapter to develop the argument and the counterargument, respectively. As each side reasons its way through the issue, the exercise takes on the form of a debate. The team that develops the best-reasoned arguments is the winner.

Individual Exercise

Select a controversial issue from the front page of the newspaper. Based on what you know about the issue, take a stand. Formulate an assertion about the issue, and list three examples of evidence that support your assertion. Decide which of the thinking methods described here you might apply to develop your argument. Apply one of your chosen thinking methods to your argument. Develop it as far as you can without researching the issue in depth.

NOTES

1. Frank Watanabe, "Fifteen Axioms for Intelligence Analysts," *Studies in Intelligence*, unclassified edition (1997), accessed February 25, 2022, <http://www.odci.gov/csi/studies/97unclass/axioms.html>.

2. Richards J. Heuer Jr., *Psychology of Intelligence Analysis* (Washington, DC: CIA Center for the Study of Intelligence, 1999), 38–42, accessed February 25, 2022, https://www.iaieia.org/docs/Psychology_of_Intelligence_Analysis.pdf.

Reading

Fundamental to Writing

BOTTOM LINE UP FRONT

Communicating intelligence successfully in writing requires understanding both the printed and electronic products of the intelligence community (IC). Using specific techniques will facilitate reading intelligence publications. Read intelligence before you try to write it.

Key Points

- Intelligence products have three general types: (1) basic, (2) current, and (3) estimative intelligence. Within each type, the reader can expect to find information that explains, predicts, or evaluates.
- Although no single “national intelligence format” exists for all products, one can usually identify a distinct beginning, middle, and end. The beginning starts with a bottom line up front. The middle is the meat of the discussion. The end is a conclusion or summary and a forecast regarding the topic for the future.
- Evaluating finished intelligence is a process of carefully reading a product and examining the author’s success in meeting the reader’s expectations.
- Intelligence professionals should recognize whether sources are generic, primary, secondary, or other. A reader should be able to distinguish between known information and analytical supposition.
- Examine annexes, appendixes, and charts for details.
- Examine graphics for content and purpose.

READ TO WRITE

It might surprise you there's a chapter in this book about reading intelligence products. It shouldn't. You must understand intelligence products before you try to write them. You surely wouldn't try to be a novelist without ever reading a novel.

Some of the exercises in this chapter ask you to assess the type or content of an intelligence publication. That product need not be classified. In fact, greater emphasis today is on open-source information—material that is readily available to the general public. There are also many unclassified or declassified national intelligence estimates that can serve as useful examples of intelligence products. Those kinds of materials are digitally accessible from such places as the Wilson Center Digital Archive, National Security Archives, and the CIA's Historical Documents Collection.

THE TYPES OF INTELLIGENCE: BASIC, CURRENT, AND ESTIMATIVE

There are more varieties of national intelligence products than pages in this book. It's impossible to cover all of them, but these are some of the more important types and formats of national intelligence. These general principles apply to almost any substantive intelligence publication.

We intentionally address only *substantive* intelligence publications. These include finished intelligence products dealing with the following areas: a military or paramilitary force; terrorism; and a foreign nation (foreign biographic, economic, scientific/technical, transportation, and telecommunication. Specifically excluded from consideration are administrative and management-type publications. Not all intelligence theorists agree that these three types are correct or even all-inclusive, but they're a start and help us sort out the types of intelligence products we're interested in reading or writing.

The "forms" of national or strategic intelligence refer to a product's configuration—an "external" characterization. We can further characterize those types by their approach to the topic:

Descriptive intelligence relies on nouns and adjectives, relating information in sensory terms.

Explanatory intelligence attempts to make something plain or understandable. This book is largely explanatory, with a healthy dose of description.

Predictive intelligence is future oriented, relying heavily on analytical judgments for an outlook or some future implications.

Evaluative intelligence attempts to determine the worth of something by appraising or studying it. A value judgment is attached to evaluative intelligence that is usually not present in explanatory intelligence.

It's helpful to look at each of the three types—basic, current, and estimative—in terms of their relative focus and the time period with which they would be associated. To guide you through this process, we use China's Chengdu J-20 stealth fighter aircraft manufactured by Chengdu Aircraft Industry Group for the People's Liberation Army Air Force (PLAAF). We also provide excerpts from declassified documents.

Basic Intelligence: The Fundamentals

Basic intelligence is the bedrock of many intelligence community publications. It is intelligence about the resources, capabilities, and vulnerabilities of foreign countries. Basic intelligence relies on descriptions, with a secondary focus on explanation and evaluation (see Fig. 3.1). Using the example of our Chengdu J-20, basic intelligence might describe its physical characteristics: a blended fuselage with low radar cross-section, single-seat glass cockpit, V-shaped tail, twin jet, and delta wing design. The J-20 might also be evaluated as superior to its predecessors, like Su-27sk Flanker-B and Su-30MK2 Flanker-G aircraft, in terms of combat radius, stealth capacity, and payload. Basic intelligence deals largely with past events, bringing them up to the present time. Images and other illustrations add value to basic intelligence.

Current Intelligence: The Here and Now

Current intelligence addresses day-to-day events, covering new developments to assess their significance and provide immediate warning of potentially dangerous situations (see Fig. 3.2). A great deal of information about terrorism is in the form of current intelligence. Terrorist organizations, training, locations, capabilities, and potential targets are all of immediate interest to those charged with national security and national defense.

By its very nature, current intelligence is dynamic and perishable. Its dissemination is instantaneous and often to multiple consumers. For that reason, it is concise and transmitted electronically, with any follow-on hard copies distributed later if needed. It can be intimidating to consider that something you just wrote can be read almost in real time by thousands of people around the world. A senior official might be in an office or conference room tracking an event on Twitter. It's tough in those situations to stay ahead of the news.

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<u>SECRET</u> NARA OUS <u>7/9/94</u>	No. <u>1</u> of <u>3</u> Copies, Series <u>#</u>
DEPARTMENT OF STATE	
POLICY PLANNING COUNCIL	
<u>TOP SECRET</u>	
	S/P-65-82-1
	May 4, 1965
To:	S/P - Mr. Rostow
From:	S/P - RAdm. Richard G. Colbert <u>RC</u> W. E. Gathright <u>WEG</u>
Subject:	The ChiCom "G" Class (Missile-Launching) Submarine
<p>The attached paper concerning the ChiCom "G" class submarine was submitted informally by the Navy at S/P's request. The paper, which takes the measure of the potential threat and notes our capabilities for counter-ing it, served as the basis of a recent briefing presented to interested officers of S/P and G/PM. The principal points, as amplified during the briefing, are summarized below, and preliminary thoughts concerning possible further action are presented.</p> <p><u>The ChiCom "G" Class Submarine</u></p> <p>Hard intelligence is quite limited, and present conclusions about the submarine are almost entirely based on its external resemblance to submarines of the comparable Soviet class. The Soviet "G" class submarine carries three 350-nautical mile ballistic missiles and has a cruising radius of 4850 nautical miles (with one day on station). Assuming that the ChiCom submarine would have similar performance characteristics, its possible radius of action would extend as far as Hawaii. On what would amount to a one-way mission in the absence of refuelling arrangements, the submarine could conceivably reach the West Coast of the U.S. However, Navy spokesmen point out that such a mission would demand a quality of seamanship the Communist Chinese have not yet demonstrated.</p> <p style="text-align: right;">The</p> <p style="text-align: right;">GROUP 1 Excluded from automatic downgrading and declassification</p>	
<u>TOP SECRET</u>	

Fig. 3.1. This internal Policy Planning Council memo examines the implications of the future commissioning of a PRC missile-launching submarine, apparently similar in design and capabilities to the Soviet Golf submarines. Those submarines could carry three ballistic missiles with 350 nautical mile range and operate out to 4,850 nautical miles. The memo explores the US ability to monitor the movements of such a submarine, the political and military impact of operational Chinese "G"-class submarines (including catalytic war), and possible US response such as blowing the submarine out of the water. Naval intelligence's apprehension about PRC submarine-launched missiles was premature because China did not have such a capability until the 1980s. Memorandum, Rear Admiral Richard G. Colbert and W. E. Gathright, Policy Planning Council, to Walt W. Rostow, Director, Policy Planning Council, "The ChiCom 'G' Class (Missile-Launching Submarine), May 4, 1965, enclosing US Naval Intelligence Paper, "Chicom 'G' Class," April 11, 1965, Top Secret. The document is #22 in National Security Archive Electronic Briefing Book No. 38, <https://nsarchive2.gwu.edu/NSAEBB/NSAEBB38/>. These materials are reproduced from www.nsarchive.org with the permission of the National Security Archive.

~~TOP SECRET EIDER~~

2. POSSIBLE EARLY LAUNCHING OF SOVIET ICBM TEST VEHICLE OR EARTH SATELLITE

[redacted] Operational activity of an as yet undetermined nature resumed on 25 October on the Tyura Tam-Kiyuchi guided-missile test range. This activity marks the first date since the 3-4 October period, when the Soviet satellite was launched, that activities have been noted involving the local Tyura Tam network, the Kiyuchi complex, [redacted]

[redacted] Evidence does not allow assessment as to whether the activity on 25 October was a valid countdown or only practice; [redacted]

[redacted] Complete data as to activity on 26 October is not available.

[redacted] The first firing at Tyura Tam on 21 August was preceded by practice [redacted] over an extended period of time. [redacted]

[redacted] Assuming that the reported activity is valid, however, [redacted] from the pattern of the current operation, that the activity on 25 October probably was practice and could indicate preparation for the early launching of either an ICBM test vehicle or an earth satellite.

27 Oct 57

Current Intelligence Bulletin

Page 5

~~TOP SECRET~~ [redacted]

Fig. 3.2. 1957 Still-classified COMINT indicated that beginning on October 25 the Tyuratam and Kiyuchi complexes had resumed activities like those that preceded the first ICBM test flight on August 21 and the Sputnik 1 launch on October 4. Analysts concluded that from the pattern monitored they were probably a practice for an upcoming ICBM test flight or satellite launch. Central Intelligence Agency, Office of Current Intelligence, Current Intelligence Bulletin, (Excerpt), TOP SECRET/EIDER, October 27, 1957. Published in the National Security Archives, "Starting to Crack a Hard Target: US Intelligence Efforts against the Soviet Missile Program through 1957," edited by James E. David, Briefing Book #695. These materials are reproduced from www.nsarchive.org with the permission of the National Security Archive.

The primary responsibility of current intelligence must be to explain events as they unfold, interpreting their meaning for an impatient audience. Secondly, current intelligence tries to describe events and to predict their possible outcomes, usually by means of an analyst's comment. Suppose that a Defense Intelligence Agency analyst notes a squadron of Chengdu J-20 fighters newly deployed to Longtian Airbase, allowing Chinese aircraft to reach Taipei within seven minutes. That fact might have immediate impact on a situation of interest to a large segment of the intelligence community watching events in the South China Sea. It would be reported electronically, with an analyst's comment about the significance of the event in terms of forecasting future J-20 strategic or tactical deployments.

Estimative Intelligence: Looking Ahead

Estimative intelligence is forward looking. It relies on the best available current and basic intelligence on foreign forces and nations to forecast a condition that might be expected to exist months or even years in the future. Because it deals with events or subjects that have not yet happened, its concentration must necessarily be predictive. In forecasting future occurrences, estimators try also to explain what the events will mean and to assess their significance.

The analyst trying to estimate the importance of the Chengdu J-20 might start with a forecast of J-20 production over the next five or ten years. From that baseline, guided by known production rates and the strategic goals of Beijing, the analyst might predict future deployment patterns for the aircraft. Finally, the analyst would try to assess the implications of those deployments in terms of US interests. These estimates are crucial because they are often used by planners, policy makers, force developers, and decision makers to design and modernize future forces and equipment or to project US foreign policy in the future.

Estimative intelligence is the bread and butter of the intelligence community. This is not to say that all those analysts producing basic and current intelligence are second-class citizens—far from it. Analysts who work with estimative intelligence *rely* on those others to form the basis of their estimates. But estimators must go one step further, predicting something that has not yet happened and might never happen.

Don't be misled into believing that you will be working *only* in basic or current intelligence. Often you will be called on to perform more than one type. You might have written a concise description of an event, bringing in all available evidence, only to have your supervisor ask, "What does that *mean*

for us?” At that point, you must cross the line into estimative intelligence to answer the question.

Learning to write estimative intelligence means learning to think and write using probabilities and confidence levels. Unfortunately, human beings are not very good at probabilities. If you doubt that statement, then watch television pundits wildly prognosticating about politics, economics, or whatever. They get paid for their opinions, and they’re spectacularly bad at predicting the future.

The inherent terribleness of “expert” prediction is substantiated by science. Between 1984 and 2004, Phil Tetlock, a psychology professor and researcher who specializes in the science of prediction and political judgment, asked a group of academics, pundits, and other experts to makeover 80,000 predictions on the economy, wars, elections, and other issues in the news. The results for the Good Judgment Project (GJP) were not encouraging, finding the forecasting ability of the experts was about the same as the average Joe using guesswork. Moreover, the study found experts who were the most confident in their ability to predict the future were actually terrible. “They sought to squeeze complex problems into the preferred cause-effect templates and treated what did not fit as irrelevant distractions,” Tetlock and Garner found. “Allergic to wishy-washy answers, they kept pushing their analyses to the limit (and then some), using terms like ‘furthermore’ and ‘moreover’ while piling up reasons why they were right and others wrong. As a result, they were unusually confident and likelier to declare things ‘impossible’ or ‘certain.’”¹

Learning to think in probabilities wasn’t easy for the US intelligence services either. In March 1951, the IC produced a national intelligence estimate titled “Probability of an Invasion of Yugoslavia in 1951” (NIE 29-51). The key judgment of NIE 29-51 found, “Although it is impossible to determine which course the Kremlin is likely to adopt, we believe that the extent of Satellite military and propaganda preparations indicates that an attack on Yugoslavia in 1951 should be considered a serious possibility.”²

A few days after NIE 29-51 was reviewed by senior policy makers, a State Department official asked Sherman Kent, chairman of the Office of National Estimates, what his department meant by “serious possibility.” Kent said he pegged the chances at 65 percent in favor of an attack by the Soviets. The State Department official was surprised, saying he and his colleagues assumed it was far lower.

Troubled by the conversation, Kent asked his colleagues what odds they had in mind when they helped produce the NIE. One colleague said he believed “serious possibility” meant 20 percent. Another said he thought

TOP SECRET

February 9, 1961

MEMORANDUM OF MEETING WITH THE PRESIDENT
ON CUBA - February 8, 1961

Present: Messrs. Rusk, Berle, Mann, Bohlen, McNamara, Nitze,
Barnes, W. P. Bundy, Haydn Williams, Dulles, Bissell,
McG. Bundy

The meeting opened with an account by Mr. Bissell of the current plan for launching the troops from Guatemala. He reported that the JCS, after careful study, believed that this plan had a fair chance of success -- "success" meaning ability to survive, hold ground, and attract growing support from Cubans. At the worst, the invaders should be able to fight their way to the Escambray and go into guerrilla action. If the troops are to land in top form, the operation should not be delayed, at the longest, beyond March 31, and the decision to land for it must be made before D minus 21.

Secretary Rusk stated that without careful -- and successful -- diplomatic preparation such an operation could have grave effects upon the U. S. position in Latin America and at the U. N. Mr. Berle said that it would be impossible, as things stand now, to avoid being cast in the role of aggressor. Both Mr. Rusk and Mr. Berle believed that no present decision on the proposed invasion was necessary, but both made clear their conviction that U. S. policy should not be driven to drastic and irrevocable choice by the urgencies, however real, of a single battalion of men.

The President pressed for alternatives to a full-fledged "invasion," supported by U. S. planes, ships and supplies. While CIA doubted that other really satisfactory uses of the troops in Guatemala could be found, it was agreed that the matter should be carefully studied. Could not such a force be landed gradually and quietly and make its first major military efforts from the mountains -- then taking shape as a Cuban force within Cuba, not as an invasion force sent by the Yankees?

TOP SECRET



Fig. 3.3. McGeorge Bundy, Memorandum of Meeting with President Kennedy, White House, Washington, February 8, 1961, 2/8/61. Papers of John F. Kennedy. Presidential Papers. President's Office Files. Countries. Cuba: Security, 1961. JFKPOF-115-003. John F. Kennedy Presidential Library and Museum, https://www.jfklibrary.org/asset-viewer/archives/JFKPOF/115/JFKPOF-115-003?image_identifier=JFKPOF-115-003-p0005.

it was around 80 percent. The remainder were scattered between the two extremes.

For Kent, the revelation threw the entire NIE process into question. “Were the NIEs dotted with ‘serious possibilities’ and other expressions that meant very different things to both producers and readers?” he later wrote. “What were we really trying to say when we wrote a sentence such as this?”

The situation had not improved a decade later, when President John Kennedy asked for an assessment of the likelihood of success for the CIA’s plan to depose Fidel Castro by landing a group of Cuban expats at the Bay of Pigs. The Joint Chiefs of Staff informed Kennedy the plan had a “fair chance” of success, which he interpreted as quite high. But the man who authored the assessment later said he only put the odds at 1 in 3³ (see Fig. 3.3).

The intelligence community’s solution for expressing and explaining the uncertainty of their analytic judgments was the creation of standardized terminology on probabilities and confidence levels. It’s easy to confuse the two. “[P]robability reflects an analyst’s estimate of the chances that a statement is true, while confidence reflects the degree to which an analyst believes that he or she possesses a sound basis for assessing uncertainty,” scholars Jeffrey A. Friedman and Richard Zeckhauser write. “In short, likelihood describes the probability that analysts assign to some judgment. Confidence is then a way of qualifying that statement by describing the ‘scope, quality, and sourcing’ that supports it.”⁴ Figure 3.4 indicates the ranges of *probability* used by the IC.

The IC also standardized the terminology on *confidence* levels made in estimative statements:

High Confidence: Generally indicates judgments based on high-quality information and/or the nature of the issue makes it possible to render a solid judgment. A high-confidence judgment is not a fact or a certainty, however, and still carries a risk of being wrong.

Moderate Confidence: Generally means credibly sourced and plausible information but not of sufficient quality or corroboration to warrant a higher level of confidence.

Low Confidence: Generally means questionable or implausible information was used, the information is too fragmented or poorly corroborated to make solid analytic inferences, or significant concerns or problems with sources existed.

Standardization of language doesn’t mean different analysts always agree on probabilities and confidence levels. When the IC looked at the possible origins of COVID-19, three teams coalesced around two likely scenarios but

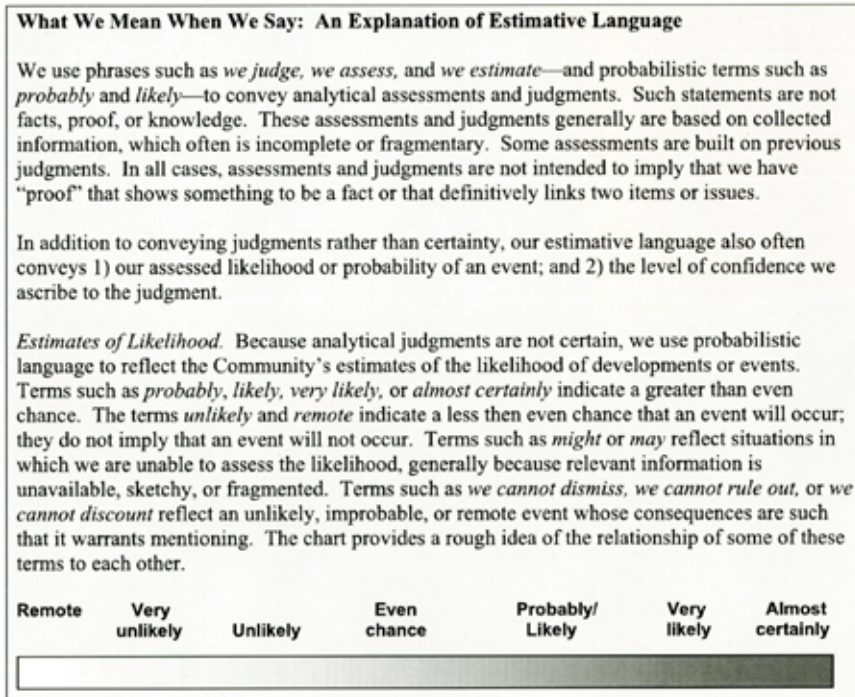


Fig. 3.4. Estimative Language used by the IC. National Intelligence Council, Global Water Security. Intelligence Community Assessment ICA 2012-08. Washington, D.C.: Office of the Director of National Intelligence, 2012.

still lacked strong confidence in their conclusions. “[E]ither it emerged naturally from human contact with infected animals or it was a laboratory accident,” the Office of the Director of National Intelligence said in a statement. “While two elements of the IC lean toward the former scenario and one leans more toward the latter—each with low or moderate confidence—the majority of elements within the IC do not believe there is sufficient information to assess one to be more likely than the other.”⁵ Unfamiliar with the language of confidence used by the IC, posters on social media declared the IC had found the source of the virus, but “low or moderate confidence” means nothing of the sort. That’s why the Biden administration tasked the intelligence community with collecting and analyzing additional information.

Remember: The language of probability and confidence isn’t meant to create consensus on analytic judgments—it’s meant to create consistency in language so there are no more “serious possibilities” or “fair chances.” If you’re writing estimate intelligence, learning to think and write in probabilities and confidence levels is essential.

EXAMINING CONTENT

We've explained reading an intelligence publication by looking at the *external* configuration in terms of its *type*. Now let's see what we can determine about a document by examining its *content*. It would be nice if there were one specific format for all strategic intelligence products, but there isn't. Furthermore, such a thing will never exist because the customer largely dictates the ultimate shape of a product and because diverse consumers will never agree on a single format, even with the advent of the singular director of national intelligence. There is, though, a readily discernible pattern to almost all substantive intelligence products: a beginning, a middle, and an end. The next time you read one, compare it to this format. You'll probably find a distinct beginning, middle, and end.

The Beginning: Bottom Line Up Front

The beginning of an intelligence product is not just a starting place. Most often, it is a *summary* of the key points made in that document. It might be called "Key Judgments" (especially in such analytical products as a national intelligence estimate), or it might be termed "Summary," "Executive Summary," or "Introduction." Whatever its title, that section's purpose is to summarize for the executive or casual reader the major judgments contained in its pages. Remember: You're not reading a mystery novel with the big reveal at the end—intelligence leads with its strongest punch.

Here's the key judgment section from a 2006 FBI intelligence assessment titled "White Supremacist Infiltration of Law Enforcement":

- Although white supremacist groups have historically engaged in strategic efforts to infiltrate and recruit from law enforcement communities, current reporting on attempts reflects self-initiated efforts by individuals, particularly among those already within law enforcement ranks, to volunteer their professional resources to white supremacist causes with which they sympathize.
- The primary threat from infiltration or recruitment arises from the areas of intelligence collection and exploitation, which can lead to investigative breaches and can jeopardize the safety of law enforcement sources and personnel.
- White supremacist presence among law enforcement personnel is a concern due to the access they may possess to restricted areas vulnerable to sabotage and to elected officials or protected persons, whom they could see as potential targets for violence. In addition, white supremacist infiltration of law enforcement can result in other abuses of authority and passive tolerance of racism within the communities served.
- The intelligence acquired through the successful infiltration of law enforcement by one white supremacist group can benefit other groups due to the multiple allegiances white supremacists typically hold.⁶

The key judgments are bullet points of the conclusions, providing the reader the final analysis in descending order of importance. The author didn't "save" anything to surprise the readers at the end.

Some intelligence products begin the key judgments with a "Bottom Line Up Front" (BLUF), like this 2012 intelligence community assessment on global water security:

Our Bottom Line: During the next 10 years, many countries important to the United States will experience water problems—shortages, poor water quality, or floods—that will risk instability and state failure, increase regional tensions, and distract them from working with the United States on important US policy objectives. Between now and 2040, fresh water availability will not keep up with demand absent more effective management of water resources. Water problems will hinder the ability of key countries to produce food and generate energy, posing a risk to global food markets and hobbling economic growth. As a result of demographic and economic development pressures, North Africa, the Middle East, and South Asia will face major challenges coping with water problems.⁷

Remember that policy makers are "drinking from a firehose," meaning they are inundated with information from every direction. As an intelligence writer, including the BLUF at the beginning of the key judgments helps improve the reader's speed, comprehension, concentration, and retention of the subsequent material.

There are two other important points about the key judgments: Although it is up front in the publication, it is *written last*, and it *stands alone*. The author should always write the main body first, then reread it and extract the main points afterward. Often, readers will only have time to read one to two pages of intelligence. That means the key judgments must stand alone to represent all the major points made in the product.

Often you will find a "Preface," "Scope Note," or some other introductory material preceding the summary portion. In the scope note of an NIE, the national intelligence officers provide the framework of the paper and the key questions answered throughout the product. The following is the scope for the FBI's intelligence assessment on White supremacist infiltration of law enforcement:

Scope Note

This intelligence assessment provides an overview of White supremacist infiltration of law enforcement and derives its information from FBI investigations and open sources available as of August 2006. This assessment addresses the terrorism (TERR) topic of the NIPF (National Intelligence Priorities Framework) and responds to Intelligence Requirement FBI DT-IA.3.

The April 2006 “Trends in Global Terrorism: Implications for the United States” is a more detailed version of a scope note, explaining both the purpose and limits of the intelligence estimate:

National Intelligence Estimate (NIE) analyzes the nature of the threat that terrorist groups across the world will pose to US lives or property worldwide (herein referred to as US interests), including in the Homeland, during the next five years. This Estimate does not analyze the many ways in which terrorist groups might directly or indirectly affect broader US interests, including regional stability, access to energy resources, or the longevity of friendly regimes. Based upon all-source reporting over the last several years, it provides a broad, strategic framework for understanding the trends that will define the primary international terrorist threats to the United States. It focuses primarily on radical Islamic groups because the Intelligence Community judges that the preponderance of the terrorist threat comes from radical Islamic groups. A separate National Intelligence Estimate is under development that will assess more specifically the terrorist threat to the US Homeland over the next three years. The information cut-off date for this NIE is 28 February 2006.⁸

These sections are not usually substantive in nature; the scope serves only to provide additional administrative information to the reader concerning the organization of the product, the reason it is being produced, or the identification of the author(s) or others who have helped with the publication.

The Middle: Details, Details

The middle section of the intelligence paper is the results of the research the analyst performed to arrive at the key judgments. This is where the author shows the reader the quality and credibility of underlying sources, data, and methodologies; explains uncertainties associated with major analytic judgments; and distinguishes between underlying intelligence information and assumptions and judgments. Lengths vary, of course, but devoting 80 percent to 90 percent of the document’s total length to the middle section is typical. Most publications try to avoid lengthy, complicated charts, figures, or tables in the text. Instead, the producer confines those data to an annex or appendix. These are discussed later.

The End: Wrapping It Up

After wading through the body of the product and absorbing all the information the author presented, you come to a concluding section. That part is before any annexes or appendixes. Most often, this section contains a brief

summary or conclusions drawn from the research, and then it projects the subject into the near-term or long-term future. It's like a "mini-estimate" of that publication's main theme. Like the other parts of a document, you'll find no common title for this section. Headings range from "Outlook" or "Conclusion(s)" to "Prospects" or "Summary." Some analytical publications call this section "Implications for the United States."

The final words of the "Intelligence Community Assessment on Global Water Security" are intended to drive home the main points in the reader's mind:

Implications for the United States

Many states turn to the developed world to find alternative ways to meet their infrastructure needs. Water planners in developing countries regularly lack adequate data (hydrological models and actual water levels) for effective policymaking. For example, knowledge of water balances in specific tributaries, replenishment rates for shared aquifers, or water demands in particular communities may be either unavailable or inaccessible. The developing world will probably expect the United States, as a leader in technology, to continue development of hydrological models and remote environmental monitoring, as well as to disseminate this data and facilitate the integration of other terrestrial resource management data on a global scale. US technological capability in water treatment and purification and the efficient use of water in agriculture will also be sought after.

- Although the United States is recognized as a leader in water technology, other countries have identified research in water technology as a national priority and will challenge US leadership over time.
- The United States probably will be expected to continue the development and promotion of water management and agricultural technology and expertise, fostering management capacity and appropriately sharing technology.
- Irrespective of other policies toward the United States, both developed and developing states will look for US support of international agreements and institutions and national and subnational partners, seeking to improve water management. Active engagement by the United States to resolve water challenges will improve US influence and may forestall other actors achieving the same influence at US expense.

Let's return to the FBI report on White supremacy infiltrating law enforcement for another example:

Outlook

Having personnel within law enforcement agencies has historically been and will continue to be a desired asset for white supremacist groups seeking to

anticipate law enforcement interests and actions against them. The potential for strategic attempts by white supremacist groups to infiltrate law enforcement will likely increase should the movement as a whole resolve some of its factionalism. This could occur either by existing groups resolving their leadership disputes and stabilizing their membership bases or by the emergence of new leaders or groups that could bring cohesion to the movement.

Factors that might generate sympathies among existing law enforcement personnel and cause them to volunteer their support to white supremacist causes could include hostility toward developments in US domestic policies (such as the current immigration debate) and foreign policies (such as perceived US favoritism toward Israel) that conflict with white supremacist ideologies.

While the concluding section should not merely rehash the summary or key judgments, it should at least reinforce the main points made in the document.

After the End: Add-Ons Are Meant to Be Read

Many intelligence writers reserve annexes or appendixes for complex figures, tables, charts, or another backup analytical material for inclusion at the end of the document. When these add-ons are used, they are clearly referenced in the main body of the publication. They are meant to be read as an important support for the information in the document, so read them.

EVALUATING FINISHED INTELLIGENCE

Intelligence professionals are often asked to read and critically evaluate finished intelligence products. This section assists you in looking at an intelligence document in the future, especially if your boss or professor drops one on your desk and says, “Read this, and tell me about it!” For purposes of this discussion, we assume that the product is on paper, although the same principles apply to electronic products.

Getting Started

Treat the product at first like you would a magazine. Study the cover and firmly implant in your mind the document’s title. Turn to the contents, if any, and scan the publication’s general layout. Then thumb through the entire document, cover to cover, to get a feel for its format and graphics. If something catches your eye, pause—but not for long. Make a note regarding items that tended to interest you. Were they maps? Images? Charts? Noting

these attention grabbers might help you in your own future writing. Before you begin reading the publication, note the number of pages in each major subdivision: the front section, the main body, the conclusion, and annexes or appendixes. Then sit back, relax, and read each section thoroughly.

Front Section: The Bottom Line and More

Earlier we discussed a “generic format” for an intelligence document and noted that most documents have a distinct beginning, middle, and end. The front section of a publication introduces you to the subject, tells you a little about its producers, and contains some portion that stands alone as a summary of the entire document for its readers. In general, this section should not exceed about 10 percent of the basic publication’s length, excluding annexes or appendixes. You’ll often find a title page that repeats the document’s title and some security or other administrative data. Often, the author’s name and organization will be shown.

Because of its brevity and the fact that this portion is for executive readers and browsers, the front section must get directly to the point. Somewhere in these first few pages there should be—stated or implied—a clear indication of the *purpose* of the publication. Why was it written? Was there a requirement from “on high”? That usually is purpose enough for most of us to write. But often there will be some implied purpose that relates the document to US national security interests.

It might be readily discernible in a publication about a country in the Middle East or North Korea. Often, however, the reader must assume that there is some important reason for this product’s existence. In some documents, a purpose statement is the lead sentence in the preface. For example, in the IC assessment on water security, the first sentence provides the reader with the question the estimate answers:

This report—requested by the Department of State—is designed to answer the question: How will water problems (shortages, poor water quality, or floods) impact US national security interests over the next 30 years.

If the publication has a contents page, note its placement in the front section. Is it before or after the key judgments or executive summary? There is no hard and fast rule for its placement, but it is worthwhile to note the difference it makes when it is placed before the summary: The reader must thumb through another page or so—the contents—to reach the summary. That might ultimately prove to be an advantage if busy readers stumble onto something that attracts their interest. Maybe they’ll read more. But for executives with limited time, it will more likely distract.

Main Body: The Heart of It All

Remember that the middle, like the front section, might have different names. The main body is the meat of the product—the body of the author’s analytical work. Look for a number of things in this part of the document, including the author’s use of sources, judgments and any supporting evidence for those judgments, and assumptions that the author might have made.

Nail Down the Source

Intelligence professionals are constantly asked for evidence to support their judgment calls. That evidence might be readily available from specific sources, or analysts might have to rely on citing generic sources, depending on the classification of the product. *Generic* sources include such statements as “satellite imagery,” “signals intelligence,” a “reliable source,” or “media reports.” Note that we refer here to a wide-ranging type of source without being too specific about where the information came from. Generic sources enable authors to hold down the classification of their documents by preventing the compromise of sensitive intelligence sources or methods. But as you can see by those generic sources cited here, they don’t tell the reader much.

There are degrees of specificity, even in specific sources. You should be aware of primary, secondary, tertiary, and quaternary sources. The *primary* source is the raw, basic data or information. For example, if a defense attaché sees the Chengdu J-20 aircraft doesn’t have a cannon, then that firsthand look is a primary source of information. One step removed from the primary source is the *secondary* source. When the attaché writes his observations in an intelligence information report (IIR) to you, that report becomes your secondary source (see Figs. 3.5–3.6). It is not the basic observation itself, but it is the closest thing you have to that source.

If you then write a study titled “New J-20 Incapable of Dogfight” based on the attaché’s report, then that study would be a *tertiary* source. It is now a third step removed from the original attaché report and probably contains additional information that you have accumulated from other sources. Assume that your study generated considerable interest in the intelligence community and formed the basis for a defense intelligence estimate (DIE) called “The Future of Chengdu J-20.” That estimate, one more step removed from the original (primary) source, is a *quaternary* (fourth-level) source.

Read the following excerpt from a fictitious newspaper article in the *Springfield Gazette*, written in a journalistic style similar to much intelligence writing. As you read, ask yourself about the sources: Where did this information come from? What was the primary source for that information?

UNCLASSIFIED

DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE INTELLIGENCE INFORMATION REPORT		
<p>NOTE: This document contains information affecting the national defense of the United States within the meaning of the espionage laws, Title 18, U.S.C., Sec. 793 and 794. The transmission or the revelation of its contents in any manner to an unauthorized person is prohibited by law.</p>		<p>This report contains unprocessed information. Plans and/or policies should not be evolved or modified solely on the basis of this report.</p>
SECRET-NOFORN		
1. COUNTRY: Argentina	2. REPORT NUMBER: 6 804 0334 76	
3. SUBJECT (U) Special Operations Forces (U)	4. DATE OF REPORT: 1976, OCT 1	
5. NO. PAGES: 2	6. NO. OF PAGES: 2	
7. NO. WORDS: N/A	8. REFERENCES: PG1200 PG1100 ICR A-TAC-44396 PG2200 PG1300 PG2200 PG2340	
9. DATE OF INFORMATION: 1976, SEP 28	10. ORIGINATOR: USDAO BUENOS AIRES	
11. PLACE AND DATE OF ACQ: 1976, SEP 28, Buenos Aires	12. PREPARED BY: LTC PAUL A. COOCHLIN, USA, AUSA	
13. EVALUATION: SOURCE A INFORMATION 1	14. APPROVED BY: COL PAUL A. COOCHLIN, USA, AUSA, DATT	
<p>15. SUMMARY: (Classification: SECRET) This IR provides information on joint counterinsurgency operations by several countries in South America. Information was provided by US Embassy Legal Attache who has excellent contacts within the State Secretariat for Information and Federal Police Force.</p> <p>This IR partially fulfills requirement of ICR A-TAC-44396.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">REC'D DS-4B 13 OCT 76</p> <p style="text-align: center;">WARNING NOTICE SENSITIVE INTELLIGENCE SOURCES AND METHODS INVOLVED</p> <p>1. (U) SECRET-NOFORN "Operation Condor" is the code name given for intelligence collection on "leftists," Communists and Marxists in the Southern Cone Area. It was recently established between cooperating intelligence services in South America in order to eliminate Marxist terrorist activities in member countries with Chile reportedly being the center of operations. Other participating members include: Argentina, Paraguay, Uruguay and Bolivia. In addition, Brazil has apparently tentatively agreed to provide intelligence input for Operation Condor. Members showing the most enthusiasm to date have been Argentina, Uruguay and Chile. These three countries have engaged in joint operations, primarily in Argentina, against terrorist targets. During the week of 20 September 1976, the Director of the Argentine Army Intelligence Service traveled to Santiago to consult with</p>		
16. DISTRIBUTION OF INFORMATION: USDAO BUENOS AIRES, Langley AFB, Va. 23665 1st Special Operations Wing Eglin AFB Ann Field, FL 31544 USDAO SANTIAGO USDAO BOGOTA USDAO MONTEVIDEO USDAO LIMA USDAO BRAZILIA	17. CLASSIFICATION BY DATE: EXEMPT FROM GENERAL DECLASSIFICATION SCHEDULE OF EXECUTIVE ORDER 11652 EXEMPTION CATEGORY TWO DECLASSIFY ON 31 DEC 2006	18. ATTENTION DATA: Declassified by DIA in accordance with EO 12958
SECRET-NOFORN		

Figs. 3.5-3.6. This Defense Intelligence Agency (DIA) Intelligence Information Report (IIR) provides information on a joint counterinsurgency operation by Southern Cone countries in what was known as Operation Condor. It reads, "Operation Condor is the code name given for intelligence collection on leftists, communists and Marxists in the Southern Cone Area." The member-states of Condor up to that date were Argentina, Bolivia, Chile, Paraguay, and Uruguay. "During the period 24-27 September 1976," according to the document, "members of the Argentine State Secretariat for Information (SIDE), operating with officers of the Uruguayan Military Intelligence Service, carried out operations against the Uruguayan terrorist organization, the OPR-33 in Buenos Aires. As a result of this joint operation, SIDE officials claimed that the entire OPR-33 infrastructure in Argentina has been eliminated . . ." The introduction to the IIR states: "Information was provided by US Embassy Legal Attaché who has excellent contacts

UNCLASSIFIED

DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE INTELLIGENCE INFORMATION REPORT

CONTINUATION SHEET	SECRET/NOFORN SECRET-NOFORN (Classification and Control Markings)	REPORT NO. 6 804 0334 76 PAGE 2 OF 2 PAGES SUBJECT: URUGUAYAN ARMS
<p>his Chilean counterparts on Operation Condor (This travel is similar to trip reported in IA 6 804 0309 76.)</p> <p>2. (S/NOFORN) During the period 24-27 September 1976, members of the Argentine State Secretariat for Information (SIRI), operating with officers of the Uruguayan Military Intelligence Service carried out operations against the Uruguayan Terrorist organization, the OPR-33 in Buenos Aires. As a result of this joint operation, SIDE officials claimed that the entire OPR-33 infrastructure in Argentina has been eliminated. A large volume of US currency was seized during the combined operation.</p> <p>3. (S/NOFORN) A third and reportedly very secret phase of "Operation Condor" involves the formation of special teams from member countries who are to carry out operations to include assassinations against terrorist or supporters of terrorist organizations. For example, should a terrorist or a supporter of a terrorist organization from a member country be identified, a special team would be dispatched to locate and surveil the target. When the location and surveillance operation has terminated, a second team would be dispatched to carry out an operation against the target. Special teams would be issued false documentation from member countries, could be composed either of individuals from one member nation or of persons from various member nations. Source stated that team members would not be commissioned or non-commissioned officers of the armed forces, but rather "special agents." Two European countries, specifically mentioned for possible operations under the third phase were France and Portugal.</p> <p>4. (S/NOFORN) A special team has apparently been organized in Argentina for use in "Operation Condor." They are members of the Argentine Army Intelligence Service and the State Secretariat for Information. They are reportedly structured much like a US Special Forces Team with a medic (doctor), demolition expert, etc. They are apparently being prepared for action in phase three.</p> <p>COMMENT: (S/NOFORN) More and more is being heard about "Operation Condor" in the southern cone. Military officers who, heretofore, had been mum on the subject have begun to talk openly about it. A favorite remark is that, "one of their colleagues is out of country because he is flying like a condor."</p>		

within the State Secretariat for Information and Federal Police Force." The document has been presented at trials in Argentina and constitutes evidence of the responsibility of government agencies in the disappearance of Uruguayans Jorge Zaffaroni, Maria Emilia Islas de Zaffaroni, and their daughter Mariana on September 27, 1976. The IIR was part of the Department of Defense declassification of records on Chile in 1999. Special Operations Forces, October 1, 1976 [Secret/NoForn Intelligence Information Report]. DOD Chile Declassification Project Tranche I (1973-1978). Defense Intelligence Agency, Special Operations Forces Secret/NoForn Intelligence Information Report, Oct. 1, 1976], DOD Chile Declassification Project Tranche I (1973-1978). These materials are reproduced from www.nsarchive.org with the permission of the National Security Archive.

Panaraguan helicopters flew scores of sorties into eastern Nicador last week in violation of a United Nations ban, the Security Council was told today [February 27, 2014]. At least 42 helicopters flying too low for radar detection were spotted by United Nations observers on the ground on Tuesday through Friday, north of the rebel stronghold of Agua Pura, according to a representative of the United Nations Secretary General. The representative, Undersecretary General Ricky Wright, said that one large contingent flew in a military formation.

The *primary* source for that statement is impossible to determine from the information given in the article. The “United Nations observers” are the ones who reportedly saw the helicopters. But how many layers of reporting intervened before you read about it? At a minimum, you know that three people participated in the report: *observers* means at least two, and the undersecretary general reported to the Security Council. You can be reasonably certain that there were more than two observers because the sightings occurred over a four-day period (Tuesday through Friday). Those observers probably reported the incidents through their chain of command, each report adding a layer of possible interpretation and compounding the chance for error. The source *you* are reading (*Springfield Gazette*) is at least a third-level (tertiary) source but is probably even more removed. The point here is that you should make every effort to determine how far removed your source is from a primary observation or report.

Now look at the document you’ve been reading, and see if you can find any references to sources, generic or otherwise. You’ll see that many publications, especially estimates, make few references to sources. When you read a paragraph that starts out by citing a specific source—or even a generic source—you might find yourself giving a little more credibility to that information than to another paragraph that appears to be nothing but the author’s opinion. For instance, compare these two sentences: (1) A team of US soldiers at a border post in northern Panaragua spotted a convoy of about 20 Panaraguan military trucks moving north toward the Nicadorean border. (2) A convoy of trucks was reported in northern Panaragua. Which of the two reports sounds more credible? Why?

Earning Their Keep: Analysts and Their Judgments

Analysts are paid to render judgments in their areas of expertise, so do we expect them to avoid any opinion or judgment when they put something in writing? Absolutely not. If we waited until something was a known fact before we published anything at all, then very few intelligence products would be circulating today. You have to embrace ambiguity.

We expect authors to provide us the benefit of their insight into the subject of their expertise. The main body of the product is where we expect them to do just that. We should ask those authors to clearly distinguish between the known and the unknown. Information that has been provided by several reliable sources should be cited as such; opinions, judgments, and assumptions should be easy for the reader to spot.

General Colin Powell used the KISS method for his analysts: Keep It Simple, Stupid. “Look, I have got a rule,” he told his staff during the First Gulf War. “As an intelligence officer, your responsibility is to tell me what you know. Tell me what you don’t know. Then you’re allowed to tell me what you think. But you always keep those three separated.”⁹

How can the reader differentiate between information that is known and that which is the analyst’s judgment? There’s no magic formula for this distinction, but some key words and phrases can help you. Note the following examples from unclassified papers:

“Confidence in performance estimates is high based on Telint and limited amounts of Imint, Elint, and Humint.” This writer convinced me that he had some pretty good sources—at least four “-ints”—to corroborate his estimates. Note that these are *generic* sources, not specific ones.

“The Third Five-Year Development Plan sets out a number of broad policies to be pursued.” In this case, the author cited a *specific* source for the information that followed.

These excerpts show you how to recognize primary and generic sources in intelligence writing. They don’t, however, tell you how you can know when the authors are relying on their own judgment, analysis, or opinion. That’s often easy for the reader to determine, especially when the author uses such phrases as “we believe,” “we estimate that,” or “in our judgment.” Otherwise, unless the author cites a specific source, the reader has no way of distinguishing fact from supposition.

Conclusion: Ending It Right

As you near the end of the main body, you come to the section of the document where the author tries to wrap up the research and tell the reader what it means in terms of a few important conclusions or implications for the future. This last part of the document (before the annexes or appendixes) might be called any of the names listed earlier, including “Outlook” or “Conclusion.” Some documents might have both a conclusion *and* an outlook section or

paragraph. The important point here is not that you must remember what these sections are called. Instead, concentrate on the content.

Note that the conclusions segment has an intended purpose. If used correctly by the author, it will summarize, conclude, wrap up loose ends, and perhaps state any gaps remaining in existing data. There will probably be a paragraph or a portion of the conclusion termed “Implications for the Future,” “Implications for the United States,” or “Outlook.” You’ll frequently encounter those terms in estimative products.

The FBI “White Supremacist Infiltration of Law Enforcement” assessment reflects on the subject’s future significance:

Outlook

Having personnel within law enforcement agencies has historically been and will continue to be a desired asset for white supremacist groups seeking to anticipate law enforcement interests and actions against them. The potential for strategic attempts by white supremacist groups to infiltrate law enforcement will likely increase should the movement as a whole resolve some of its factionalism. This could occur either by existing groups resolving their leadership disputes and stabilizing their membership bases or by the emergence of new leaders or groups that could bring cohesion to the movement.

Factors that might generate sympathies among existing law enforcement personnel and cause them to volunteer their support to white supremacist causes could include hostility toward developments in US domestic policies (such as the current immigration debate) and foreign policies (such as perceived US favoritism toward Israel) that conflict with white supremacist ideologies.

As an attentive reader, you should determine whether the conclusions presented at the end are consistent with the summary, key judgments, and main body of the publication. Furthermore, you will draw conclusions of your own based on the evidence in the document. These are based either on how the evidence is presented or on its repetition. You expect those conclusions to appear at the end, where the analyst stresses final points. If your own conclusions do not appear there, then your opinion of the document might diminish.

Annexes and Appendixes: The Place for Details

Readers of intelligence documents are expected to pay attention to all annexes and appendixes. These portions of any document are supportive evidence for the information and conclusions within the publication. Whether this support takes the form of charts, graphs, or complex analytical

methodologies, the reader can expect them to conform to the formats stipulated by the Defense Intelligence Agency, the Central Intelligence Agency, and others in the intelligence community. Furthermore, while reading, it is appropriate for a reader to check cited portions against the documentation provided at the end. Again, these attachments are there for the reader's use. Read and study them.

Graphics: Attention Grabbers

Readers should examine graphics that occur in publications to see why they find them interesting—or not. Most readers find themselves drawn to clean, uncluttered presentations. These are intended to grab attention; the internal contents are intended to hold it. Graphics in intelligence publications are meant to be complementary to or illustrative of the text. Readers should not consider them disposable or superfluous. Like the annexes and appendixes, they are meant to be studied, so study them.

As with graphics, annexes, and appendixes, readers are expected to study and use hyperlinks, text boxes, maps, and visuals, such as maps and satellite images. They are provided as illustrative and connective support for the text. Make good use of them.

FINAL THOUGHTS

This portion of the book provides a guided tour of an intelligence product. There is no single format common to all strategic intelligence, but there is a definite commonality of pattern among the various substantive intelligence publications: They all have a distinct beginning, middle, and end. The beginning of an intelligence product is *not* merely an introduction. It is a succinct summary of the entire product, designed to stand alone. The middle part is a lengthier discussion of the analyst's work. Finally, the end wraps up, summarizes, and draws conclusions about the research in the basic document, often forecasting or stating implications for the future.

Be circumspect when you read an intelligence document. As the intended reader, you should critically evaluate its contents with these tenets in mind and relate them to your own writing. Doing so should improve your writing. Having accomplished that task, you should be ready to get down to business and begin your research. The next chapter covers some basics of research.

EXERCISES IN READING

Group Exercise

When writing intelligence estimates, *likelihood* describes the probability that analysts assign to some judgment. *Confidence* is how analysts qualify that statement by describing the “scope, quality, and sourcing” that supports it. This exercise is designed to teach students how to distinguish between the two.

1. Read the opening key judgment of the following, *Iran: Nuclear Intentions and Capabilities* (November 2007).
2. Discuss if the NIE conveys both the probability and the confidence.
3. Discuss if the difference between probability and the confidence is clear to the reader.

Key Judgments

A. We judge with high confidence that in fall 2003, Tehran halted its nuclear weapons program; we also assess with moderate-to-high confidence that Tehran at a minimum is keeping open the option to develop nuclear weapons. We judge with high confidence that the halt, and Tehran’s announcement of its decision to suspend its declared uranium enrichment program and sign an Additional Protocol to its Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty Safeguards Agreement, was directed primarily in response to increasing international scrutiny and pressure resulting from exposure of Iran’s previously undeclared nuclear work.

- We assess with high confidence that until fall 2003, Iranian military entities were working under government direction to develop nuclear weapons.
- We judge with high confidence that the halt lasted at least several years. (Because of intelligence gaps discussed elsewhere in this Estimate, however, DOE and the NIC assess with only moderate confidence that the halt to those activities represents a halt to Iran’s entire nuclear weapons program.)
- We assess with moderate confidence Tehran had not restarted its nuclear weapons program as of mid-2007, but we do not know whether it currently intends to develop nuclear weapons.
- We continue to assess with moderate-to-high confidence that Iran does not currently have a nuclear weapon.

- Tehran's decision to halt its nuclear weapons program suggests it is less determined to develop nuclear weapons than we have been judging since 2005. Our assessment that the program probably was halted primarily in response to international pressure suggests Iran may be more vulnerable to influence on the issue than we judged previously.¹⁰

Individual Exercise

The purpose of this exercise is to give you, an intelligence *user*, the experience of critically evaluating a finished intelligence publication. Although it is directed primarily toward students, it can readily be accomplished by intelligence professionals seeking practice in evaluating the work of others—or their own. Depending on your professor's wishes, the completed exercise will constitute a percentage of your course grade. You will be graded on your ability to produce a clear, concise, and coherent written product (50 percent) and on your analytical evaluation of the publication you select (50 percent). To complete this assignment, do the following:

1. Carefully read the Federal Bureau of Investigation and Department of Homeland Security joint intelligence bulletin *White Supremacist Extremism Poses Persistent Threat of Lethal Violence* (May 10, 2017).

UNCLASSIFIED//FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY
JOINT INTELLIGENCE BULLETIN
10 MAY 2017

(U//FOUO) White Supremacist Extremism Poses Persistent Threat of Lethal Violence

(U) Scope

(U//FOUO) This Joint Intelligence Bulletin (JIB) is intended to provide new insight into the targeting preferences of white supremacist extremists and the state of white supremacist extremism violence in the United States. This JIB is provided by the FBI and DHS to support

Fig. 3.7. Federal Bureau of Investigation and Department of Homeland Security, Joint Intelligence Bulletin, White Supremacist Extremism Poses Persistent Threat of Lethal Violence, May 10, 2017.

their respective activities and to assist federal, state, local, tribal, and territorial government counterterrorism and law enforcement officials and private sector security partners in deterring, preventing, or disrupting terrorist attacks in the United States.

(U//FOUO) White Supremacist Extremist Movement Continues to Pose Threat of Violence to US Law Enforcement

(U//FOUO) We assess lone actors and small cells within the white supremacist extremist (WSE) movement likely will continue to pose a threat of lethal violence over the next year.^{1,2} This assessment is based on a review of lethal and potentially lethal incidents of WSE violence from 2000 to 2016 and the often spontaneous and opportunistic nature of these acts that limits prevention by law enforcement.

(U) Opportunistic Targeting of Minority Groups Typical of WSE Violence

(U//FOUO) We judge the opportunistic nature of WSE attacks and the use of edged and other weapons instead of firearms likely contributed to the relatively low number of fatalities in 2016 compared to previous years. WSEs committed one lethal and five potentially lethal attacks in 2016. All six attacks involved the opportunistic targeting of racial or religious minorities, including Hispanics, African-Americans, a Chinese student, and one person perceived to be Jewish. Distinct from previous years, attackers in these incidents showed a preference for edged weapons over firearms.

- » (U//FOUO) On 18 February 2016, a WSE allegedly attacked an 18-year-old Chinese student with a hatchet while she was taking photos for a school project in Nashville, Indiana. The victim survived the attack but suffered two-inch deep lacerations on her back. According to court documents, the suspect self-identified as a white supremacist and stated he wanted to kill the student because of her race.³ The individual is currently in custody awaiting trial.
- » (U//FOUO) On 28 February 2016, three WSE members of a local racist skinhead group were arrested on multiple counts of feloni-

Fig. 3.7 (Continued)

ous assault with a deadly weapon and one count of felonious assault with force likely to cause injury after they allegedly attacked a group of Hispanic men with knives in a Los Angeles County park. According to open source media reports, the three suspects allegedly yelled racial slurs before assaulting the victims. All three suspects are currently awaiting trial.⁴

- » (U//FOUO) On 21 August 2016, local authorities arrested a self-identified WSE for allegedly murdering an African-American male with a knife in Fort Wayne, Indiana, due to the victim's race, according to open source media reporting.^{5,6,7}
- » (U//FOUO) On 3 December 2016, local authorities arrested two WSEs for allegedly stabbing another Klansman multiple times following an argument in an East Yanceyville, North Carolina, residence. According to law enforcement sources, the suspects accused the victim of being Jewish and secretly working for law enforcement; they were charged with assault with a deadly weapon with intent to kill or inflict serious injury. They are currently being held in jail awaiting trial.⁸

(U//FOUO) There were no mass-casualty attacks in 2016, although there was one plot to commit mass-casualty violence, which attests to the ongoing threat of such violence from the WSE movement.⁹ In this instance, the plotter, a juvenile, allegedly planned to target racial and religious minority classmates using firearms.

- » (U//FOUO) On 7 October 2016, local authorities disrupted a plot by a WSE who allegedly planned to conduct a shooting at a high school in Hilliard, Ohio. The suspect was arrested following a local law enforcement investigation that uncovered specific planning, including explosives research, weapons and equipment pricing, recruitment efforts, and a map indicating where to effectively place shooters. The suspects phone contained Nazi imagery, images associated with white supremacy ideology, information about school shootings, and language advocating for killing Jewish persons and African-Americans. The individual remains in custody pending further legal actions, according to open source media reporting.¹⁰

Fig. 3.7 (Continued)

(U) 2016 Violence Diffuse among Ideological Factions

(U//FOUO) The perpetrators of WSE lethal and potentially lethal violence in 2016 included members of racist skinhead groups, Klan members, and individuals who lacked group affiliations.¹¹

One of those attacks also involved a suspected WSE who was a member of a racist prison gang and acted without direction or sanction of the gang. The ideology apparent in the motivation behind this attack represents a departure from usual racist prison gang activity, whose members typically pursue organized criminal activity for purposes of financial gain.

» (U//FOUO) On 16 August 2016, a WSE allegedly stabbed an African-American man in Olympia, Washington, after seeing him kiss a Caucasian woman outside a restaurant. The victim survived the attack. The suspect stated to police upon his arrest that he was part of a white supremacist group and had come to fight “Black Lives Matters people.” The individual is a member of a Washington State-based racist prison gang and is currently in jail, charged with two counts of second-degree assault with a deadly weapon and one count of malicious harassment, according to FBI reporting.¹²

(U) Perspective

(U//FOUO) WSEs were responsible for 49 homicides in 26 attacks from 2000 to 2016, more than any other domestic extremist movement. WSEs used firearms in most of these lethal incidents, which were typically mass-casualty attacks. Knives and other edged weapons caused the second-most fatalities.^{13, 14, 15}

(U//FOUO) A review of incidents since 2000 shows racial minorities have been the primary victims of WSE lethal violence. The second most common victims were other Caucasians, including the homeless, drug dealers, sex offenders, and other white supremacists perceived as disloyal to the WSE movement. Adherents of the WSE movement view these persons as legitimate targets, as they pose a threat to, or reflect poorly on, the white race.

Other targets have included persons or facilities associated with government and law enforcement.

Fig. 3.7 (Continued)

(U) Outlook

(U//FOUO) We assess most WSE lethal violence over the next year very likely will derive from the capabilities of lone offenders or small cells, rather than the resources of larger groups, due to the decentralized and often disorganized status of the WSE movement. Although plot-derived mass-casualty violence remains possible, we judge it more likely that violence will continue to be spontaneous and involve targets of opportunity. Despite a lack of shooting attacks in 2016, firearms likely will continue to pose the greatest threat of lethal violence by WSEs due to their availability and ease of use.

(U) FBI and DHS Resources about Active Shooter Situations

(U) Both FBI and DHS maintain resources on the Internet that provide information on active shooter scenarios:

- » (U) FBI: <https://www.fbi.gov/news/stories/fbi-releases-study-on-active-shooter-incidents>
- » (U) DHS: <http://www.dhs.gov/active-shooter-preparedness>

Notes

1. (U//FOUO) The FBI and DHS define a lone actor as an individual acting alone or without the witting support of others to further social or political goals, wholly or in part, through activities that involve unlawful acts of force or violence. Lone offenders may act within the context of recognized domestic extremist ideologies, their own interpretation of those ideologies, or personal beliefs. The mere advocacy of political or social positions, political activism, use of strong rhetoric, or generalized philosophical embrace of violent tactics may not constitute extremism, and may be constitutionally protected activities.

2. (U//FOUO) The FBI and DHS define white supremacist extremists as individuals who seek, wholly or in part, through unlawful acts of force or violence, to support their belief in the intellectual and moral superiority of the white race over other races. The mere advocacy of political or social positions, political activism, use of strong rhetoric, or generalized philosophic embrace of violent tactics may not constitute extremism, and may be constitutionally protected activities.

3. (U); Online news article; CBS News; “FBI Investigating Indiana Hatchet Attack as Hate Crime”; 26 February 2016; <http://www.cbsnews.com/news/fbi>

Fig. 3.7 (Continued)

-investigating-indiana-hatchet-attack-as-hate-crime/; accessed on 14 February 2017;.

4. (U); Online newspaper article; *The New York Times*; “3 Men Charged with Hate Crimes in Attack on Hispanics in California”; 4 March 2016; <https://www.nytimes.com/2016/03/05/us/hate-crime-charges-lake-los-angeles-california.html>; accessed on 14 February 2017.

5. (U); Online news article; WANE News Channel 15; “White Supremacist Admits to Fatal Stabbing, Charged with Murder”; 14 October 2016; <http://wane.com/2016/10/14/white-supremacist-admits-to-fatal-stabbing-charged-with-murder/>; accessed on 15 February 2017.

6. (U); Affidavit for Probable Cause Allen Superior Court; *State of Indiana vs. Aaryn Snyder*; 27 September 2016.

7. (U//FOUO); FBI; Electronic Communication; 44F-IP-7108692, serial 1; 24 February 2016; UNCLASSIFIED//FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY.

8. (U); Online newspaper article; *The New York Times*; “Two Klan Leaders are Charged in a NC Stabbing”; 7 December 2016; <https://www.nytimes.com/2016/12/07/us/klan-grand-dragon-arrest-stabbing-north-carolina.html>; accessed on 15 February 2017.

9. (U) For purposes of this bulletin, “mass-casualty” violence refers to criminal acts or plots in which an individual or group actually or clearly intended to (a) kill three or more people, or (b) cause grievous bodily harm to ten or more people (cf. 18 USC § 530C(b)(1)).

10. (U); Online newspaper article; *The Columbus Dispatch*; “Hilliard Davidson Student Planned School Shooting, Prosecutors Charge”; 11 October 2016; http://www.dispatch.com/content/stories/local/2016/10/11/Hilliard_plot.html; accessed on 15 February 2017.

11. (U//FOUO) The WSE movement is experiencing widespread infighting and a lack of charismatic leadership, which have made it difficult for groups to organize nationally and sustain their memberships and influence. In addition, the Internet, including the emergence of social media, has enabled individuals to engage the WSE movement without joining organized groups.

12. (U//FOUO); FBI; Electronic Communication; 266N-SE-2071205-IN-TELPRODS, serial 2; 18 October 2016; “(U//FOUO) Individual Information Sheet: Daniel Brett Rowe”; UNCLASSIFIED//FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY.

13. (U); FBI; Graphic; 25 April 2016; 2000-2015; “(U) Victim Fatalities Caused by Domestic Extremists, 2000-2015”; UNCLASSIFIED//FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY; UNCLASSIFIED//FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY; Source is a finished intelligence product depicting results of FBI incident analysis.

14. (U); FBI; Intelligence Study; 11 August 2015; 2014; (U) 2014 National Intelligence Study: Domestic Extremism Continues to Pose a Medium-Level Threat; pp. 7-8; UNCLASSIFIED//FOR OFFICIAL USE ONLY;

Fig. 3.7 (Continued)

UNCLASSIFIED//LAW ENFORCEMENT SENSITIVE; Source is a finished intelligence product.

15. (U); FBI; Intelligence Study; 14 November 2016; (U) 2015 National Threat Report: Domestic Extremism Poses Medium-Level Threat; pp. 7-8; UNCLASSIFIED//LAW ENFORCEMENT SENSITIVE; Source is a finished intelligence product.

Fig. 3.7 (Continued)

2. Respond to the following questions. You may write or print your answers as long as they are legible, or you may use a computer. In your answers, refer only to the question number and the parenthetical short title given for each question; for example, “1. Length.” Do not rewrite or retype the entire question.

Front Section (Key Judgments, Summary, or Introduction)

1. **Length:** The front section of your publication may be called any number of titles. Describe the front section, and answer the following questions about it: Is it short (about 10 percent of the length of the basic text)? Does it get directly to the point? Is it complete enough to stand alone?
2. **Purpose:** Is the purpose of the publication clear to the average reader? Does the front section contain enough information for a reader to see how this product fits into the big picture of US national security or to otherwise determine why the product was published?

Main Body

3. **Sources:** Does the author identify sources, generic and/or specific? (Examples of generic sources include “satellite imagery,” “special intelligence,” or “a reliable source.”) Can the reader clearly distinguish between information provided by these sources and the author’s opinion or judgment? Give examples.
4. **Judgments:** Are judgmental statements quickly followed up with the evidence or rationale that apparently led the author to make the judgment? Are assumptions clearly stated as such?

Conclusion (Outlook, Prospects, Implications, or Summary)

5. **Summary:** The concluding section of your document may also have any number of names. Are information gaps, future projections, or implications summarized at the end of the publication?
6. **Conclusions:** Are the conclusions at the end of the publication consistent with the main body and key judgments? Were any conclusions that you considered significant left buried in the text?
7. **Appendixes:** Are appendixes used to present historical or highly technical supporting material or methodology rather than the main text? If appendixes are not used, comment on whether you feel they might have been helpful to the average reader of the product.

Other Considerations

8. **Form and Format:** Comment briefly on the author's organization of the document—the type and format used. Is the publication well organized? What might have improved its structure and/or readability in your opinion?
9. **Graphics:** Were graphics used effectively? If none or only a few were used, *could* they have been better used to help the average reader? How?
10. **Readership/Other:** What type of readership do you feel would derive the most benefit from this publication (for example, analysts at the national level, scientific and technical analysts, armed forces and commanders)? Make any other comments concerning the publication and/or this evaluation exercise.

NOTES

1. Philip Tetlock and Dan Gardner, *Superforecasting: The Art and Science of Prediction* (New York: Crown, 2015), 51.
2. Central Intelligence Agency, *Probable Developments in Yugoslavia and the Likelihood of Attack upon Yugoslavia, through 1952*, January 5, 1952, accessed February 25, 2022, <https://www.cia.gov/readingroom/document/0000269266>.
3. Tetlock and Gardner, *Superforecasting*, 41.
4. Jeffrey A. Friedman and Richard Zeckhauser, "Analytic Confidence and Political Decision-Making: Theoretical Principles and Experimental Evidence from National Security Professionals," *Political Psychology* 389, no. 5 (October 2018): 1069–87, accessed March 26, 2022, https://scholar.harvard.edu/files/rzeckhauser/files/analytic_confidence_and_political_decision-making.pdf.
5. Office of the Director of National Intelligence, *Intelligence Community Statement on Origins of COVID-19* (Washington, DC: Office of the Director of National

Intelligence, 2020), accessed February 1, 2022, <https://www.dni.gov/index.php/newsroom/press-releases/item/2112-intelligence-community-statement-on-origins-of-covid-19>.

6. Federal Bureau of Investigation, Counterterrorism Division, *White Supremacist Infiltration of Law Enforcement* (Washington, DC: FBI Counterterrorism Division, 2006), accessed February 25, 2022, <http://s3.documentcloud.org/documents/402521/doc-26-white-supremacist-infiltration.pdf>.

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8. National Intelligence Council, *Trends in Global Terrorism: Implications for the United States NIE 2006-02R April 2006* (Washington, DC: Office of the Director of National Intelligence, 2006), accessed February 24, 2022, https://www.dni.gov/files/documents/Newsroom/Press%20Releases/2006%20Press%20Releases/Declassified_NIE_Key_Judgments.pdf https://www.dni.gov/files/documents/SpecialReport_ICA_Global_Water_Security.pdf.

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10. National Intelligence Council, *Iran: Nuclear Intentions and Capabilities* (Washington DC: Office of the Director of National Intelligence, 2007) accessed February 1, 2022, https://www.dni.gov/files/documents/Newsroom/Reports%20and%20Pubs/20071203_release.pdf.

Part II

WRITING WITH INTELLIGENCE

Research Methods

BOTTOM LINE UP FRONT

Sound intelligence analysis relies foremost on the quality and credibility of your underlying sources and data. The amount of effort you put into research will vary depending on the time available to you, resources immediately at hand, and your depth of knowledge in the subject area. Even if you are the world's foremost expert in the subject, check again to ensure that you've included the latest available data.

TIME MANAGEMENT

There is always a trade-off between the detail you can provide in your intelligence product and the time you have to complete it. The goal isn't to find everything but to provide the best answer in the time given. Once you receive a request for information, you need to understand the scope of that request and budget the time given.

Typically, you'll jump right into collecting the research needed to do your analysis without a clearly thought-out idea of what is needed. Soon, you will find yourself buried in information without enough time to analyze what you have or to finish the report. Instead, use the following questions to help break down the needs of the customer and keep your research focused:

- Who needs the information?
- Why do they need it?
- What is the main topic or question?

Are there any secondary questions that you need to address?

What is the priority?

What level of detail does the customer require?

Often, you'll already know the answers to these questions. When you don't, ask before getting started on the research. Having a good dialogue with the customer on the front end will pay off on the back end.

Intelligence Community Directive (ICD) 203 established analytic standards that govern the production and evaluation of analytic products and express the responsibilities of intelligence analysts to "strive for excellence, integrity, and rigor in their analytic thinking and work practices." Accordingly, all intelligence community (IC) products should be consistent with the five analytic standards:

1. Objective
2. Independent of political consideration
3. Timely
4. Based on all available sources of intelligence information
5. Implements and exhibits analytic tradecraft standards

SEARCHING, RESEARCHING

The next step of the research process is to identify the specific sources needed to complete your analysis. As the expert following events and developments in your area of expertise, you'll be expected to have current knowledge of the subject, but all relevant knowledge is not necessarily within arm's reach. Sometimes you might have to dig for it by checking with other commands or agencies that may have more information; scanning the latest unclassified sources, such as the media, to learn what has been made public lately; and considering all possible sources of information, such as analysts or others in your command or agency who might know what's going on. On a "short-fuse" requirement, that whole process might be limited to a few hours, but they'll be hours well spent.

Typically, you should systematize the process by creating an intelligence collection plan (ICP), pulling together all relevant information needed to complete the task. As you get further into research, the ICP will help you keep track of sources and grade the information for reliability and quality. Which plan you use is typically decided by your command or agency and the resources

Figure A-1. Instructions for filling out the major parts of a standard collection plan format.

PIR and IR	INDICATORS	SIR	COLLECTION AGENCIES	PLACE and TIME to REPORT	REMARKS
<p>INSTRUCTIONS</p> <p>List PIR and IR. Leave enough space to list indicators for each PIR and IR in column 2.</p> <p>List indicators that will satisfy each PIR.</p> <p>Then, if necessary, list specific information required to satisfy the indicator. Key requirements to NAI on the event template if possible. These requirements form the basis for SORs.</p> <p>Place an "X" under each agency that can collect the required information. Circle the "X" when an agency has been selected and tasked.</p> <p>Place may be a headquarters or unit.</p> <p>Time may be specific, periodic or as obtained.</p> <p>Include means of reporting; for example, via spot report format.</p> <p>Include established communications; for example, multichannel, frequency modulated, RIAT, or state "by SOP" if SOP criteria applies for responding to collection requirements.</p>					
<p>EXAMPLE</p> <p>Where and in what strengths are threat forces?</p> <p>Discovery trails within the AO.</p> <p>Report increased border crossing via SD47-5042 to Seine River.</p>					

Fig. 4.1. Intelligence Collection Plan. United States Government, US Army, Army Techniques Publication ATP 2-33.4 Intelligence Analysis, January 2020, <https://irp.fas.org/doddir/army/fm34-2/Appa.htm>.

available. Regardless of the format, the plan must be easily adjustable to changing requirements, situations, and missions. You might also be pulled off a project unexpectedly. The ICP will help your colleagues stay on schedule.

One of the first steps in writing a credible report or assessment is to ground it in objective, current support from primary and/or secondary sources. The following discussion focuses on publicly available sources, commonly referred to as open-source intelligence (OSINT).

Primary sources could be surveys and interviews you conduct, historical documents (newspapers from foreign sources, treaties, government documents, maps, laws) you interpret yourself, or imagery you examine. If you're in the intelligence community, you may have access to a broader range of primary sources, including information from human sources, signals intelligence, imagery, and electronic communications.

Secondary sources consist of the work of other people—their fieldwork, data, analyses, or studies. If both primary and secondary sources are available, use both. You will need to evaluate who wrote the article or made the statement, the date, and the publisher. Take no source as gospel. Fact-check and verify *everything*.

Search Engines

Most people start with a simple Internet search. Unfortunately, there are too many search engines to cover here. Which you choose will depend on what you're researching and what data is required. The most popular search engines are Google, Bing, Yahoo, and Yandex. Each of these sites will provide different results, and each should be consulted in your research.

By far, *Google* is the most popular search engine on the planet and is typically the first stop for researchers. Regrettably, the search algorithm casts a very broad net, often providing results in the millions. Researchers can use search operators, commands that refine search engine queries, to get better results. Here are some of the most useful search techniques for Google:

- To search social media, put @ in front of a word; for example, @twitter.
- To search for a price, put \$ in front of a number; for example, camera \$400.
- To search hashtags, put # in front of a word; for example, #throwback thursday.
- To exclude words from your search, Put - in front of a word you want to leave out; for example, jaguar speed -car.
- To search for an exact match, put a word or phrase in quotes; for example, "tallest building."
- To search within a range of numbers, put .. between two numbers; for example, camera \$50..\$100.
- To combine searches, put OR between each search query; for example, marathon OR race.
- To search for a specific site, put site: in front of a site or domain; for example, site:youtube.com or site:.gov.
- To search for related sites, put related in front of a web address you already know; for example, related:time.com.
- To see Google's cached version of a site, put cache: in front of the site address.

Almost all the most popular search engines will have similar search operators and commands to filter and refine search engine results. You'll save yourself a lot of time using them.

Imagery

The availability of free, high-resolution imagery to the public is a game changer for researchers. Until a few years ago, state actors were the only players with access to these tools. Now, anyone with an Internet connection

can see the massing of Russian troops on the Ukrainian border or the effects of drought in East Africa with startling resolution.

Satellite imagery is available from a variety of sources, including the US Geological Survey (USGS) and European Space Agency (ESA). Most of the bigger search engines, including Google, Bing, Yahoo, and Yandex, have satellite imagery of varying qualities. Sentinel Hub, Landviewer, and Copernicus Open Access Hub also have free satellite imagery. Google Earth Pro is another hugely useful tool, allowing users to see satellite images, maps, terrain, and 3D buildings. These platforms are typically designed for ease of use, and learning to use them should take no more than a few minutes. Most also come with historic imagery, allowing you to see changes over time. Street view is another function provided by Google Maps/Google Earth and Yandex Maps. Street-level images can be useful when you're looking for the location (geolocation) of images or videos found on the Internet. Some of these images can be older, so it's important to be cognizant of the dates when the street-level information was recorded.

Satellite imagery is also useful in verifying other sources. Let's look at a recent example. On February 15, 2022, President Vladimir Putin announced Russia was sending troops back to base after a sustained buildup along the Ukraine border. The Western press seemed to think the crisis was over, but the Ukrainians had more experience with these types of claims. "Various statements are constantly being made from the Russian Federation, so we already have a rule: 'Do not hear and then believe. But do see and then believe,'" Ukrainian foreign minister Dmytro Kuleba said after the announcement. The skepticism was well placed. A satellite image taken by Maxar Technologies on February 14, 2022, showed a continuing buildup of Russian troops and military equipment at the Kursk training area. Ten days later, Russian troops invaded Ukraine.¹

Social Media

Social media is an important source of information for researchers. It's best to remain anonymous when sleuthing on social media, so be sure to create sock-puppet accounts. Be aware if you're currently a member of the US military, sock-puppet accounts are prohibited.

Twitter

Presently, Twitter has more than 330 million monthly active users and is the most accessible and easily mined for data because most people rarely privatize their content. Researchers will find it useful in gleaning information

Table 4.1. Operator Examples

<i>Operator</i>	<i>Finds Tweets . . .</i>
watching now	containing both “watching” and “now” (this is the default operator)
“happy hour”	containing the exact phrase “happy hour”
love OR hate	containing either “love” or “hate” (or both)
beer -root	containing “beer” but not “root”
#haiku	containing the hashtag “haiku”
from:interior	sent from Twitter account “interior”
list:NASA/astronauts-in-space-now	sent from a Twitter account in the NASA list “astronauts-in-space-now”
to:NASA	a tweet authored in reply to Twitter account “NASA”
@NASA	mentioning Twitter account “NASA”
politics filter:safe	containing “politics” with tweets marked as potentially sensitive removed
puppy filter:media	containing “puppy” and an image or video
puppy -filter:retweets	containing “puppy” but filtering out retweets
puppy filter:native_video	containing “puppy” and an uploaded video, Amplify video, Periscope, or Vine
puppy filter:periscope	containing “puppy” and a Periscope video URL
puppy filter:vine	containing “puppy” and a Vine
puppy filter:images	containing “puppy” and links identified as photos, including such third parties as Instagram
puppy filter:twimg	containing “puppy” and a pic.twitter.com link representing one or more photos
hilarious filter:links	containing “hilarious” and linking to URL
puppy url:amazon	containing “puppy” and a URL with “amazon” anywhere within it
superhero since:2015-12-21	containing “superhero” and sent since date “2015-12-21” (year-month-day)
puppy until:2015-12-21	containing “puppy” and sent before the date “2015-12-21”
movie -scary :)	containing “movie” but not “scary” and with a positive attitude
flight :(containing “flight” and with a negative attitude
traffic ?	containing “traffic” and asking a question

on individuals or gathering intelligence on events. The first research step is using the platform’s advanced search at <https://twitter.com/search-advanced>. You may also want to use operators that allow you to refine your search (see table 4.1).

There are a number of third-party platforms and apps that can make Twitter more useful for research. TweetDeck (<https://help.twitter.com/en/using-twitter/how-to-use-tweetdeck>) is a dashboard application that allows researchers to view multiple timelines and is particularly useful for covering live events.

Meta (Formerly Facebook)

Once an essential go-to for researchers, Facebook, recently rebranded as Meta, is less useful now that the platform aggressively shuts down fake accounts and blocks third-party services capable of scraping data. Moreover, with around 2.9 billion monthly users, the demographics trend older and more credulous, making the platform a cesspool of disinformation. Nevertheless, the narcissistic tendencies of many users and their attendant lack of discretion make Meta a gold mine for researchers willing to manually find people and organizations posting on the platform. In fact, it's one of the first places law enforcement checks for the location of wanted and missing persons.

If you want to set up a Meta account for research, then you'll need to use an actual phone during registration. Using a burner phone and email is recommended when signing up. Make sure not to use a computer-generated image as your profile picture. The platform will spot it and block your account.

TikTok

TikTok is a popular video platform with 1 billion monthly active users who trend younger than Twitter and Meta. TikTok requires an account to do meaningful research. Unless you plan to use a personal TikTok account (not recommended), you will need to provide a burner phone number, email address, or social media account to gain access. It's worth the hassle. You can often find video of events in near real time.

Instagram

Instagram is a popular photo- and video-sharing social networking platform with 1.386 billion users worldwide. Researchers can find a range of information on Instagram, especially if they are trying to collect information about an individual's associates and activities. Google search operators will greatly help with your research:

Site:instagram.com "username" "keyword"

Site:instagram.com "name"

Site:instagram.com "@username"

YouTube

Videos can be enormously valuable to digital investigations. While there are a number of video-sharing platforms, YouTube is currently the most used, with 30,000 hours of video uploaded every hour. Because manually sifting

that amount of data is almost impossible, you'll need to tailor your investigation. Using YouTube Metadata will display information about the video, who uploaded it, and its creator or channel. YouTube GeoFind can search by geotagged locations of YouTube videos. Using YouTube DataViewer, researchers can automatically reverse-image-search the thumbnails of a video and find the time it was uploaded.

News Aggregators

There are multiple news sources and news aggregators available to researchers. You can customize most aggregators to provide automatic updates on a given topic, allowing you to passively receive updates on your subject. The following are some particularly helpful news aggregators:

Global Database of Society (GDELT Project) is presently the best open platform for news aggregation, monitoring the world's broadcast, print, and Internet news in more than one hundred languages. Moreover, the platform has a database of a quarter-billion georeferenced records stretching back thirty years. The technology is capable of providing analysis of people, organizations, events, themes, and underlying emotions.

Access World News provides texts of newspapers; newswires; periodicals; and news transcripts for television, video, and web content. The site focuses on recent content, though there is some early coverage from the 1970s and 1980s.

Nexis Uni provides text versions of newspapers, periodicals, news feeds, and news coverage. Nexis Uni has some coverage dating to the 1980s and 1990s. It is typically available through most colleges.

Newspaper Source Plus provides text and video versions of newspapers, periodicals, newswires, and transcripts of some television news programming. The coverage goes back to the 1980s.

Feedly is a news aggregator application/browser extension available for most web browsers and mobile devices running iOS and Android. The app allows researchers to generate personalized news feeds on a wide range of topics. There are free and subscription versions.

Google News is a news aggregator application powered by Google's search algorithms and your own search history. Google News is keyed to your geographic location, though it can be customized to create a news feed on a particular topic. Bing, Apple, and Yahoo News offer similar services.²

EVALUATING SOURCES: CONSIDER THE ORIGINATOR, DATE, AND PUBLISHER

The Originator

Yes, the person you interviewed or read may be an expert on your topic, but they don't necessarily have all the answers. President Joe Biden is no doubt listening to many experts regarding the origin of COVID-19, including whether it emerged from human contact with an infected animal or from a laboratory accident. After the results from the first intelligence analysis failed to reach a definitive conclusion, he tasked the IC with redoubling their efforts to collect and analyze information that could bring an answer. He also directed experts at American National Labs and other federal agencies to aid in the effort to supplement the intelligence community's efforts.

Researchers must go one step further than blindly accepting information. On what basis has the originator arrived at his point of view? Has that person approached the subject with a preestablished attitude and interpreted the evidence in light of that attitude? Is deception a possibility? When Colin Powell went to the United Nations to present evidence of Saddam Hussein's mobile weapons labs, most of his information came secondhand from an Iraqi chemical engineer who claimed to have supervised one of the facilities and knew firsthand the lethality of the biological agents.³ Code-named Curveball by his handlers, the asset provided a treasure trove of evidence to the German Federal Intelligence Service, including leadership structure, the types of weapons in Saddam Hussein's inventory, the location of related facilities, and the methods Iraq used to hide the programs. The intelligence was passed to a team of American intelligence analysts who readily accepted the information, believing the reason they could not find weapons of mass destruction (WMD) was because the Iraqis were moving the weapons to avoid detection (see Fig. 4.2). The information from Curveball fit perfectly into their existing narrative.⁴

In reality, Curveball was an Iraqi cab driver named Rafid Ahmed Alwan al-Janabi whose details of the Iraqi WMD program were entirely fabricated (see Fig. 4.4). There were multiple warning signs that his information was unreliable, including an explicit warning from the Germans that their asset was a serial liar. Nevertheless, the information was passed to senior US policy makers, with Director George Tenet assuring President George W. Bush the case for WMD was a "slam dunk."⁵

When the inspectors on the ground confirmed Curveball's intelligence was false, the analysts doubled down, dismissing the initial reports and falling back on Curveball to confirm their conclusions. "Our analysis of the mobile production plant found in April indicates the layout and equipment

Reported Mobile Plants Compared to Those Found in Iraq

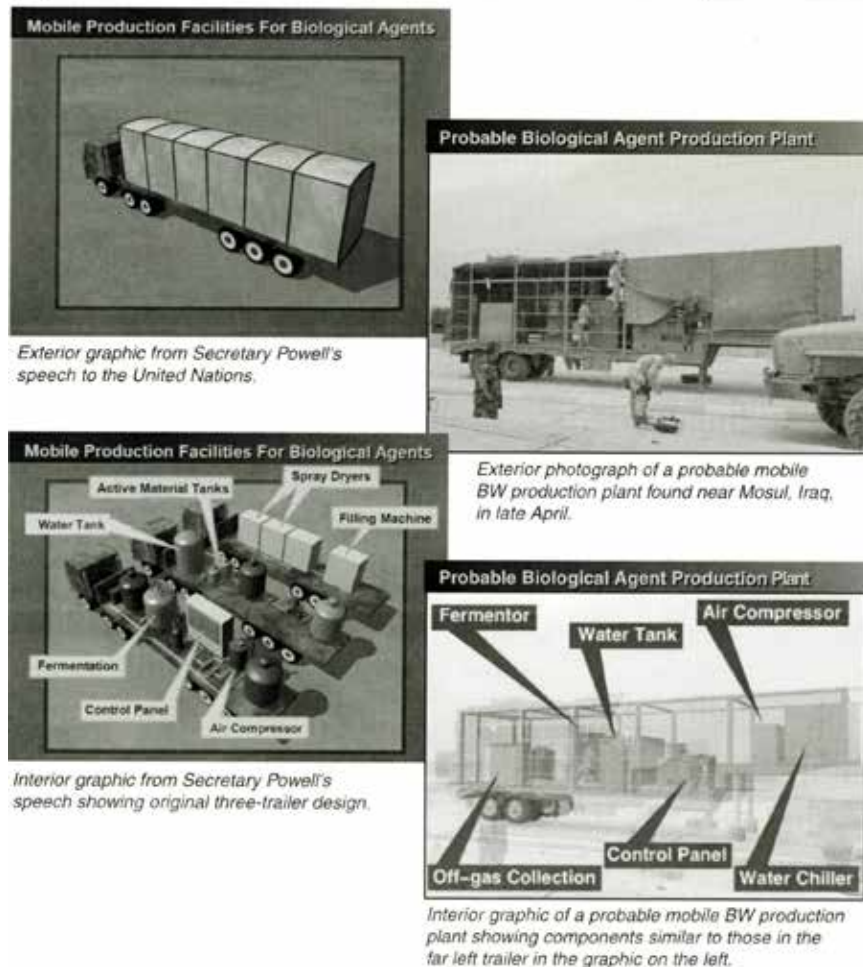


Fig. 4.2. Central Intelligence Agency and Defense Intelligence Agency, "Iraqi Mobile Biological Warfare Agent Production Plants," May 28, 2003.

are consistent with information provided by the chemical engineer, who has direct knowledge of Iraq's mobile BW program" they reported.

In fact, the trailers were for the production of hydrogen gas to fill weather balloons in support of conventional artillery operations. But the CIA analysts were so sublimely confident of their conclusions that it took several months before they finally conceded the obvious mistakes. "I think the error in logic for everyone was we began with a hypothesis, they're doing this, and then we

just looked for the evidence that supported the hypothesis,” General Michael Hayden at the National Security Agency admitted. “And if you do that, you can really build up a pretty good body of stuff.”⁶

We all have cognitive blind spots. Like the analysts working on Iraq’s WMD program, we like an idea or a premise because it fits into a particular narrative. We want it to be true. We commit to those narratives and champion them in our heads. Even when confronted with information that runs counter to those narratives, we subconsciously reject it. It’s called confirmation bias. When beliefs are strongly and emotionally held, we deploy our intellects to protect those beliefs, engaging in magical thinking and other rationalizations without regard for logical consistency. The information that challenges those beliefs is ignored or even attacked by our brains, which are determined to maintain emotional and psychological consistency.⁷

When intelligence assessments in 1968 showed a growing possibility of a communist victory in Vietnam despite the presence of more than a half-million US troops in the country, President Lyndon Johnson grew frustrated. “Let me tell you about these intelligence guys,” he said after receiving a briefing. He continued,

When I was growing up in Texas, we had a cow named Bessie. I’d go out early and milk her. I’d get her in the stanchion, seat myself and squeeze out a pail of fresh milk. One day I’d worked hard and gotten a full pail of milk, but I wasn’t paying attention, and old Bessie swung her shit-smear tail through the bucket of milk. Now, you know that’s what these intelligence guys do. You work hard and get a good program or policy going, and they swing a shit-smear tail through it.

Johnson and the senior military leadership went looking for a new, more optimistic analysis. They found Leon Goure, an unknown defense analyst at the Rand Corporation who was running the Vietnam Motivation and Morale Project interviewing Viet Cong combatants. Dr. Leon Goure told Secretary of Defense Robert McNamara that his prisoner interviews indicated declining enemy morale because of American bombing. McNamara promptly increased Goure’s budget from \$100,000 to \$1 million, and he was required to brief the defense secretary every three to four months. Goure soon became a celebrity in the Pentagon. He dismissed the CIA’s increasingly bleak assessments, assuring the top brass that a tiny, preindustrial nation could not withstand punishment from the greatest military in world history, especially with US forces initiating offensive operations with B-52s.

In November 1967, General William Westmoreland returned to Washington to proclaim the communists a spent force, telling the country he could see the “light at the end of the tunnel.” A year later, the communists launched



Fig. 4.3. President Lyndon B. Johnson listens to tape sent by Captain Charles Robb from Vietnam, July 31, 1968. Jack E. Kightlinger, Photographer (National Archives Identifier: 192617); Collection LBJ-WHPO: White House Photo Office Collection, 11/22/1963–01/20/1969; Lyndon Baines Johnson Library; National Archives and Records Administration.<https://www.archives.gov/publications/prologue/2008/summer/lbj.html>.

██████████ The DHS intelligence officer responsible for collecting and reporting the intelligence from CURVE BALL was unable to tell Committee staff whether these concerns had been raised ██████████. The DHS intelligence officer did not recall the particular evaluation provided by the DIA BW analysts, or if ██████████ provided any information in response.

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Fig. 4.4. (Document 2) Report on the US Intelligence Community's Prewar Intelligence Assessments on Iraq, Senate Select Committee on Intelligence, July 7, 2004.

the Tet Offensive, hitting more than one hundred cities and outposts in South Vietnam, ending all illusions of a quick victory.⁸

State actors understand confirmation bias, turning it against their enemies to slow the decision-making process. During World War II, the Allies used confirmation bias to their advantage, feeding the Germans a steady stream of false intelligence showing the D-Day attack would come at Calais. Code-named Operation Fortitude, the Allies created a fake army commanded by Lieutenant General George Patton, complete with fake planes and tanks that were visible to German reconnaissance aircraft. Meanwhile, fake radio traffic created by the Allies reinforced Hitler's assumptions.

Even with Allied troops moving up the beaches at Normandy, Adolf Hitler refused to send reinforcements, citing information from their British espionage network headed by master spy "Alaric," who had been awarded the German Iron Cross. In reality, "Alaric" was Juan Pujol Garcia, a British double agent who assured the Germans that any landings at Normandy were a diversion. Allied troops were already moving inland before Hitler reluctantly sent a few Panzer divisions from Calais to slow the advance. By then, it was too late.⁹

Social media algorithms perform a similar function by identifying your likes and dislikes and sending links to sources that reinforce your preexisting beliefs. Consequently, you get trapped in a filter bubble that reinforces your existing worldview. If you look at conspiracy theories about the moon landing on YouTube, you are guaranteed to get more conspiracy videos about the moon landings. Before long, you're so far down the rabbit hole you think Buzz Aldrin's walk on the moon on July 21, 1969, was actually filmed at a studio in Burbank, California. (Here's a bit of advice: Don't confront Buzz about "fake" moon landings—he still throws a mean overhand right.)

When writing intelligence, examine your own views. Why did you select this source? If you share the source's interpretation, why do you do so? How do your views differ from the source's views? It is tempting to give more credence to a source if you already know and share that source's views. It's called motivated reasoning.

Just as importantly, remember you're not a lawyer building a case. We see this mistake more than any other when students do research. They start with a premise, hypothesis, or narrative, and they build a case like a prosecutor crafting a narrative for a jury. Contradictory evidence is looked at as an inconvenience, not proof that the hypothesis is flawed.

Don't be an advocate for your preconceptions. Examine all the evidence, and then make your judgment. If the evidence suggests your hypothesis or underlying assumptions are wrong, then adjust your thinking. Most of the time, this isn't a problem. If someone told you it was going to rain, you would

grab an umbrella, no problem. But if you're emotionally invested in a subject, then it's much harder to change your mind.

Consider the origins of COVID-19. Given your opinions on the subject, would you change your mind if new information suggested the opposite of what you already believed? Don't be so sure you would. Psychology shows it's exceedingly difficult to let go of settled beliefs, but don't worry; we cover how to update mental models in the next chapter.

Internet Sources

Be particularly skeptical about information you find on the Internet. Most reputable periodicals have electronic versions online, and their reputations carry over for good or bad. Remember, though, that even the most reliable news networks or online periodicals rush to beat the news cycle. Their desire to be the first to publish frequently results in mistakes. When doing research, it is essential to distinguish fact from speculation.

Also, beware the bloggers who post information based on spurious sources without bothering to undertake even a cursory fact-check. If you come across a particularly salacious detail from a blog, take the time to verify the information. Sensationalism is often the norm of sources fighting for online traffic.

Social Media

No source is more problematic than social media. Every day, billions of posts and tweets are replicated and spread across the Internet. Often, these posts are amplified and spread in echo chambers inhabited by those looking for information that reinforces their own beliefs. Accuracy is rarely a consideration in this situation. Consequently, rivers of misinformation flow onto social media every day.

More importantly, beware of those who traffic in intentional deception, commonly called disinformation. The 2016 US presidential election initiated most Americans to disinformation, whereby false information is intentionally disseminated. The main culprit was the St. Petersburg-based Internet Research Agency (IRA), a troll farm controlled by Russian oligarch Yevgeny Prigozhin. Using fake social media accounts and Internet bots, the IRA created and pumped out disinformation at an industrial scale.

In subsequent years, the problem has only grown. Unlike the clownish memes and fake news stories produced by Russian trolls, the new purveyors of disinformation today are people like "Heshmat Alavi," a popular Iranian activist who accused American politicians of conspiring with the Iranian regime. His Twitter posts were cited by Richard Grenell, the acting director

of United States National Intelligence. In reality, Heshmat Alavi was a fake persona forged by Mojahedin-e-Khalq, an Iranian opposition group operating out of Albania and until recently listed as a sponsor of terrorism. Before the false persona was unmasked, media outlets disseminated Mojahedin-e-Khalq's weaponized lies, which were then spread by bots and cyborg accounts on social media.¹⁰

As November 3, 2020, approached, the sheer volume of disinformation accelerated at a breathtaking pace. One of the typical purveyors of sensationalist stories was a Swiss security analyst named "Martin Aspen," who was associated with *Apple Daily*, a Hong Kong-based tabloid critical of the Chinese government. Aspen posted a dossier to *Intelligence Quarterly*, an anonymous blog. Despite its lack of sourcing and questionable authorship, the document immediately went viral. In fact, Martin Aspen was a fake persona complete with a LinkedIn profile, computer-generated picture, and an imaginary intelligence firm called Typhoon Investigations. The identity had been anonymously created for the sole purpose of generating and spreading disinformation to influence the US presidential election.

As I write this in February 2022, Vladimir Putin's collection of online trolls, bots, and "useful idiots" in the West is flooding social media with disinformation about the invasion of Ukraine. They would have you believe the Ukrainian military is committing acts of genocide against civilians in Donbas and the Russian invasion is a peacekeeping operation to remove Nazis and bioweapons labs.

Simultaneously, American news sources posted an entirely fabricated claim that a woman died after being trampled by a Canadian authority on horseback during trucker-led protests against vaccine mandates. The week before, a sensational story alleged the US federal government was giving crack pipes to drug addicts, producing outrage across social media and television news. After fact-checkers disproved both stories, they were simply memory-holed by the purveyors.¹¹

This is just the beginning. Deepfake technology will soon enable anybody with a computer and an Internet connection to manufacture images and videos of people doing and saying things they never did or said. You won't even be able to trust your own eyes.¹²

Disinformation poses an existential threat to the intelligence community, seeping deep into the minds of policy makers and the public generally. Once false information is inserted into the heart of the decision-making process, it is nearly impossible to excise. More importantly, democracy cannot function without a common set of facts.

Whether it's posts about COVID-19 or tweets about the downing of Malaysian Airlines flight MH17, you must be careful to vet and verify information

from social media. That should be true of all sources. After all, the quality of your analysis relies foremost on getting your research right.

The Date

All researchers should strive to acquire the most recent data. If you are looking into the attack on the state-owned Saudi Aramco oil-processing facilities at Abqaiq and Khurais in September 2019, then you should use the UN report that found, despite their claims to the contrary, Houthi forces did not launch the attacks using drones. Citing the sophisticated weaponry and the approach of the aerial attacks from a north/northwestern and north/northeastern direction, the UN investigators said the evidence clearly pointed toward another culprit (Iran). If you leaned on press reports immediately following the attacks, then the UN analysis of the missile debris hadn't been done, and Houthi claims of responsibility seemed credible.¹³

Moreover, remember to read both primary and secondary sources. In a paper on the Islamic State's strategic goals, you could use a primary source like *Dabiq*, an online magazine written in English and used by ISIS for propaganda and recruitment. Next, read interpretations of ISIS ideas that include experts and cover its creation by Musab al-Zarqawi to the present day. Remember to consider how things have changed because *Dabiq* was produced from 2014 to 2016, when the Islamic State controlled 41,000 square miles in Iraq and Syria.

The Publisher

Most major book publishers cannot afford to appeal to a particular readership, but weekly magazines and websites often target a specific segment of society. The researcher needs to identify the owner or managing editor's biases. Articles on the *Federalist*, Breitbart, and Townhall interpret events with the conservative slant of its editors and funders. *Huffington Post*, Salon, and *Mother Jones* are from a liberal/progressive viewpoint. But do you know the perspective of the publishers of BuzzFeed? *Al Jazeera*? WorldNetDaily? As a researcher trying to achieve objectivity, you should.

For instance, Russia Today (RT) is a state-controlled news agency funded by Vladimir Putin's government. It also serves as a messaging platform for the Kremlin. That doesn't mean the information from RT is unusable. In fact, it might be *extremely* useful because it provides the reader with the viewpoint of Moscow. Whatever the source, you should consider the ideological perspective of the publisher when formulating your own analysis.

Source and Information Grading

You should grade the context, source, and information used to generate your intelligence product. As discussed in chapter 3, a “high-confidence” assessment is grounded in high-quality sources. A “moderate-confidence” assessment typically suggests the sources are credible and plausible but not of sufficient quality or corroborated sufficiently to warrant a higher level of confidence. A “low-confidence” assessment is based on evidence that is too fragmented or poorly corroborated to make solid analytic inferences. The reader needs to know the quality of your sources.

FINAL THOUGHTS

In 2020, the media reported that American intelligence had discovered the Kremlin was paying the Taliban to kill US forces in Afghanistan. A few months later, the Biden administration revealed that US intelligence only had “low to moderate” confidence in the story. According to the intelligence officials, the Russian-bounties story originated from interrogations of captured militants. Without additional corroboration, the intelligence community assessed that the information was not reliable and was possibly false.

The quality of your written product depends first and foremost on the quality of the underlying research. When doing that research, learn to strike the balance between being comprehensive and delivering your paper on time. Also, be conscious of your own biases when researching. It’s human nature to use sources that confirm what we already believe. Not to worry: How to double-check your analysis using structured analytic techniques is covered in the next chapter.

EXERCISES IN EVALUATING SOURCES

These exercises are designed to stimulate in-class or seminar discussion about information, its sources, and its evaluation. There is no single answer to any exercise.

Group Exercises

Exercise 1

In evaluating information and intelligence, we must continually ask if the *basic interrogatives* are answered: Who? What? Where? When? Why? How? This seminar is designed to facilitate discussion in peer groups about where our information comes from and how we look at that information in terms of source reliability and information accuracy:

- **Information:** Unevaluated material of every description, at all levels of reliability, and from any source that might contain intelligence information.
- **Intelligence Information:** Information of potential intelligence value concerning the capabilities, intentions, and activities of any foreign power, organization, or associated personnel.

Reliability of sources can be denoted by the letters A–F. Accuracy of information can be represented by numbers 1–6. Although the system of letters (A–F) and numbers (1–6) is no longer widely used in the community, it can be useful in evaluating sources:

- A = completely reliable
- B = usually reliable
- C = fairly reliable
- D = not usually reliable
- E = unreliable
- F = reliability cannot be judged
- 1 = confirmed by other sources
- 2 = probably true
- 3 = possibly true
- 4 = doubtful
- 5 = improbable
- 6 = truth cannot be judged

Read carefully each of the following seven statements. Then discuss with your group how that statement does or does not apply to your organization or some organization with which you are familiar. For example, for statement 1, you might discuss how your organization uses information; for statement 4, you might discuss source levels with which you personally deal:

1. Consider four levels of sources when evaluating intelligence information: primary, secondary, tertiary, and quaternary.
2. Information is classified for many reasons. Among the most important reasons are to prevent disclosure, to protect intelligence sources and methods, and to prevent damage to national security.
3. Caveats are used to establish specific criteria for the disclosure of information. Frequently used caveats include Noform, Wnintel, Orcon, Propin, No-contract, and certain code words.
4. Compartmentation of information includes formal systems of restricted access. The programs are established and managed by the director of national intelligence through the director of central intelligence to protect the sensitive aspects of intelligence sources, methods, and analytical procedures. The collective products of compartmentation are referred to as sensitive compartmented information (SCI) and must be afforded extraordinary means of protection. SCI material cannot be used outside a sensitive compartmented information facility (SCIF).
5. Information may be released or disclosed based on access, security clearance, and—importantly—an individual’s need to know.
6. Decompartmentation removes information from a compartment *without altering* the information to conceal sources, methods, or analytical procedures.
7. In sanitizing information, we edit and alter it to protect sources and methods and to permit wider dissemination.

Exercise 2

The point of this exercise to learn how to recognize, describe, and apply competencies developed by the director of national intelligence (DNI) for rigorous analysis. To complete this assignment, complete the following:

1. Read excerpts from the October 2002 national intelligence estimate (NIE) “Iraq’s Weapons of Mass Destruction Programs.”
2. Read the Central Intelligence Agency’s *Results of CIA Contact with BND Source “Curveball”* (June 2, 2004).¹⁴
3. After reading the documents, answer the following questions in discussion groups: As it relates to the source “Curveball,” did the analysts adhere to best practices outlined in IC analytic standards 103 (see page 73)? Were ambiguities in the quality of the source accurately conveyed in the language of the NIE?

Doc 1: Excerpts from Key Judgments [from October 2002 NIE]*Iraq's Continuing Programs for Weapons of Mass Destruction*

We assess that Baghdad has begun renewed production of mustard, sarin, GF (cyclosarin), and VX; its capability probably is more limited now than it was at the time of the Gulf war, although VX production and agent storage life probably have been improved.

- An array of clandestine reporting reveals that Baghdad has procured covertly the types and quantities of chemicals and equipment sufficient to allow limited CW agent production hidden within Iraq's legitimate chemical industry.
- Although we have little specific information on Iraq's CW stockpile, Saddam probably has stocked at least 100 metric tons (MT) and possibly as much as 500 MT of CW agents—much of it added in the last year.
- The Iraqis have experience in manufacturing CW bombs, artillery rockets, and projectiles. We assess that they possess CW bulk fills for SRBM warheads, including for a limited number of covertly stored Scuds, possibly a few with extended ranges.

We judge that all key aspects—R&D, production, and weaponization—of Iraq's offensive BW program are active and that most elements are larger and more advanced than they were before the Gulf war.

- We judge Iraq has some lethal and incapacitating BW agents and is capable of quickly producing and weaponizing a variety of such agents, including anthrax, for delivery by bombs, missiles, aerial sprayers, and covert operatives.

Chances are even that smallpox is part of Iraq's offensive BW program.

Baghdad probably has developed genetically engineered BW agents.

- Baghdad has established a large-scale, redundant, and concealed BW agent production capability.

Baghdad has mobile facilities for producing bacterial and toxin BW agents; these facilities can evade detection and are highly

survivable. Within three to six months [Corrected per Errata sheet issued in October 2002] these units probably could produce an amount of agent equal to the total that Iraq produced in the years prior to the Gulf war.

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BOTTOM LINE UP FRONT

Before putting words on the page, you need to make sure your analysis is solid. Use one or more structured analytic techniques to generate ideas and account for systematic biases and random noise.

STRUCTURED ANALYTIC TECHNIQUES

We all have cognitive blind spots. Sometimes we impose our own values and patterns of thinking on others. Other times we take new evidence as confirmation of existing beliefs or theories. We value consensus over critical thinking. It's human nature.

To combat these types of pitfalls of human thinking and promote rigorous analysis, use structured analytic techniques (SATs), designed to address the “complexity of international developments, incomplete and ambiguous information, and the inherent limitations of the human mind.” These techniques will help you methodically deconstruct problems in a manner that can be reviewed, documented, and critiqued. Consider a few of the following techniques during the analysis process. You can finish some in a few minutes, while others might require the help of colleagues and several days to wrap up.¹

Brainstorm: Zoom Out

Brainstorming is an excellent tool to use early in the process to generate ideas and refine your analysis. It is possible, of course, to brainstorm all by yourself.

Because most writing tends to be a solitary affair, why not start the creative process while you're sequestered, away from prying—and critical—eyes?

When working alone, find a quiet place and equip yourself with paper, a whiteboard, or a computer. It's most productive if you can brainstorm for five or ten minutes uninterrupted. Jot down or type the thoughts as they occur to you without stopping to criticize them. Just a word or two for each idea in a linear or columnar format should suffice. Save the critique for later in the process. After you have exhausted your bank of ideas, take a break. Leave some time and space between your list and your review. Return to the project with a fresh perspective and a clear head.

You might consider having colleagues or classmates help you brainstorm. You'll need to be a moderator, establishing some ground rules early in the session. For example, after introducing your topic and where you stand in the writing, ask participants to take turns, generating as many ideas as they can in a fixed amount of time. Refrain from commenting on any of the ideas during the brainstorming process. Better yet: Have everyone write down their ideas and submit them to the moderator to be shared anonymously. In the initial phase, every effort should be made to keep an open mind. Negative comments discourage sharing of ideas.

After all participants are satisfied that their ideas are spent, delve into some of the more promising comments, and solicit further information or critique from the group. Rapidly sharing ideas often lends anonymity to those who might otherwise be reluctant to share. That is, if everyone has been throwing out ideas over a period of three to five minutes, then it will probably be difficult to recall specifically who came up with which idea. If you're concerned about power dynamics in the group, have everyone anonymously write down their ideas on a sheet of paper and put them at the center of the table.

In a classroom setting, the brainstorming process happens exactly the same way. In this case, the professor becomes the moderator, forms the class into groups, and monitors the activity to ensure that students remain focused on the topic. Time should be allocated so all groups can share the results of their session with the remainder of the class.

A Tradecraft Primer: Structured Analytic Techniques for Improving Intelligence Analysis provides these rules:

1. Never censor an analyst's ideas, no matter how unconventional they might sound.
2. Rather find out what prompted the thought, as it might contain the seeds of an important connection between the topic and an unstated assumption.

3. Give yourself enough time to brainstorm correctly. It usually takes one hour to set the rules of the game, get the group comfortable, and exhaust the conventional wisdom on the topic. Only then will the truly creative ideas begin to emerge.
4. Involve at least one “outsider” in the process—that is, someone who does not share the same educational background, culture, technical knowledge, or mind-set as the core group but who has some familiarity with the topic.

This entire group process, if accomplished efficiently, should require only twenty to thirty minutes. It’s time well spent. Research shows teams are on average 23 percent more accurate than individuals in predicting the future.²

Devil’s Advocacy

The downside to working in teams is *group think*, where individuals over-value consensus and fail to challenge assumptions or ask tough questions that might upset their colleagues. The cycle is self-reinforcing because once consensus is achieved, individuals within the group take confidence from the fact that everyone believes what they do.

In their book, *Superforecasting: The Art and Science of Prediction*, Dan Garner and Phil Tetlock used the Kennedy administration’s Bay of Pigs fiasco as an example of the dangers of group think. They wondered what might have happened if JFK’s national security team worried less about consensus and instead asked tough, precise questions when planning the Bay of Pigs operation:

“So what happens if they’re attacked and the plan falls apart?”

“They retreat into the Escambray Mountains, where they can meet up with other anti-Castro forces and plan guerrilla operations.”

“How far is it from the proposed landing site in the Bay of Pigs to the Escambray Mountains?”

“Eighty miles.”

“And what’s the terrain?”

“Mostly swamp and jungle.”

“So the guerrillas have been attacked. The plan has fallen apart. They don’t have helicopters or tanks. But they have to cross eighty miles of swamp and jungle before they can begin to look for shelter in the mountains? Is that correct?”

We suspect that this conversation would not have concluded with “Sounds good!”

When the same national security team faced the Cuban missile crisis, a new process was in place that brought in outsiders to challenge the consensus and encourage all opinions regardless of rank or expertise. President Kennedy also tasked his brother Robert with questioning every assumption. “The lesson was learned, resulting in the robust but respectful debates of the Cuban missile crisis,” Tetlock and Garner write.³

When a supervisor suspects group think, they can use devil’s advocacy to contradict the prevailing view. The first step is usually a “key assumptions check,” challenging the group’s underlying beliefs that sustain their analysis. This is a good way to begin the analysis process. It provides a simple but effective way to check confirmation bias that often excludes information that doesn’t support preconceptions.

A Tradecraft Primer advises using these steps:

1. Review what the current analytic line on this issue appears to be; write it down for all to see.
2. Articulate all the premises, both stated and unstated in finished intelligence, which are accepted as true for this analytic line to be valid.
3. Challenge each assumption, asking why it “must” be true and whether it remains valid under all conditions.
4. Refine the list of key assumptions to contain only those that “must be true” to sustain your analytic line; consider under what conditions or in the face of what information these assumptions might not hold.

During the process, ask these questions:

- How much confidence exists that this assumption is correct?
- What explains the degree of confidence in the assumption?
- What circumstances or information might undermine this assumption?
- Is a key assumption more likely a key uncertainty or key factor?
- Could the assumption have been true in the past but less so now?
- If the assumption proves to be wrong, would it significantly alter the analytic line? How?
- Has this process identified new factors that need further analysis?

Devil’s advocacy will serve as a check against dominant mind-sets. It can also help highlight some of the weaknesses in a judgment or alternatively help to reaffirm confidence in the analysis.

After the failure to anticipate a surprise Egyptian attack in the October 1973 Yom Kippur War, Israel created “The Tenth Man,” a form of devil’s advocacy. If there is a group of ten analysts working with the same intelligence and nine analysts reach the same conclusion, then it is the responsibility of the tenth is to challenge the consensus. Yosef Kuperwasser, the former head of the Research Division of the Israel Defense Forces, says the most experienced and creative officers are chosen to challenge all assumptions. “The devil’s advocate office also proactively combats group think and conventional wisdom by writing papers that examine the possibility of a radical and negative change occurring within the security environment,” he writes. “This is done even when the defense establishment does not think that such a development is likely, precisely to explore alternative assumptions and worst-case scenarios.”⁴

Indicators or Signposts of Change

From October 2021 to February 2022, the Russian military continued a steady buildup of forces along the border with Ukraine. Nobody was sure what was coming. Vladimir Putin had previously attacked his neighbors, invading Georgia in 2008 and seizing Crimea in 2014. He had also bluffed in the past, positioning forces only to pull them back when action looked imminent. In similar moments of extreme uncertainty, analysts can use indicators or signposts of change to track developments. It will only take a short time to identify the essential variables needed to monitor and evaluate changes. It is especially useful when a particular hypothesis is controversial, focusing the analysis on observable indicators or signposts and depersonalizing the process.

The process should follow these steps:

1. Identify a set of competing hypotheses or scenarios.
2. Create separate lists of potential activities, statements, or events expected for each hypothesis or scenario.
3. Regularly review and update the indicators lists to see which are changing.
4. Identify the most likely or most correct hypotheses or scenarios based on the number of changed indicators that are observed.

Once completed, variables included in the intelligence report allow the consumer to follow the situation and make the analytic reasoning more transparent and easier to scrutinize.

Analysis of Competing Hypotheses

In cases where there's a lot of data to organize and process and where deception and denial are possible, use analysis of competing hypotheses (ACH) to identify alternative explanations and look for evidence that could invalidate underlying theories. To do so, the analysts should follow these steps:

1. Brainstorm among analysts with different perspectives to identify all possible hypotheses.
2. List all significant evidence and arguments relevant to all the hypotheses.
3. Prepare a matrix with hypotheses across the top and each piece of evidence on the side. Determine whether each piece of evidence is consistent, inconsistent, or not applicable to each hypothesis.
4. Refine the matrix and reconsider the hypotheses. In some cases, analysts will need to add new hypotheses and reexamine the information available.
5. Focus on disproving hypotheses rather than proving one. Tally the pieces of evidence that are inconsistent and consistent with each hypothesis to see which explanations are the weakest and strongest.
6. Analyze how sensitive the ACH results are to a few crucial items of evidence; should those pieces prove to be wrong, misleading, or subject to deception, how would it affect an explanation's validity?
7. Ask what evidence is not being seen but would be expected for a given hypothesis to be true. Are denial and deception a possibility?
8. Report all the conclusions, including the weaker hypotheses that should still be monitored as new information becomes available.
9. Establish the relative likelihood for the hypotheses, and report all the conclusions, including the weaker hypotheses that should still be monitored as new information becomes available.
10. Identify and monitor indicators that would be both consistent and inconsistent with the full set of hypotheses. In the latter case, explore what could account for inconsistent data.

Let's go back to Tetlock and Garner on how these types of alternative viewpoints fit in the analytic process:

Unpack the question into components. Distinguish as sharply as you can between the known and unknown and leave no assumptions unscrutinized.

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Secret**Intelligence Report**

21 January 1998

*Office of Asian Pacific and Latin American Analysis***Exploring the Implications of Alternative North Korean Endgames:
Results From a Discussion Panel on Continuing Coexistence Between
North and South Korea****An Introductory Note**

The [] Group recently convened a panel of Northeast Asian specialists to further examine some issues that arose from the March 1997 Intelligence Community crisis simulation on alternative Korean endgames. In that simulation, regional dynamics were examined in response to a limited North Korean invasion of the South, a coup attempt and resulting civil war in the North, and a peaceful unification under Seoul's leadership.

- The specialists panel included former US policymakers, academic experts, analysts from leading foreign policy institutes and the Congressional Research Service, and both active and retired military and intelligence officers (see appendix A). []

This report summarizes the panel's deliberations on an alternative outcome that was alluded to but not explored in the March crisis simulation. Specifically, the simulation revealed that the optimum Korean endgame from South Korea's perspective would be a gradual process of reconciliation leading to eventual reunification on South Korean terms without unacceptable economic consequences. Consequently, the panel was asked to consider both the potential for reconciliation and the implications of a potentially prolonged period of competitive coexistence between the two Korean states. []

APPROVED FOR RELEASE
DATE: MAR 2004

Neither the panel's deliberations nor this report are intended to predict the future course of events on the Korean Peninsula. Rather, the panel's discussions should be viewed as an interactive effort by the participants to identify key factors that need to be considered in assessing the prospects for or against the possible continuation of a

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Fig. 5.1. In 1997, the CIA devoted at least two exercises to exploring the national security implications of different endgame scenarios on the Korean Peninsula. The results of one of those exercises are reported in this January 1998 Intelligence Report. "Central Intelligence Agency, North Korea's Collapse? The End Is Near—Maybe." January 21, 1998. The document is #14 in National Security Archive Electronic Briefing Book No. 205. These materials are reproduced from www.nsarchive.org with the permission of the National Security Archive.

Adopt the outside view and put the problem into a comparative perspective that downplays its uniqueness and treats it as a special case of a wider class of phenomena. Then adopt the inside view that plays up the uniqueness of the problem. Also, explore the similarities and differences between your views and those of others—and pay special attention to prediction markets and other methods of extracting wisdom from crowds. Synthesize all these different views into a single vision as acute as that of a dragonfly. Finally, express your judgment as precisely as you can, using a finely-grained scale of probability.

When done right, ACH helps analysts to avoid picking the first answer that occurs to them instead of the best answer given the available data.

Red Teams

Perhaps no analytic mistake plagues the intelligence community more than when an analyst perceives and processes information through their personal experience. It's highly unlikely you will have an intimate knowledge of the culture and history of the people you're analyzing. In the absence of that knowledge, it's natural for us to assume the people we're analyzing think and act the way we do.

It's called "mirror imaging." This is the mistake US analysts made in 1990, when Saddam Hussein's government was threatening to attack its oil-rich neighbor Kuwait. All summer, Kuwait had increased its oil production, driving down the cost of crude. The attendant drop in oil prices drastically cut Saddam Hussein's main source of foreign currency and crushed Iraq's economy. By July, an increasingly furious Hussein was placing tanks, artillery batteries, and infantry just over the border from Kuwait. "I don't think there was any serious contingency planning going on, because I don't think anybody believed that he [Saddam Hussein] would take all of Kuwait," Deputy National Security Advisor Robert Gates later admitted.

At two o'clock in the morning on August 2, Iraqi forces crossed the border, overwhelming the Kuwaiti military and forcing the emir and his government into exile. Despite all the warnings over the summer, American analysts were caught by surprise, having believed that Iraq's military posturing was meant to intimidate Kuwait. To them, it made no sense to invade a country over what amounted to a trade dispute. But they weren't Saddam Hussein, were they?⁵

To untether analysts from their cultural and personal values, red teams are created to assume the role of the adversary. Once you have a group assembled, the red team should complete the following steps:

1. Put themselves in the adversary's circumstances, and react to foreign stimuli as the target would.
2. Develop a set of first-person questions that the adversary would ask, such as "How would I perceive incoming information? What would be my personal concerns? To whom would I look for an opinion?"
3. Draft a set of policy papers in which the leader or group makes specific decisions, proposes recommendations, or lays out courses of action. The more these papers reflect the cultural and personal norms of the target, the more they can offer a different perspective on the analytic problem.

The written product is typically in a first-person memo to or from a leader or group. Unlike the typical intelligence product, red-team analysis does not use caveats or qualifications.

Alternative Futures Analysis

It's natural to assume things tomorrow will look pretty much the same as today, but that's often a mistake. Author Nassim Taleb uses the example of the Thanksgiving turkey. "Consider a turkey that is fed every day," he writes. "Every single feeding will firm up the bird's belief that it is the general rule of life to be fed every day by friendly members of the human race 'looking out for its best interests,' as a politician would say. On the afternoon of the Wednesday before Thanksgiving, something unexpected will happen to the turkey. It will incur a revision of belief."⁶

Don't be the turkey. Instead, use alternative futures analysis (AFA) to systematically explore different ways complex and uncertain scenarios can develop. The process typically follows these steps:

1. Develop the focal issue by systematically interviewing experts and officials who are examining the general topic.
2. Convene a group of experts (both internal and external) to brainstorm the forces and factors that could affect the focal issue.
3. Select by consensus the two most crucial and uncertain forces, and convert these into axes or continua, with the most relevant end points assigned.
4. Establish the most relevant end points for each factor. For example, if economic growth were the most crucial, uncertain force, then the end points could be "fast" and "slow" or "transformative" and "stabilizing," depending on the type of issue addressed.

5. Form a futures matrix by crossing the two chosen axes. The four resulting quadrants provide the basis for characterizing alternative future worlds.
6. Generate colorful stories that describe these futures and how they could plausibly come about. Signposts or indicators can then be developed.

Properly done, AFA can help policy makers consider how current decisions or strategies would work and identify alternative policies that might work better in dynamic situations.

FINAL THOUGHTS

We all carry our cognitive baggage into our analysis. It's inevitable. However, using structured analytic techniques like devil's advocacy and alternative futures analysis can organize your thinking about intelligence problems and check systematic biases and random noise. Once that analysis is done, it's time to start writing. The next chapter explains how to get started on organizing the clear and concise products required of the intelligence profession.

EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS

Group Exercises

Exercise 1

This is a variation of a red-team exercise that identifies vulnerabilities by looking at a situation from the perspective of opposing teams. That perspective can help identify gaps in thinking and generate collection requirements. There is no single answer to any exercise.

The leader of the exercise should complete these steps:

1. Divide your group into two teams: Red and Blue.
2. Pick a location where a target is being picked up and a location where the target will be delivered.
3. Give each group the following information and ask them to devise a strategy.

Red Team: Your group has just received information that a high-value target is traveling from the location A to location B the following day at 11:00 a.m. The target will probably be traveling in a convoy of three to four SUVs. The

high command of your revolutionary group wants the target captured. This is not a suicide mission. You are not martyring yourself for the cause. You want to minimize casualties for your own group.

You have three fire teams (three men). You have six 9 mm pistols, three AR-15 rifles, handmade explosive devices, and Molotov cocktails. You have three stolen vehicles—a Hyundai Veloster N, a Tahoe, and Tacoma pickup. You also have one tire-deflation device. Devise a plan for grabbing the target. Your plan will address each of the following:

- Map recon (What are possible routes and features?)
- Travel-surface recon (Is it a dirt road or paved? Hilly or flat?)
- Hazard analysis (Are there vulnerable locations on the route: stop signs, overpasses, high buildings, stop lights, construction, etc.?)
- Vehicle-hardening plan (Are the vehicles likely to be armored? How does that affect your planning?)
- Countersurveillance plan (Can you position covert assets along the route? Is it possible to camouflage conceal and deceive? Remember: You don't want to needlessly endanger your people.)
- Crisis response plan (How do you respond if your plan does not go as planned?)
- Communication plan (How do you effectively communicate in the field? Do the people on the ground make decisions, or is the leadership making the calls?)

Blue Team: Your team is tasked with delivering a VIP to a speaking engagement the following day. You will be traveling from location A to location B at approximately 11:00 a.m. Your team consists of a convoy of four SUVs (two officers per vehicle). You have an informant connected to the group who believes the high command of a revolutionary group wants the target captured or killed. However, these are not jihadists and do not want to martyr themselves.

Intelligence indicates the group is armed with pistols, AR-15 rifles, and handmade explosive devices. You do not know how many men they have available, but it is likely not more than ten. You do not know where they are operating from or where they will retreat to if they attack.

Devise a route security plan to ensure that the VIP is not kidnapped or killed. Keep in mind that the individual you are escorting must be on time, and you must take a relatively straight route to location B, though some variance is possible. Your route security plan will address each of the following:

- Map recon
- Travel-surface recon

- Hazard analysis
- Vehicle-hardening plan
- Countersurveillance plan
- Crisis response plan
- Communication plan

After each group briefs on their respective plans, discuss what each group anticipated from the other and how they might have performed. The exercise should point to vulnerabilities that can be mitigated with better planning.

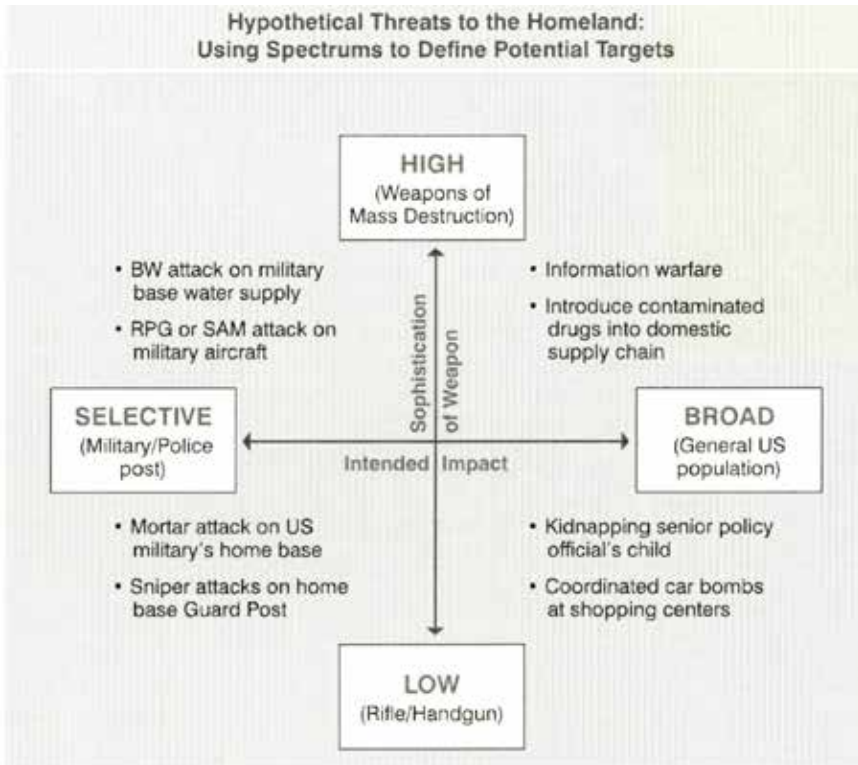
Exercise 2

The point of this exercise is to put analysts in the same cultural, organizational, and personal situation in which the target individual or group operates. Follow these steps:

1. Put yourself into the shoes of an Islamic State commander. Your caliphate is destroyed; the money is gone; and your forces are dead, jailed, or scattered. In all directions there are enemies: Kurds, Turks, Iranians, Americans, Russians, Syrians.
2. Write a memo (one to two pages) outlining a broad strategy for resurrecting the Islamic State. Briefly address the following in the memo:
 - How do you rally your people after predictions of a victory over “Rome” failed?
 - What is the military/political strategy moving forward?
 - What is the timeline for completion of your strategy?
3. Once the memo is completed, have each person brief their plan to the group.
4. After everyone has briefed, discuss the differences and similarities between the approaches. Remember: You don’t need consensus. The exercise is meant to provide a range of perspectives.

Exercise 3

1. As a group, pick a current event in the news, and develop the focal issue about that topic.
2. Brainstorm in a group the factors that could affect the focal issue.



A Futures Exercise. The graphic captures four potential futures to understand how foreign insurgents might carry out an attack on the United States. A brainstorming exercise helped analysts identify two key uncertainties (the sophistication of weapons used by the insurgents and the intended impact of the attack) and arrayed these factors on a graph as the "x" and "y" axes. The four resulting quadrants in the 2 x 2 matrix allowed analysts to visualize potential targets from the various combinations (low to high sophistication of weapons and selective to broad intended impact of an attack). For example, if a group possessed highly sophisticated weapons and intended a broad attack on the United States, potential targets could include computer networks and domestic drug supplies. Having filled in a quadrant, analysts can then turn to devising likely indicators or signposts of such a future.

Fig. 5.2. Hypothetical Threats to the Homeland: Using Spectrums to Define Potential Targets, A Tradecraft Primer.

3. Select by consensus the two most crucial and uncertain forces, and convert these into axes or continua with the most relevant end points assigned (see figure 5.2)
4. Establish the most relevant end points for each factor. For example, if economic growth were the most crucial, uncertain force, then the end points could be "fast" and "slow" or "transformative" and "stabilizing," depending on the type of issue addressed.

5. Form a futures matrix by crossing the two chosen axes (see Fig. 5.2). The four resulting quadrants provide the basis for characterizing alternative future worlds.
6. Generate colorful stories that describe these futures and how they could plausibly come about. Signposts or indicators can then be developed.
7. Once the four scenarios are created, the group should consider how different policy would fare and devise alternative strategies that might be more effective in the face of change.

NOTES

1. Unless otherwise noted, material in this section is drawn from Center for the Study of Intelligence, *A Tradecraft Primer: Structured Analytic Techniques for Improving Intelligence Analysis* (Washington, DC: US Central Intelligence Agency, 2009), accessed January 12, 2022, <https://www.cia.gov/static/955180a45afe3f5013772c313b16face/Tradecraft-Primer-apr09.pdf>.
2. Philip Tetlock and Dan Gardner, *Superforecasting: The Art and Science of Prediction* (New York: Crown, 2015), 201.
3. Tetlock and Gardner, *Superforecasting*, 200.
4. Yosef Kuperwasser, "Lessons from Israel's Intelligence Reforms" (Analysis Paper no. 14, Saban Center for Middle East Policy at the Brookings Institution, October 2007), accessed July 5, 2022, https://www.brookings.edu/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/10_intelligence_kuperwasser.pdf.
5. Caryle Murphy, "Iraqi Leader Gets New Title as Kuwaiti Anxiety Grows," *Washington Post*, July 20, 1990, accessed February 12, 2022, <https://www.washingtonpost.com/archive/politics/1990/07/20/iraqi-leader-gets-new-title-as-kuwaiti-anxiety-grows/a88ec147-59cc-4b96-b0f1-d17e630594db/>.
6. Nassim Nicholas Taleb, *The Black Swan: The Impact of the Highly Improbable* (New York: Random House, 2007).

Prewriting

BOTTOM LINE UP FRONT

One of the most basic considerations in the style of any product is its organization. This is a process that enables you to first outline and then write in a more orderly manner. Consider organization as you do your prewriting, which is a distinct phase of the process wherein you identify precisely the topic you'll be writing about and devote time to narrowing and focusing on that topic. Once that is done, use freewriting to stimulate your thoughts and creativity before you begin the first draft.

Key Points

- Zero in on your subject. Focus on the external type and the internal format your product will take. Organize your time and space requirements in advance, using a milestones list.
- Freewrite, letting the words flow as quickly as you can. Write for ten minutes without pausing and then stop. Outline your paper, using either words and phrases (topic outline) or complete sentences (topic sentence outline).
- While prewriting, avoid the temptation to move into the writing and revision phases.
- Every minute you spend prewriting will earn a dividend of *at least one* minute in the writing and revision stages.

FINDING YOUR SUBJECT: THE SEARCH FOR SUBSTANCE

In the early stages of writing, it's important to clearly identify the subject, topic, or theme you'll be writing about. That should go without saying, but you'd be surprised at the number of students and intelligence professionals who are assigned a vague, general task and who charge off to their keyboards without the foggiest notion of where they're going. The important idea here is to clarify the topic *early* and to be certain that it's *clear* to you, your fellow students, your coworkers or subordinates who may be helping you, and even your supervisors.

In college, your writing assignments come from your professors. In the intelligence community, many writing tasks come down through the chain of command. Often, they are generated by a casual remark in a briefing or meeting. "The general" finds something of interest and muses, "I wonder what would happen if . . ." The next thing you know, there's a tasker on your desk telling you to write a five-page fact sheet on the subject. There's no easy way around this problem, but there are some techniques for focusing on the problem. The best one is some form of prewriting. First, however, a few general rules apply to all the prewriting methods.

FOCUSING ON FORM AND FORMAT

Once you've managed to clarify your task or to redefine your problem in manageable terms, you must identify the form of the product you'll be writing. Determine its external shape precisely. Is it to be a thesis? A research paper? A fact sheet? An estimate? A current intelligence product? Do not become trapped into being tasked to write "a paper." Find out early exactly what kind of paper is wanted. If you have latitude for creativity in the selection of the product's form, congratulations. That kind of leeway is rarely allowed.

Generally speaking, there are three broad types of products in the intelligence community, whether electronic or hard copy: scheduled, initiative, and ad hoc. *Scheduled* products are the ones programmed months, even years, in advance for publication on a recurring or nonrecurring basis. Consumers of intelligence products can consult catalogs to get an idea of when certain products will be published. *Initiative* products are the dream. The lucky student or analyst who has the chance to sit back and think about something that really needs to be written is the exception in our business. But it does happen, and products are generated through the initiative. By far the most prevalent product type in the intelligence business is the *ad hoc* one. The phone rings and someone in another command or agency needs information

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RWANDA

REFUGEE FACT SHEET

RELEASED IN FULL

I. NUMBERS: REFUGEES AND DISPLACED PERSONS

- * **Burundi Refugees in Rwanda:** There are currently about 287,000 Burundi Refugees in Rwanda. More than 300,000 arrived following the October 1993 coup attempt and inter-ethnic conflict in Burundi; after repatriation in early 1994, some 260,000 remain. An additional 25,000 remain from an influx in 1972.
- * **Rwandan Refugees:** There are an estimated 550,000 Rwandan refugees in Central Africa, most of whom fled Rwanda during the 1959 - 1964 period. Countries of asylum are as follows:

Uganda:	200,000
Burundi:	245,000
Tanzania:	50,000
Zaire:	50,000
- * **Rwandan Displaced Persons:** Approximately 350,000 Rwandans, down from 900,000 in 1993, remain displaced in northern Rwanda due to the conflict between the Government of Rwanda and the Rwandan Patriotic Front. Many are currently returning home.

II. HUMANITARIAN ASSISTANCE

- * **Burundi Refugees:** UNHCR is coordinating assistance to the new Burundi refugees in cooperation with non-governmental organizations (NGOs). The UN World Food Program (WFP) is supplying food aid. The International Federation of Red Cross/Crescent Societies (IFRC) and the Rwandan Red Cross are distributing food and non-food relief. Medecins sans Frontieres/Belgium and Holland (MSF), Medecins du Monde (MDM), and CARITAS are providing health care. CARE and OXFAM have set up water systems.
- * **Rwandan Refugees:** The bulk of Rwanda's 550,000 refugees are considered self-sufficient and are no longer assisted by the international community. UNHCR provides minimal assistance to 80,000 refugees in Uganda and 77,000 in

Fig. 6.1. A fact sheet traces the history of the refugee problem in Rwanda back to the overthrow of the Tutsi monarchy in Rwanda in 1959, and the forced exodus of the former Tutsi elite. State Department, Rwanda Refugee Fact Sheet, March 31, 1994. The document is #13 in National Security Archive Electronic Briefing Book No. 464. These materials are reproduced from www.nsarchive.org with the permission of the National Security Archive.

for an important briefing the next day. The resulting research takes you two hours. In the middle of that project, the boss drops an assignment on your desk—a paper for the deputy director, who needs an answer by yesterday. That's the analyst's day.

Once you've determined the type of product you'll be doing and its form, the format should come a bit easier. Whereas the form was the *external* shape of the paper, the format is its *internal* content. Administrative personnel, colleagues, and the office procedures of your command or agency can be extremely helpful in guiding you through the myriad formats in the intelligence community. Many organizations post their report formats online. Ask the administrative people and/or colleagues to help you determine the exact format of a fact sheet, background paper, or whatever you're tasked to produce. Where answers are not readily available, consult with your professor or your supervisor. It makes everyone's work easier if you submit your draft in the correct format.

MANAGING TIME AND DETERMINING LENGTH

One of the most difficult tasks faced by students and professionals every day is finding the *time* to do everything they need to do, but when you have a writing assignment, you must find the time to do it. While you're still getting organized to do the writing, sit down and work out a *plan* for your writing. Again, prewriting will help here, but the important early problem is to *establish milestones* in your writing requirement. Start with the due date and work backward.

Take the example of a paper due next Monday to Lieutenant Colonel Brady. It's now Tuesday morning. Including today, you have four weekdays to finish the project. You know you must allow time for the administrative preparation. Calculate early how much time it will take you to prepare the paper in the proper format. Then rest assured that each person in the chain of command between you and the lieutenant colonel will want to see and comment on the product before it goes to him. Build that time into your schedule. *Write down your expected milestones.* Then try to stick to them as closely as possible. Wherever possible, submit the drafts electronically to peer reviewers and superiors.

If you're more comfortable reading from top to bottom, you can always reverse your list, but construct it working backward from the due date. The process works exactly the same in planning for a term paper or a master's thesis. Remember: When one milestone slips, all the others will, too, *except one*—the lieutenant colonel (or the professor).

Your consideration of time should include not only what is available to *you* but also what is available to your anticipated reader. In general, the higher the rank, the shorter the paper. Most commands and agencies have specific formats for succinct products like fact sheets, background papers, and talking

papers. Know in advance what will be expected of you. It's usually not enough just to write a one-page fact sheet. Often, you'll be required to accompany the fact sheet with a staff summary sheet or some other explanatory paperwork that tells all intermediate supervisors what you're doing and why you're doing it and then asks for their coordination or signature. All these extras take *time*. In fact, they often require *more* time than the paper itself. Allow for that time when planning your milestones.

The *length desired* is another reader consideration. Higher-ranking readers want concise papers without the details you might include for a colleague or peer. The product's form and format generally predetermine the number of pages. Consult your format guides. The best practice is to have a successful example of the required product to use as a guideline. Nothing succeeds like success. If you can find a paper that has run the gauntlet and acquired all the necessary signatures, use it as your template.

PREWRITING TOOLS: BUILDING A FOUNDATION

Freewrite

Getting started putting words down is often a problem that can be solved using freewriting. The idea behind freewriting is to keep the pen, pencil, or computer keyboard moving, without stopping. Usually, doing this warms up the writing hand or the keyboard and stimulates the creativity behind the logjam of other words in the mind.

Freewriting is simply writing anything and everything that comes to mind for ten minutes without pausing. If you have a subject area in mind, write whatever enters your mind about that subject for the allotted time. An earlier brainstorming session might serve as the basis for your freewriting. If you're drawing a total blank and can think of *nothing* to write, then write that: "I can't think of a thing to write!" Remember: You're not looking for a finished product here. You're just getting the writing process started.

Having gone through the exercise, what do you do at the end of the ten minutes? If you're not happy with what you've written at the end of ten minutes, throw it in the trash. The idea here is not to be critical of what you have written, but you may wish to read back over your freewriting and see if perhaps some useable idea crept in during those few minutes.

One important aspect of freewriting is that you must not worry about revision, proofreading, spelling, grammar, or any other mechanical stumbling blocks in your path. Begin writing, write freely *but continuously* for ten minutes, and then stop. You can always go back, spell check, or edit to your

heart's content. Don't be distracted by those worries during the initial stages of freewriting.

Outline: Adding Structure

Everyone writes differently. Freewriting might be of little help to you. If that's the case, then maybe some organizational tool will help translate your thoughts into words and get you started. Try outlining if you tend to think in a logical, well-organized, but *linear* fashion.

It's not unusual for analysts to oppose outlining. Those who seem most resistant are those who are experts in their field and feel an outline is superfluous; they can construct the paper in their minds. Undeniably, this type of expertise exists. After a number of repetitive writing assignments in the same area, one might well be able to *dictate* a paper to a stenographer. After all, how many fact sheets can you write in three months on the capabilities of the Chengdu J-20? Generally, I recommend that you start any project with an outline to organize your thoughts and maintain your focus on the topic at hand. Sometimes, the more you know about a subject, the easier it is for your writing and your mind to go on a walkabout.

An outline can also serve you and your superiors as a management tool. For example, if you've been tasked to write an "estimate on the future of the Chengdu J-20," you may find that you need to narrow that topic after you start working on it. Maybe you have already brainstormed the topic and gathered a few more ideas from that process. Next, outline the paper, and proceed with a more narrowly focused perspective. After you review your first draft outline, you may discover that you've redefined the problem to read "An Estimate of Chengdu J-20 Fighter Production into the Third Decade of the Twenty-First Century."

There are two basic types of outline: the *topic* outline and the *topic sentence* outline. The type you use is entirely up to you. Usually, you alone will see the outline, unless you choose to use it as a management tool. The topic outline uses only words and phrases for its major headers. For that reason, it is generated quickly, and it might look like this:

Chengdu J-20

Estimate of Chengdu J-20 Fighter Production, 2022–2032

I. Current production estimates

- A. Assembly plant at Chengdu
- B. Parts and shipping capability
- C. Assembly technology and available skills

II. Projected production capability by 2032

- A. Prospect of additional assembly plants
- B. Increased parts supply
- C. Improved shipping
- D. Better technology and improving skills

III. Implications for the region

You do not need to use roman numerals, capital letters, and so on. Use what is comfortable to you, even if it amounts to asterisks, hyphens, bullets, and dashes. Just keep in mind these two principles about your outline: (1) Entries at the same level should be accorded equal treatment in your paper; that is, the I should equal II, and the As, Bs, and Cs should be of comparable importance. (2) Be consistent throughout, using the same system from start to finish. You'll avoid confusing yourself that way.

The topic sentence outline is one step more advanced. It is probably the best type of outline for use by an experienced analyst in the subject because the act of "fleshing out" the skeletal topic sentences will complete the paper. Each sentence in this outline should be a heavyweight idea that will be the basis for a paragraph or even a section within the final product. Compare this topic sentence outline with the earlier topic outline:

Chengdu J-20

Estimate of Chengdu J-20 Production, 2022–2032

I. We estimate current J-20 production rate is two hundred per year.

- A. Only one assembly plant, in Sichuan Province, is operating.
- B. Capability to manufacture and ship parts is excellent and improving.
- C. Assembly technology is well developed, and necessary skills are available for sustaining the production rate.

II. By 2032, we estimate production will be in excess of four hundred units per year.

- A. Additional assembly plants are under construction in Sichuan Province.
- B. Parts supply is already improving after a recent agreement signed with Russia.
- C. Shipping is expected to improve when new rail lines open in 2030.
- D. Technology and skills are improving as a result of technology transfer and improved training.

III. Serious implications are likely as the balance of air power shifts in the region.

Notice the commonality of form between the two: the same numbering system, the same relative positions of the points made, and the title at the top of each outline. I strongly recommend that you write your subject at the top of the page when you outline. It will be another means of keeping your attention locked on the relevant topic.

FINAL THOUGHTS

This chapter makes a convincing argument that you can write a better paper by prewriting and using basic tools to plan, focus, and organize your thoughts ahead of time. Moreover, freewriting will help get your mental juices flowing before you start cranking out a draft. The thought processes you exercise in preparing to write will pay big dividends on the other end when it's time to write the first draft.

EXERCISES IN PREWRITING

Group Exercise

Begin in your earliest stages of writing to narrow your topic to a manageable focus. Remember that one of the basic premises of intelligence analysis is to break a complex topic down into its components, look at those components individually, then put the pieces together so that they mean something. There is no single answer to any exercise.

“The Middle East” is not a topic. It is a vast geopolitical entity. What do you want to say about it? “The Middle East situation” is a broad, general topic involving many nations and complex problems of history, religion, geography, economics, ethnicity, and others. What about the situation?

Look at the list of general topics below. Choose one, and take notes on how you would narrow that topic to something that might be covered in a fifteen-page analytical paper. You might want to use one or more of the components in the following list of strategic intelligence as guidelines. Talk it over in your group; then be prepared to discuss your topic in class.

General Topic Areas

1. Instability in the Middle East
2. Outlook for Taiwan
3. Prospects for Ukraine
4. The Resurgence of China since 2000

5. Crisis in Syria
6. The Palestinian Question
7. Iranian Nuclear Development
8. South America's Economic Prospects

Components of Strategic Intelligence

1. Biographic
2. Economic
3. Sociological
4. Transportation and Telecommunications
5. Military and Armed Forces
6. Geographic
7. Political
8. Scientific and Technical

Individual Exercise

Freewriting is designed to free the words that may be hung up inside your head. Review the discussion of freewriting earlier in this chapter. Then, on a separate sheet of paper, freewrite for ten minutes on your own topic.

Writing the First Draft

BOTTOM LINE UP FRONT

The first draft is the rough sketch of your finished work. In this stage of writing, don't worry about perfection. Revision comes later. Instead, try to make your writing clear and concise. Clarity ensures that you are understood. Concision requires saying what must be said as economically as possible.

Key Points

- Make the first sentence of each paragraph the topic sentence. Ensure it carries the meaning of the entire paragraph. Use transitions between paragraphs to make the reading smoother.
- Write the main body first and then the conclusions or outlook. Extract the key judgments you've made in the paper, and place them up front. Those key judgments summarize your work and should stand alone.
- Remain objective by evaluating both your sources and your arguments.
- Enhance your paper with meaningful headings and subheadings and an attention-catching title.

DRAFTING: GET RIGHT TO IT

Now you are ready to write the first draft. Seek a place that promotes thoughtful, uninterrupted work. Write when you are the most relaxed, creative, and productive. That might be the early morning (as it is for me) or late at night over a cup of coffee. It doesn't matter where you write. Writing gets done

in some surprising places. Wherever you choose, drafting will be much smoother if you eliminate interruptions from coworkers, classmates, and cell phones.

Set Realistic Goals and Pace Yourself

Whether you are facing a fifteen-page term paper or a twenty-page assessment, you'll probably bang out a draft at the last second, leaving no time for revision. That's a mistake. All first drafts are bad. This is an immutable fact. Instead, write your paper a few pages at a time. You should know most requirements early, such as the due date and length. Sit down immediately with your planning calendar, note the due date, and work backward from there. Allow at least half the time between the assignment date and the due date to look over, revise, and polish your first draft. Then note the date you intend to have a first draft written. That backward-planning sequence will set milestones for doing your research and for writing and revising the paper. Mark your progress, and maintain your schedule. If a milestone slips, then adjust your work in order to finish on schedule.

Write Any Sentence First

Don't sweat trying to craft the perfect first sentence. If introductions intimidate you, then start where you feel more comfortable with the material. Eventually, that first sentence will come to you. If you empty the tank writing a section, then switch to another part of the paper. You can piece it together later. If you continue to suffer from writer's block, then set the paper aside for a couple of hours and come back to it with a clear head.

Write Continuously

The first draft is not the place to revise, censor thoughts, or worry about word choice. Working drafts do not require perfection. In fact, the quest for perfection often causes writer's block, disconnected ideas, and the omission of important material. Stopping to revise also burns time. You'll find yourself going back and forth when you lose your place. Furthermore, you will also lose your train of thought, wasting time that you probably don't have. It bears repeating: Write first. Revise later.

Clarity: Be Kind to Your Reader

What is clear to you might be unintelligible to a reader who lacks your experience or background. Read it again after letting it cool off. Read it aloud. Listen for changes in the rhythm of the writing that sound strange. If it sounds strange, then it is strange. Rewrite to something that sounds natural. You have far more experience talking and listening than writing. Let your ears do the work.

Be conscious of what you are reading. Be objective, and read it as though you have no prior knowledge of the subject. As you read, ask yourself, “Is this clear? Does it make sense?” If you can’t explain an idea, then the problem is not the quality of writing. The reason a sentence is clunky or unclear is because the idea isn’t clear in your head. When this is the case, examine the underlying analysis and conclusions. You need clarity of thought before you can achieve clarity on the page.

In 1963, the international media broadcast images of Buddhist monk Lam Van Tuc burning himself to death on a Saigon street. President John F. Kennedy asked the CIA what the growing Buddhist protests against President Ngo Dinh Diem’s South Vietnamese government meant for the stability of South Vietnam. The national intelligence estimate provided the Kennedy administration with a clear assessment of the situation and predicted Diem’s future if he failed to address the crisis:

[T]he general discontent with the Diem regime which the crisis has exacerbated and brought to the fore is likely to persist. Further, if—as is probable—the regime is dilatory, inept, and insincere in handling Buddhist matters, there will probably be renewed demonstrations, and South Vietnam will probably remain in a state of domestic political tension. Under these circumstances, the chances of a non-Communist assassination or coup attempt against Diem will be better than even. We cannot exclude the possibility of an attempted Communist coup.

The clarity of writing apparently affected JFK’s thinking on the matter. “I don’t think that unless a greater effort is made by the government to win popular support that the war can be won out there,” he told Walter Cronkite after receiving the estimate. “In the final analysis, it is their war. They are the ones who have to win it or lose it.”¹

Concision

Don't confuse concision with brevity. Some long pieces of writing are nonetheless concise because they say only what needs to be said without repetition. Being concise means saying what you need to say in as few words as possible. Cut unneeded verbiage. Be merciless.

Look at the following six phrases (all from intelligence analysts' papers). The italicized portions are deadwood, unnecessary to the meaning of the sentence. They do nothing but fill space and waste the reader's time. Avoid the use of these and similar phrases:

the month of February
the city of Munich
the 1980–81 *period*
a distance of 20 miles
whether or not
at the hour of noon

If you read a section aloud and find yourself pausing midsentence to take a breath, that sentence is too long. Sentences with twenty-five words or more often violate more than one principle of writing. Look at this seventy-eight-word sentence from a student paper:

Frolov's article, which is based primarily on writings of the PLA leadership, demonstrates the urgency behind China's military progression, fully lending support to the hypothesis regarding a reactionary "jolt" of reality after the Gulf War, the war in which anything and everything demonstrated by the US was in real time, multiple generations ahead of the then planned future of the PLA, and thus represented what the Chinese have come to call the new threat landscape, the "hi-tech war."

Did you understand the sentence after one reading? I found myself reading and rereading the sentence, trying to grasp the writer's intended meaning. The sentence shifts its focus from the People's Liberation Army (PLA) leadership to a Chinese "awakening" to the Gulf War to high technology employed by the United States in that war. A reader's mind must make those shifts, too. At first, they might try to hang in there, but not for long. Eventually, they'll give up and stop reading.

Factual Precision

Precision is a hallmark of the intelligence profession. The term itself is synonymous with accuracy and exactness. If you are writing about the

Chengdu J-20 fighter and no one in the intelligence community has any idea of the aircraft's combat radius, do not write, "The Chengdu J-20 is believed to have a substantial combat radius." That's meaningless. Instead, make a positive and precise statement for your reader: "The combat radius of the Chengdu J-20 is unknown." It's no sin to admit an intelligence gap. The more serious mistake is trying to cover up a lack of knowledge by writing around it. Admitting an unknown just might alert someone to an important intelligence gap.

TIME TO GET ORGANIZED

Before you get too deeply into the writing process, you should think about the organizational form you want your product to take. If your subject lends itself to chronological coverage, choose the order of time. Ideal topics for this form would include historical subjects. Temporal organization is easy to outline. Start with the earliest date you want to cover, and work your way up to the most recent date or event. Some periods will emerge as more important than others and should be given additional emphasis in your paper. If, for instance, your paper deals with the rise of Islamic fundamentalism in Saudi Arabia, then you might start with the emergence of a fundamentalist movement within Sunni Islam tied to the Arabian scholar Muhammad ibn Abd al-Wahhab. You would eventually get to the seizure of the Grand Mosque of Mecca and the subsequent rise of al-Qaeda and the Islamic State.

Lost in Space?

Spatial organization refers literally to the way elements of your subject relate to each other. Consider spatial organization in writing about a geographic region. Cover all aspects of the region, starting in a given place, and then proceed in a fixed direction throughout the remainder of the region, covering the same points for each step.

For example, in writing a historical assessment of Russia's military threat to Ukraine, you might start with a brief discussion of previous occupations during the rule of Catherine the Great, Alexander II, and the Soviet Union. You could proceed by analyzing Ukraine's geographic regions from east to west, beginning with the breakaway regions of Donetsk and Luhansk. Then assess the topography that leaves certain regions vulnerable to attack. This would include not only the lack of mountains that could channelize military forces but also the potentially vulnerable southern coastline allowing a potential invasion force to move toward Mariupol and Berdyansk. In a broader

assessment, you might expand your discussion to the potential influence of other countries in the region, such as Belarus and Poland.

That Sounds Logical (You Hope)

At least seven orders of *logic* could be employed in writing an intelligence paper. The following brief explanations give ideas for logically organizing your writing. Some of these—inductive and deductive logic as well as cause and effect—are discussed in more detail in chapter 2 as components of an argument.

Decreasing Importance

The order of decreasing importance leads with the punch line and follows up with supporting material. Obviously, you don't want to have all your most important points in the first few lines and then trail off to nothing in the rest of the paper. Lead with either the key judgments or an executive summary; place the important points of each paragraph and each section toward the start of that paragraph or section. Avoid statements of methodology, such as "In this paper I have . . .," "The purpose of this paper is . . .," and "This paper will examine . . ." They serve no purpose. Besides, if your paper is well-written, these statements are redundant. Put supporting data or analytical methodology in an appendix or annex to avoid distracting the reader.

Increasing Importance

This order of logic is a common technique used by mystery writers but not in the intelligence profession. This organizational structure builds from the least important information to the most important. In the case of the murder mystery, the punch line is the whodunit. If the writer has kept you in suspense until the last page, then you're happy with that mystery. But your reader will never make it to the end of an intelligence product if you use that method. Remember: Intelligence writers hold nothing back. Your obligation is to tell the reader everything you know *up front*.

Comparison

This form of logic involves arriving at a conclusion based on comparing the unknown to something known. You would probably want to use the comparison method in writing about a newly discovered fighter aircraft or ballistic missile. You could find the fighter, foreign or domestic, that most resembles



Fig. 7.1. Soviet and US tactical aircraft. Courtesy of Soviet Military Power, 1984. Photo No. 53, page 55, National Archives.

the recent discovery and compare their characteristics side by side (see Fig. 7.1). In that manner, readers can grasp the significance of important features of the new aircraft in terms of equipment already familiar to them.

Components (or Analysis)

The components (or analysis) order of logic breaks a topic into its component parts, looks at each of those parts, and arrives at a conclusion based on those components. This technique is one you've used many times in buying a big-ticket item, such as a car, as you consider such factors as style, size, gas mileage, safety, repair costs, and comfort. In the intelligence business, this method could work well on a complex piece of equipment or a complicated subject like terrorism. For example, when assessing a newly discovered fighter jet, analysis of known components of the platform—its size, electronics suite, and armament—might yield conclusions about its projected use.

Inductive and Deductive Logic

The next two organizational structures are closely related and can be discussed together: *inductive* logic and *deductive* logic, addressed in greater

detail in chapter 2. When you examine something inductively, you look at a specific point and move to a generality. You might know, for example, that a new fighter aircraft is armed with a missile that makes it particularly suited for air-to-ground operations. You might conclude, then, that its principal purpose is close air support of ground forces. Deductive logic, though, starts with generality and moves to a specific conclusion. If you have noted a new fighter, for example, in a close air support role, then you might conclude that it is armed with a particular type of weapons system. In using both inductive and deductive logic, it is imperative to remember this: Your starting point, whether specific or general, must be defensible. If you start from a position that you cannot or do not support, then you've lost the argument before your reader goes through your process of reasoning.

Cause and Effect

In the cause-and-effect method, you can start with the cause and work forward to the effect, or you can look first at the effect and work backward to the cause. It doesn't matter. What impression do you want to leave in the reader's mind? If you're writing about Islamic fundamentalism in the Maghreb and Sahel, do you want the reader to be left with the effects on North African societies, or would you rather leave them with a clear picture of the root cause of Salafi jihadism? If the cause is most important, go from cause to effect, always keeping the most important points toward the front.

Paragraphing to Group Related Ideas and Details

Paragraphing signals to readers where one idea begins and ends by grouping sentences that focus on one topic. Keep paragraphs at a manageable length, both for you and for the reader. Be certain, as well, that the topic sentence for each paragraph is employed correctly.

Topic Sentence Placement

Readers are most attentive at two points in a paragraph: the beginning and the end. Therefore, a topic sentence is usually in one of those two places. For intelligence writing, put the topic sentence at the beginning to orient the reader. Use the last sentence to either reemphasize the paragraph's main point or to transition into the next paragraph or section.

Wording of Topic Sentences

Because a new paragraph signals a shift in focus, use the topic sentence to clearly reorient the reader. If this new paragraph is developing a topic already introduced, that must be clear. If the paragraph is moving to another topic, inform the reader how this new topic follows from or fits with what was previously discussed.

Paragraphs must be focused, unified, and coherent. The sentences in the paragraph must be meaningfully and clearly related to one another. Note in this paragraph how the writer failed to follow this universal rule:

Quantitative analysis could be the direction in which the future of intelligence is heading. Intelligence analysts quantify enemy order of battle, domestic and economic issues, and population data, as well as other tangible data. It is incumbent on analysts to investigate their intuitive feelings or hunches.

Even though all these sentences relate to analysis and two of them mention a specific type of analysis, there is no unity. No single idea unifies the sentences, nor do the sentences stick together or cohere. The reader feels disoriented.

As you develop topic sentences into paragraphs, you're adding flesh to the bone of each skeletal idea. You'll find that you can review your product by reading only the first sentence of each paragraph and understanding the major thrust of the information being offered. Your reader should be able to do that, too.

TRANSITIONS: MOVING SMOOTHLY AHEAD

Transitions are bridges that connect sentence to sentence and paragraph to paragraph. Transitions not only connect but also indicate how the items are related. Never place the burden of interpretation on the reader. You risk misinterpretations or frustrating a reader who might decide your paper is not worth reading.

Transitions can be divided into three basic groups, depending on the relationships they identify: logical, temporal, and spatial. The writer must first identify how the sentences are related and then select the appropriate word to signal that relationship.

Logical Relationships

Note how the following student uses the transitions *on the other hand* and *however* to introduce opposing points of view:

International attention has been centered on the environmental effects of the Polonoroeste program and the BR-364 highway. The Calha Norte Project, on the other hand, promises to cause more environmental problems in a shorter period of time than the previous Amazon Basin developmental programs ever did. The project has so far been considered a strictly military program; however, under the terms of the national security doctrine still in effect in Brazil, this new program is another step in the drive to develop the Amazon Basin economically.

The following words and phrases indicate logical relationships:

To introduce an additional item: first, second, next, then, furthermore, moreover, in addition, finally, last, besides, as well as

To introduce an illustration: for instance, for example, that is, namely, specifically, in particular

To introduce a cause or result: consequently, as a result, hence, accordingly, thus, so, therefore, then, because, since, for

To introduce a conclusion or summary: in conclusion, finally, in short, to sum up, all in all, clearly, evidently, altogether, of course, to summarize

To introduce a restatement: that is, in other words, in simpler terms, to put it differently, stated another way

To introduce an opposing point: but, however, yet, nevertheless, on the contrary, on the other hand, in contrast, conversely, still

To introduce a concession to an opposing view: certainly, of course, granted, it is true, to be sure

To resume the original line of reasoning after a concession: nonetheless, all the same, even though, still, nevertheless

Temporal Relationships

In addition to showing logical relationships, transitions can signal a progression in time or sequence, as the following student piece demonstrates (*italics mine*):

Hitler and German intelligence underestimated Soviet capabilities. Overconfident with the successes of the preliminary operations, Hitler thought the Red Army was nearing collapse. *As a result*, he diverted one army to Leningrad, two divisions to the West, and two divisions to Army Group Center. *As the offensive*

continued, Hitler would not accept that the Soviet forces were large and becoming increasingly professional while German forces were steadily weakening. *In the end*, German objectives exceeded their means.

The following words introduce temporal relationships:

- **To indicate frequency:** frequently, hourly, often, occasionally, now and then, again and again
- **To indicate a particular time:** then, at that time, in those days, last Sunday, next September, in 2015–2021, at the beginning of fall, at 9:00 a.m., in the morning, three days ago
- **To indicate duration:** during, briefly, for a long time, minute by minute, for many years
- **To indicate the beginning:** at first, in the beginning, before then, in the preceding months, initially
- **To indicate the end:** eventually, finally, at last, in the end, subsequently, later, afterward

Spatial Relationships

Spatial transitions orient readers to objects in a scene. This relationship is demonstrated in the following seminar paper (*italics mine*):

The location of the traveling lock is quite different in the [Russian] tank. On Western tanks, the tie down is *on* the engine compartment roof. For traveling, the turret is rotated *to the rear*, and the gun is locked in position. On the T-55 the tie bar comes *down* from the turret roof and is attached to a lug *on the top of* the breech mechanism. This method was retained since it has the advantage of allowing the crew to prepare the tank for combat without leaving the vehicle.

The following words and phrases introduce spatial relationships:

- **To indicate closeness:** in the vicinity, nearby, close to, near, next, alongside, adjacent to, facing, here
- **To indicate distance:** afar, in the distance, beyond, away, far, on the far side, there
- **To indicate direction:** up, down, forward, backward, sideways, along, across, right, left, front, back, at an angle, above, below, inside, outside

Sending the Right Signal

Don't be like the Scarecrow in *The Wizard of Oz*. When Dorothy asked the way to Oz, he pointed in several directions. We must point in only one direction: the *right* direction for our intent. Using transitions and other methods of cueing the reader will help you keep your readers on track and satisfied.

BLUF: BOTTOM LINE UP FRONT

The most crucial step in energizing a piece of intelligence writing is to have its theme up front. Don't bury the main topic in a sea of useless words and phrases. The bottom line up front and the conclusion are like ushers who work together to manage your audience. The BLUF escorts readers into your analytical space, and the conclusion walks them back out into the real world, where they deliberate, collaborate, and act. Start with the key points, like this BLUF from a climate change national intelligence estimate (NIE) called *Climate Change and International Responses Increasing Challenges to US National Security through 2040*:

Key Takeaway

We assess that climate change will increasingly exacerbate risks to US national security interests as the physical impacts increase and geopolitical tensions mount about how to respond to the challenge. Global momentum is growing for more ambitious greenhouse gas emissions reductions, but current policies and pledges are insufficient to meet the Paris Agreement goals. Countries are arguing about who should act sooner and competing to control the growing clean energy transition. Intensifying physical effects will exacerbate geopolitical flashpoints, particularly after 2030, and key countries and regions will face increasing risks of instability and the need for humanitarian assistance.

- As a baseline, the IC uses the US federal scientific community's high confidence in global projections of temperature increase and moderate confidence in regional projections of the intensity of extreme weather and other effects during the next two decades. Global temperatures have increased 1.1°C since preindustrial times and most likely will add 0.4°C to reach 1.5°C around 2030.
- The IC has moderate confidence in the pace of decarbonization and low to moderate confidence in how physical climate impacts will affect US national security interests and the nature of geopolitical conflict, given the complex dimensions of human and state decision making.

It's often difficult for intelligence writers to avoid succumbing to the Agatha Christie syndrome. Like the great mystery writer, we want to keep

our readers in suspense until we can deliver that punch line—the whodunit, in mystery parlance. Because we have worked hard on this analysis, we want the reader to know all the great facts and analytical methods that have gone into our conclusions.

Don't be shocked, but most of your readers won't care. *They want the bottom line*, and that is what intelligence professionals are paid to deliver. In academia, professors expect you to provide those lovely details. We will read them, and we will evaluate your knowledge of the subject accordingly. However, effective intelligence writers place the bottom line up front, delivering the goods and *energizing* the writing simultaneously.

INTRODUCTIONS: NOT METHODOLOGY

Introductions for intelligence products should focus on presenting the scope of the paper. This is an adjustment for many people coming out of college, where introductions explain to readers your sources or the conceptual framework of the paper. *Do not* begin your paper with one of the following introductions:

The purpose of this paper is to . . .

My paper will look at the diverse components of . . .

This study will examine . . .

The reader doesn't need to know the methodology for your research and analysis. Instead, tell the reader what topic or questions your paper will address. Remember that you are writing as an intelligence professional, not an academic. The following example comes from the NIE on climate change:

Scope Note

This national intelligence estimate (NIE) is in response to a presidential tasking to assess the national security impacts of climate change. While climate change effects are forecast to intensify in the latter half of the twenty-first century and continue well beyond 2100, based on current emissions trends and technologies, this NIE assesses the near- (five to ten years) and medium-term (ten to twenty years) geopolitical implications abroad; we do not assess impacts to the homeland or DOD facilities. We assume the following during the next twenty years:

- No precipitating world event that would devastate industrial activity will occur that sharply and permanently reduces greenhouse gas emissions.

The scientific content of this NIE, both the observed climate effects to date and the modeled future impacts, were reviewed by the US federal science agencies on the Climate Security Advisory Council (CSAC). The CSAC is a partnership between the intelligence community (IC) and the federal science community established by Congress to better understand and anticipate the ways climate change affects US national security interests. It includes the Environmental Protection Agency, the Department of Energy, the Department of the Interior/US Geological Survey, the Office of Naval Research, the National Aeronautics and Space Administration, the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, and the National Science Foundation.

The IC relies on the broad consensus of scientific studies, modeling, and forecasts from the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, the US National Climate Assessment, and US federal science agencies as the baseline to assess the geopolitical implications of climate change. We are aware of but in this estimate do not rely on the small minority scientific perspectives on climate change ranging from those who consider it nonexistent to those who view it as a near-term existential threat to humanity.²

THE BODY OF YOUR WRITING

The main body of your product will generally follow a prescribed form; however, you might have the flexibility to dictate your own terms for this part—a rare occasion. *Write this section first*, following the framework of your outline. Make revisions first on your prewriting; then follow through in the written product. This might seem like a tedious process, but in the long run, it will save time by lessening the need to rewrite the main body. The prewriting—usually seen by you alone—is a better place to do early revisions than in the text of your product.

If you find yourself getting bogged down in facts and figures somewhere in the main body, detach yourself from the writing for a moment and look at the big picture of your work. Is the text becoming so cluttered with statistics or methodology that it detracts from other content or distracts the reader? If so, then maybe it's time to shift some of that excess baggage to an annex or a text box. Also, if writer's block sets in along the way, take a break. Unless driven by a tight deadline, you will only frustrate yourself sitting and staring at the blinking cursor, waiting for inspiration. When you feel refreshed, get back to it. Before you know it, you will finish the main body and be ready for your conclusions.

CONCLUSIONS: THE ROLE OF INTELLIGENCE WRITING

Every conclusion in intelligence writing must ensure the reader walks away with the right information firmly in mind. The reader of your conclusion has already read the rest of the paper; hence, you are free to synthesize your analysis in the way that best captures your meaning—even if that involves specialized terminology, nuanced language, or other subtleties that didn't fit in the BLUF but are explained elsewhere in the piece.

In the conclusion, state your message exactly as you want the reader to remember and act on it. Most often, the conclusions will project the subject into the near-term or long-term future. It's like a minisummary of that publication's main theme. For your conclusions, do the following:

1. Avoid repetition, stating the obvious, and clichés. They are juvenile and lazy.
2. Do not introduce new material.
3. The tone of the conclusion should match the rest of the paper.
4. Do not cut and paste portions of the paper into the conclusions.
5. Fix your key points in the reader's mind with substantive information.
6. Be concise. State your case as if you had two minutes to talk.
7. Use vocabulary consistent with the body of the paper.

Here's how the authors constructed the conclusion for an NIE on global water security:

Implications for the United States

Many states turn to the developed world to find alternative ways to meet their infrastructure needs. Water planners in developing countries regularly lack adequate data (hydrological models and actual water levels) for effective policymaking. For example, knowledge of water balances in specific tributaries, replenishment rates for shared aquifers, or water demands in particular communities may be either unavailable or inaccessible. The developing world will probably expect the United States, as a leader in technology, to continue development of hydrological models and remote environmental monitoring, as well as to disseminate this data and facilitate the integration of other terrestrial resource management data on a global scale. US technological capability in water treatment and purification and the efficient use of water in agriculture will also be sought after.

- Although the United States is recognized as a leader in water technology, other countries have identified research in water technology as a national priority and will challenge US leadership over time.

- The United States probably will be expected to continue the development and promotion of water management and agricultural technology and expertise, fostering management capacity and appropriately sharing technology. Irrespective of other policies toward the United States, both developed and developing states will look for US support of international agreements, and institutions and national and subnational partners, seeking to improve water management. Active engagement by the United States to resolve water challenges will improve US influence and may forestall other actors achieving the same influence at US expense.

Remember that conclusions must be consistent with what you've written earlier. In this section, you'll provide some forecast or outlook for the reader concerning your subject.

KEY JUDGMENTS

Finally, you reach the last part of your writing: extracting key judgments. If all else has proceeded according to plan, the key judgments should be obvious to you when you reread the paper. In some cases, you will be able to use topic sentences verbatim as the key judgments, but the preferred method is to rewrite them. Here are the key judgments from the NIE on climate change:

Key Judgment 1: Geopolitical tensions are likely to grow as countries increasingly argue about how to accelerate the reductions in net greenhouse gas emissions that will be needed to meet the Paris Agreement goals. Debate will center on who bears more responsibility to act and to pay—and how quickly—and countries will compete to control resources and dominate new technologies needed for the clean energy transition. Most countries will face difficult economic choices and probably will count on technological breakthroughs to rapidly reduce their net emissions later. China and India will play critical roles in determining the trajectory of temperature rise.

Key Judgment 2: The increasing physical effects of climate change are likely to exacerbate cross-border geopolitical flashpoints as states take steps to secure their interests. The reduction in sea ice already is amplifying strategic competition in the Arctic over access to its natural resources. Elsewhere, as temperatures rise and more extreme effects manifest, there is a growing risk of conflict over water and migration, particularly after 2030, and an increasing chance that countries will unilaterally test and deploy large-scale solar geoengineering—creating a new area of disputes.

Key Judgment 3: Scientific forecasts indicate that intensifying physical effects of climate change out to 2040 and beyond will be most acutely felt in developing countries, which we assess are also the least able to adapt to such changes. These physical effects will increase the potential for instability and possibly internal conflict in these countries, in some cases creating additional demands on US diplomatic, economic, humanitarian, and military resources. Despite geographic and financial resource advantages, the United States and partners face costly challenges that will become more difficult to manage without a concerted effort to reduce emissions and cap warming.

Key judgments do not merely summarize the paper; they also convey what the analyst would say (or should say) to a high-level user if given only two minutes to convey the findings. Therefore, key judgments do not explain the sources of information used in the paper, persons consulted during its preparation, the methodologies employed, or any other information not related directly to the author's findings.

Key judgments generally come in one of two formats:

1. *Bullets*

- Cover your points separately.
- Arrange your points in descending order of importance.

2. *Paragraphs*

- Construct concise paragraphs in which key judgments parallel the content/conclusions of the paper and follow the order given in the paper.
- Concise paragraphs convey the essence of the paper and represent the entirety of its content.
- Avoid statements of methodology, such as “In this paper I have . . .,” “The purpose of this paper is . . .,” and “This paper will examine . . .” They serve no purpose.

The role of the conclusion in intelligence writing is to make sure the reader walks away with the right information firmly in mind. The conclusion is your last chance to convey your meaning to the reader before you lose contact. A strong conclusion is both necessary and powerful.

Finishing Techniques

1. Plan your conclusion based on the amount of information and supporting documentation in the paper. Make it proportional.
2. Review such visual elements charts, graphs, and maps.
3. Review terminology to ensure it is adequately defined and appropriately used.
4. Review people, places, and groups introduced in the paper, and ensure they are adequately delineated.
5. Review key points covered in the paper for clarity and accuracy of information.

FINAL THOUGHTS

It's not easy to turn a blank screen into an outline and then to develop that prewriting into a rough draft. Some writers have no problem at all sitting at a computer screen and turning out thousands of words at a sitting, but those same writers often fail miserably at revising their work. You've heard that the project is never completed until the paperwork is done. For the intelligence writer, that paperwork involves polishing and revising the writing until an acceptable finished product result. Finished intelligence means not only all-sourced, analyzed, and evaluated intelligence; it also means proofread and edited intelligence, which is the topic of the next chapter.

EXERCISES IN WRITING THE FIRST DRAFT

Group Exercise

A good piece of intelligence writing has an identifiable topic sentence. That sentence contains the essence of the paragraph, and all other sentences—four or five of them as a general rule—relate directly to it. No other sentence in a good paragraph could be the topic sentence. Look at the paragraph you're now reading, for example. Could any but the first one be the topic sentence?

One way to check for a topic sentence is to scramble the order of the sentences in a paragraph. Computers make that an easy job. Simply type a paragraph, and then use a cut-and-paste function to shift the sentences around. No matter how they are mixed up, the topic sentence should still be obvious to the reader. Let's test that hypothesis in some exercises.

Find the topic sentence in the following paragraph. Assume that it is the first paragraph of a longer paper. Organize the remaining five sentences in the most logical order:

Some people would rather work alone, while others like to work with other people. The intelligence analyst examines information and makes decisions about that information. There are, however, additional ways in which personality influences how we do our jobs and our degree of job satisfaction. Some people, for example, enjoy making decisions, while others are reluctant to decide because of perceived information inadequacy. Those two tasks form the core of the intelligence profession. Another aspect relates to our decision-making style.

Individual Exercises

A topic sentence is the main idea—the central focus—of a paragraph. In intelligence writing, the topic sentence should be the first sentence of each paragraph, in keeping with the principle that intelligence writers place the most important ideas early in their papers. Read the following sentences carefully. Determine the topic sentence of each paragraph. Then renumber the sentences so that the paragraphs flow smoothly. Use the blank space after each sentence for the new number, or jot down your answers on a separate sheet of paper.

Exercise 1: John Kerry's Qualifications to Be Secretary of State

1. As a senator, he gained a broad appreciation of US foreign policy. _____
2. He has been active in government and politics since 1983. _____
3. John Kerry is eminently qualified to be secretary of state. _____
4. He was elected to the US Senate in 1985. _____
5. Kerry became chairman of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations in 2009. _____

Exercise 2: Peace in the Middle East

1. Persistent wars have hindered the ability of Middle East nations to export crude oil. _____
2. From a US domestic perspective, peace in the Persian Gulf will signal the return of higher gas prices. _____
3. Additionally, because some nations will no longer be selling oil at reduced prices to finance their war efforts, oil price indexes will rise as those nations compete in the OPEC community. _____

4. The absence of any need for US warships escorting oil tankers in the Persian Gulf will mean a return to higher volumes of oil shipments.
-

Exercise 3: Sequester Cuts in the Defense Budget

1. Like people crowding through a door, some programs will have to wait or turn sideways, presenting skinnier profiles to the funding door and taking longer to get through. _____
2. Many of these programs are reaching the “fattest” part of their funding profile, finished with research and development, and should be entering series production at economical procurement rates. _____
3. The Defense Department continued funding programs authorized at presequester levels. _____
4. Given that the defense budget, far from growing at 5 percent per year after inflation, is in fact not growing at all, these “fat” programs cannot all squeeze through the narrow funding door. _____
5. This means longer, slower production runs at higher unit prices, or less bang for the buck. _____

Exercise 4: Inflation in Venezuela

1. Mid-2013 reports estimated Venezuela’s yearly inflation rate at almost 40 percent, with a monthly increase forecast for the near future. _____
2. This debt burden forces the Venezuelan government to make certain choices—choices that almost invariably make life harder for the average worker. _____
3. Although Venezuela enjoys the most evenly distributed and one of the largest per capita incomes in Latin America, individual Venezuelans have seen their wealth eroded by runaway inflation. _____
4. Venezuela owes so much in interest payments alone that no matter how much it earns via a vigorous export sector, all new funds will merely find their way into the asset accounts of North American banks. _____
5. Venezuela’s inflation problems are compounded by its huge external debt. _____

Exercise 5: The History of Cuban-Russian Relations

1. Though US hostility toward his regime is often blamed for Fidel’s initial move into the communist camp, it is more likely that his global

ambition and fanatical hatred of the United States precluded any other path. _____

2. The enduring relationship between Castro's Cuba and the former Soviet Union was not a natural progression from support for the Cuban revolution but rather a subsequent development. _____
3. Instead, the relationship gradually developed in the early 1960s as Castro became increasingly estranged from the United States and actively sought Soviet sponsorship. _____
4. The subsequent growth of the ties has resulted in Cuba's economic dependence on and importance as a strategic asset to Russia. _____
5. In contrast to their immediate embrace of the Sandinista regime in Nicaragua, the Soviets did not instantly welcome or recognize the Castro regime. _____

Answers to the Exercises

Group Exercise

The intelligence analyst examines information and makes decisions about that information. Those two tasks form the core of the intelligence profession. There are, however, additional ways in which personality influences how we do our jobs and our degree of job satisfaction. Some people would rather work alone, while others like to work with other people. Another aspect relates to our decision-making style. Some people, for example, enjoy making decisions, while others are reluctant to decide because of perceived information inadequacy.

Individual Exercises

Exercise 1: John Kerry's Qualifications to Be Secretary of State

Note: It might be argued that the sentences marked here as 4 and 5 could be reversed.

1. As a senator, he gained a broad appreciation of US foreign policy. (4)
2. He has been active in government and politics since 1983. (2)
3. John Kerry is eminently qualified to be secretary of state. (1)
4. He was elected to the US Senate in 1985. (3)
5. Kerry became chairman of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations in 2009. (5)

Exercise 2: Peace in the Middle East

1. Persistent wars have hindered the ability of Middle East nations to export crude oil. (2)
2. From a US domestic perspective, peace in the Persian Gulf will signal the return of higher gas prices. (1)
3. Additionally, because some nations will no longer be selling oil at reduced prices to finance their war efforts, oil price indexes will rise as those nations compete in the OPEC community. (4)
4. The absence of any need for US warships escorting oil tankers in the Persian Gulf will mean a return to higher volumes of oil shipments. (3)

Exercise 3: Sequester Cuts in the Defense Budget

1. Like people crowding through a door, some programs will have to wait or turn sideways, presenting skinnier profiles to the funding door and taking longer to get through. (4)
2. Many of these programs are reaching the “fattest” part of their funding profile, finished with research and development, and should be entering series production at economical procurement rates. (2)
3. The Defense Department continued funding programs authorized at presequester levels. (1)
4. Given that the defense budget, far from growing at 5 percent per year after inflation, is in fact not growing at all, these “fat” programs cannot all squeeze through the narrow funding door. (3)
5. This means longer, slower production runs at higher unit prices, or less bang for the buck. (5)

Exercise 4: Inflation in Venezuela

1. Mid-2013 reports estimated Venezuela’s yearly inflation rate at almost 40 percent, with a monthly increase forecast for the near future. (2)
2. This debt burden forces the Venezuelan government to make certain choices—choices that almost invariably make life harder for the average worker. (5)
3. Although Venezuela enjoys the most evenly distributed and one of the largest per capita incomes in Latin America, individual Venezuelans have seen their wealth eroded by runaway inflation. (1)
4. Venezuela owes so much in interest payments alone that no matter how much it earns via a vigorous export sector, all new funds will merely find their way into the asset accounts of North American banks. (4)
5. Venezuela’s inflation problems are compounded by its huge external debt. (3)

Exercise 5: The History of Cuban-Soviet Relations

1. Though US hostility toward his regime is often blamed for Fidel's initial move into the Soviet camp, it is more than likely that his global ambition and fanatical hatred of the United States precluded any other path. (4)
2. The enduring relationship between Castro's Cuba and the former Soviet Union was not a natural progression from support for the Cuban revolution but rather a subsequent development. (1)
3. Instead, the relationship gradually developed in the early 1960s as Castro became increasingly estranged from the United States and actively sought Soviet sponsorship. (3)
4. The subsequent growth of the ties has resulted in Cuba's economic dependence on and importance as a strategic asset to Russia. (5)
5. In contrast to their immediate embrace of the Sandinista regime in Nicaragua, the Soviets did not instantly welcome or recognize the Castro regime. (2)

NOTES

1. Department of State, "SNIE 53-2-63: The Situation in South Vietnam, 10 July 1963," *United States-Vietnam Relations, 1945-1967*, book 12, July 10, 1963, 529-35; John F. Kennedy, "Transcript of Broadcast with Walter Cronkite Inaugurating a CBS Television News Program." Online by Gerhard Peters and John T. Woolley, The American Presidency Project. <https://www.presidency.ucsb.edu/node/237355>.

2. National Intelligence Council, *Climate Change and International Responses Increasing Challenges to US National Security through 2040*, NIC-NIE-2021-10030-A (Washington, DC: Office of the Director of National Intelligence, 2021), https://www.dni.gov/files/ODNI/documents/assessments/NIE_Climate_Change_and_National_Security.pdf.

Beyond the First Draft

Revising for Analysis

BOTTOM LINE UP FRONT

The third distinct phase of the writing process, after prewriting and drafting, is *revision* or *rewriting*. Revision is the final, essential step writers take to polish their writing.

Key Points

- Intelligence writing may describe, explain, or estimate. To be analytical, a paper must identify significant facts for interpretation, and it must focus on conclusions, be relevant to its intended audience, concentrate on essentials, and avoid prescribing policy.
- Many constraints impinge on the review process, including time and the reviewer's and writer's experiences, expectations, and attitudes.
- Styles of review include holistic (the whole thing), top down, and bottom up.
- After you've written the first draft, let it cool off for as long as possible, and then reread it. If possible, have someone else read it and make comments.
- To review content, use the "Three R Method": reread, reenvision, and rewrite. Employ a hierarchy of reviewing and editing concerns, as well, moving from organization to words or vice versa.
- The "Four Sweeps" are good ways to revise in an organized fashion: Look for clarity, persuasiveness, packaging, and writing.

A MODEL PROCESS FOR REVISING AN ANALYTICAL PAPER

Now that you've written your analytical paper, it's important that you know a viable procedure for revising it. This process goes beyond proofreading and editing. It starts with the realization that most written work can stand improvement. In this section, we cover a process you can use to review your own writing or a colleague's. The four steps in this process are discovery, judgment, action, and motion. The procedures you use will differ slightly, depending on whether you are reading your own work or someone else's.

Discovery: Your Writing

To discover your own writing style, you must do a lot of reading, both of your own material and of other intelligent writing. You'll contribute to the accuracy of the piece by doing thorough research and talking with others knowledgeable about the subject. It is often helpful to carry on a silent dialogue with yourself about your subject. Ask yourself what questions someone might have if they were reading what you've written. Then answer those questions as best you can. It might require that you gather more information. Even when you're facing a tight deadline, the final product will be better for it.

Another important consideration in discovering your own writing process is allowing the writing to cool down after you have written. In your own writing, your eye will not see things that are there, or they will convince you that something *is* there when it is not. One helpful remedy for this eye problem is to set the writing aside for a while before you begin the review. Then, when you approach the task again, treat it as though you had never seen the piece before. Remember to read it aloud.

Judgment: Your Writing

Start every review by knowing that your paper *can* be improved. Most writers tend to be dissatisfied with the first draft of anything they have done and for good reason. "All first drafts are shit," Ernest Hemingway famously said. Truer words have never been spoken.

One of the most frustrating things you may ever face is to realize that you've been working like a dog for days or weeks, only to find you've meandered off topic. If that is the case, it might be better to scrap the draft. The earlier in the writing process you are able to judge the overall quality and acceptability of your writing project, the better off you are likely to be.

That does not mean that you should stop and reread every sentence or every paragraph and judge its acceptability on the spot. On the contrary, you are

likely to stymie the flow of your writing if you try to do it that way. Rather, make your judgment calls at acceptable intervals during the progress of your writing. There will be “natural breaks” created by the end of a business day or school day, a major section of a paper or chapter of a thesis, a staff meeting, or a lecture you’re required to attend. Use those breaks to review your paper for acceptability, potential, and quality.

Action and Motion

The processes that deal with action to be taken on the paper and where it goes from here is similar for both your own writing and someone else’s. This is the point in the review process where you must consider what changes should be made to the work. If you still have questions—of yourself or of the author—ask them now, and get an answer before you proceed. Accept suggestions from your superiors, your peers, and your classmates.

After comments, decide where to go with the paper. It might need to go back for more research, coordination, or a thorough reworking. If you’re lucky, it might be ready to go forward to the boss or to the professor. Either way, try to ensure that this is the best work you can do with the time you have.

CONSTRAINTS ON REVIEW

It’s easy to write all these words about reviewing your work, but everyone faces constraints that hinder review. Among these constraints are time, reviewer’s and writer’s experiences, and expectations.

Time

Time is the main constraint we all face. You have a deadline to meet, and it always seems to arrive before you expected it. All your professors assign a paper, and all are due on the last day of class—the same day as the final exam. Or your project manager tasks you with a big status report, due the day before you leave for vacation. In this case, you make the best of the time you have. Most time management experts agree that we all waste time every day and that there are ways to be more efficient. That process almost always involves planning. Some of this was covered earlier, but it merits review here.

Starting with the day the work is due, plan backward. *Write down your anticipated milestones.* You know that you want to allow time to have your paper reviewed, so build that time into your schedule. There will no doubt

be peers or classmates asking you to review their papers, as well. Plan a few hours for that contingency.

It is important for you in the review process to consider the amount of time already invested in the writing. If it is a ten-page term paper and you have a week or two before it is due, then you might be inclined to do serious rewriting or to recommend rewriting to a colleague. But if it is a thesis or a study that you have been working on for six months, any major problems could result in required adjustments to your schedule. You might not receive that degree on time, or the publication window could be missed. Count on the inevitable slips in the schedule. Nonetheless, when you review your plan regularly and see that dates are beginning to slip, you can adjust accordingly, before you are forced to pull an all-nighter just at deadline time.

Reviewer's and Writer's Experiences

Whether you are the writer or the reviewer of a piece of writing, the experience you have had in that field will have a direct bearing on your review. If you have never read an intelligence product or written an intelligence paper, then the genre itself might give you problems. Remember where to look for that bottom line. Remember also that there should be conclusions reached in an analytical paper and that the focus should be on the future.

Students often feel overwhelmed with the task of writing. The only way to gain experience, of course, is to do something. When you are asked to write a paper, try to focus it on a topic in which you have experience. The admonition to “write what you know” is more than a cliché; it’s good advice. By the same token, it is always helpful to have experience in the area a colleague is writing about so that you can give substantive advice. Because that will rarely be the case, though, you might need to go back to the discovery phase of review and ask questions or have a dialogue with the writer, maybe brainstorming in the process.

Expectations: Great or Otherwise

It’s always helpful when you are writing to know what is expected of you. By the same token, of course, you should clearly define your terms when you ask someone else to review your work. If you are concerned about the paper making sense, then ask a disinterested person to read it only for clarity. If the paper seems disjointed to you, then seek a check for organization. And if you’re worried about grammar and mechanics, then ask for thorough proofreading. It’s possible that if you ask for all of the above, you’ll either

get nothing at all or you'll get a cursory scan of the work that will satisfy no one. Expect everything, and you'll probably get nothing.

STYLES OF REVIEW: HOLISTIC, TOP DOWN, AND BOTTOM UP

There are as many styles of review as there are styles of writing. No one method is right or wrong, although one style might be more suited to the particular task of review you have in mind. You might find it helpful to understand some review styles so that you can apply the one most suitable. Generally, those styles are holistic, top down, and bottom up. (The next chapter covers more about revision.)

Holistic

A holistic style is characterized by looking at the whole paper. It is often an outgrowth of experience and intuition. It is also a style well suited to reviewing for clarity and organization. The holistic reviewer tries to get the flavor of the whole paper rather than its individual parts. In attempting this style of review, avoid having a pen or pencil in your hand. If you're reading an electronic version, ignore all the grammar and misspelling markers inserted by your word-processing program.

Top Down

A top-down review moves from generalities to particulars—much like the deductive approach to writing discussed in chapter 6. It is an approach to try when you are looking for topic sentences with supporting evidence.

Bottom Up

As you might expect, the bottom-up review is the opposite of a top-down review. It is characterized by a move from particulars to generalities, like the inductive approach. The bottom-up review, often associated with copy-editing, is the one to use when you are looking for grammatical problems or mechanical errors. *Now* is the time to use that word-processor program that tells you what might be wrong. But go beyond the electronic guru, which is often wrong.

As you write an analytical intelligence paper, consider the following fourteen questions. If you address each question and do what it suggests, then

your paper should be on the mark. The questions also serve as a quick checklist when you review or edit someone else's paper:

1. Does the paper have only one major focus (bottom line or major judgment)? (It should have only one.)
2. Is the focus clearly stated at the beginning of the paper rather than implied? (It needs to be.)
3. Do the key judgments, or the summary, contain the major judgments of the paper? (They should.)
4. Are the key judgments written to catch the reader's attention? (They need to be.)
5. What is the significance of the focus for the United States? (There must be some significance.)
6. Is the significance clearly stated? (It should be.)
7. Does all information in the paper relate directly to the focus? (It must relate directly.)
8. Is some information interesting or unique but not directly related to the focus? (If so, take it out.)
9. Is like information together? (It must be together.)
10. Is there repetitive or contradictory information? (This must be fixed.)
11. Are all judgments clearly supported by evidence? (They must be.)
12. Are there missed opportunities for making judgments, generalizations, or good topic sentences? (Push to make them.)
13. How can the writing be made more straightforward, concise, and precise? (Think simple.)
14. Does the paper end abruptly? (It shouldn't.)

Those questions—and their answers—form a solid basis for you to review an analytical paper, either your own or one written by a colleague. Many other considerations apply when you revise and polish your work. Those are the subject of the next chapter.

BASIC REVISION TECHNIQUES

Correctness is a basic principle in writing. Correctness in intelligence writing means both precision in word choice and mechanical correctness. Until you ensure that you have met these criteria, you don't have a finished intelligence product. Well-established procedures will help you clean up your first draft and make it more readable.

These techniques take some time and effort but are well worth the final result in terms of reader (and writer) satisfaction. The procedures include using short words and sentences, active instead of passive voice, and precise language and the pruning of deadwood in your writing.

The Strongest Verbs

One way to strengthen the precision of your writing is to focus on the verbs that carry the action in a sentence. The stronger and more precise the verb, the more meaningful the sentence will be. Some verbs are vague and should be avoided. Examples include *address*, *explore*, *review*, *show*, *examine*, *cover*, *discover*, *identify*, *look at*, *demonstrate*, *discuss*, and *investigate*. More appropriate verbs like *compare*, *contrast*, *assess*, *measure*, and *evaluate* can clarify what you intend to do. Moreover, they define and shape your argument and your analytical strategy. The following are examples of imprecise verbs used in sentences:

- I will begin to explore potential changes in structure.
- I will discuss the controversy of the soldier-statesman versus the pure military professional.
- Explanations will be used to see why the ethnic Russians in these states are important.
- Through the “snowball” technique, relevant titles listed in the bibliographies/notes of the aforementioned sources have been discovered.
- The conclusive phase of research will be to tweak the data gathered.

The sentences that follow show the writers’ use of more precise verbs:

- I will compare the number of economic intelligence requirements and their priorities since 1947 (in five-year increments) to ongoing international events and economic issues during that period.
- Evaluating risks and benefits in the context of the new challenges facing defense will make it possible to determine if a more active role is required for intelligence in the formulation of defense policy.
- I will use historical research to assess the terrorist situation in the Philippines.
- I will compare the domestic politics of Syria and Iraq to show how internal concerns influence the foreign policies of both nations.
- This paper contrasts the service viewpoints of intelligence support to information operations.

Mechanical Correctness

The final way a good writer ensures readability is to check for mechanical correctness. After you've finished putting words down, proofread for correctness, and edit for style. Go back over your paper from top to bottom for misspellings, errors in punctuation, agreement of subject and verb, and other common errors. If you have trouble detecting spelling errors in your own writing, welcome to the club! Most people tend to overlook their own mistakes. The four errors in the previous sentence exaggeratedly illustrate that point.

Computer spell checkers help, but in that earlier sentence, the only word that would have been flagged is *mistakes*, even though there are three other errors in the sentence. Spell checkers and grammar-checking programs are improving but are not reliable.

Look at the following spell-checked composition. According to the software used, there are no spelling mistakes in these seventy-two words:

Eye have a spelling checker; it came with my pea see. It plane lee Marx four my revue mistakes eye can knot sea. Iran this Poe em threw it, I'm sheer your pleased too no. Its let her perfect in it's weigh; my checker tolled me sew. Now win eye right, eye no I'm write from halo two good buy. Bee cause every buddy nose bye now spell checkers dew knot lye.

Try proofing your paper by reading backward. By scanning words out of context, your mind will catch more mistakes. It really works. The best alternative, though, is to have someone else proofread your paper—preferably a disinterested observer with little knowledge of your topic.

Practice is the only way to hone your proofreading and editing skills. Try different techniques to see what works best for you. For example, proofread from the big picture down to the individual words by

- checking pages for appearance (what do you notice about the sizes of paragraphs?);
- looking at form and format for coherence and conformity;
- reading individual paragraphs for coherence and unity, allowing only one main idea per paragraph;
- checking sentences for completeness and correctness; and
- checking individual words for usage and spelling.

Careful editing here will prove invaluable. It won't take as long as it sounds. If you are uncomfortable with that approach, next time try it the other way around—from the words, working up to the form and format.

Some errors are more serious than others. We all misuse the most frequently abused punctuation mark, the comma. It is one thing to omit the comma before *and* in a series (the Oxford comma); it is quite another matter to use a comma between two complete sentences with no joining word, such as *and* or *but* (a comma splice). The most common mistakes are misspellings and errors in usage, punctuation, and agreement of subject and verb, each discussed here.

Misspellings

Some misspellings completely change the meaning of a sentence, while others leave the reader gazing quizzically at the computer screen. Look at these examples from student papers. Each has a typo that is obvious to us but not to the writer or the spell checker.

- “In realty, an integrated Euroterrorist front would stand little chance of success.” (Then what about some other business besides real estate? This student strayed from *reality*.)
- “At the operational level of war, intelligence concentrates on the collection, identification, location, and analysis of strategic and operational centers of gravy.” (Pour it on! This writer didn’t appreciate the *gravity* of the situation.)

Usage

English language usage is dynamic. We routinely use words and phrases today that were unknown to our grandparents. Even in my youth, email and blogs were unheard of, and the phrase *dot-com* would have engendered blank stares. Language is dynamic. Nevertheless, the basic conventions of grammar remain intact, providing a framework on which to build “correct” writing.

The better dictionaries, including their online versions, have usage panels. These august bodies do not lay down rules and tell the population how to write; rather, they advise on the language as it is being used. Even the experts do not always agree.

Punctuation

Punctuation is tough. Many grammar guides give you 72 rules for use of the comma, tack on 144 exceptions to those rules, then tell you to use the comma any time you want your reader to pause briefly. Few writers have problems

with the question mark or the period, but the comma, colon, and semicolon are harder. Chapter 8 of the online *Government Printing Office Style Guide* is a ready reference for punctuation rules. Use it.

Subject-Verb Agreement

If you have a singular subject, then your verb must also be singular. Writers seem to have the most problems with this principle when there are a lot of words between their subject and its verb or when there is a vague subject. Witness the following:

- “The amount of funds available have had an enormous impact.” (Because of the singular subject, *amount*, the verb must be *has*. The writer was sidetracked by the word *funds*, which is closer to the verb than is the subject.)
- “I think the issue of tax raises and cuts are clouded with too much emotion.” (We think it are, too. Note that the subject is *issue*, but the writer used the plural verb *are* to match *raises and cuts*.)
- “Each of these areas were administered in a professional manner.” (The singular word *each* is the subject of the sentence, not the plural *areas*. *Were* is a plural verb.)

Appropriateness: Who, Why, and How?

You seldom know precisely who will be reading your work, but you can make a pretty good guess, especially in an academic environment. To help you determine whether your writing is appropriate for the intended audience, ask yourself these questions: Who will read my paper? Why will they read it? How will they use the information? You might not be able to answer those questions every time, but asking them will prove useful.

Jargon is another important consideration in appropriateness. Jargon is a communication shorthand that saves time and effort when we deal with our peers. But there’s no place for jargon in writing intended for a general audience. Not everybody knows what “kinetic action” or “traffic analysis” means. Always consider whether someone without a clear understanding of your jargon will read the paper. If you must use an abbreviation or acronym, that’s acceptable; just spell it out first, and follow it parenthetically with the abbreviation. Then, when you use the term again, use the abbreviation. If you write more than a page or so without using the term, spell it out one more time for your reader. When in doubt, spell it out.

Considering your reader and avoiding jargon will make your writing more appropriate for your audience. Your supervisors will appreciate it.

Completeness: The Whole Nine Yards

The flip side of the concision coin is completeness. Writing concisely ensures that you have said what is necessary in as few words as possible. Did you cover everything you wanted to cover? Are your main points included? Have you resolved the questions you raised, either by answering them or by stating that some unknowns or information gaps exist? Is the argument clearly expressed; are counterarguments identified and rebutted? If you can answer “yes” to these questions, then your paper is probably complete.

Look at completeness from several angles. The previously mentioned review process provides a big picture of whether your paper is complete, with all major points covered. Moreover, you should review your work thoroughly to ensure that the individual paragraphs and sentences are complete.

Find the topic sentence in each paragraph, and see if all the other sentences relate to it and complete the thought it introduced. Without substantiating evidence in subsequent sentences to expand on or clarify the initial assertion, the paragraph might be incomplete. The reader will be confused if the topic sentence introduces a thought and the remainder of the paragraph fails to carry that thought to completion.

Coherence

The assessment also needs to be based on human perceptions and assessment of the problem. Combining the two earlier factors, the determination of terrorist responsibility may be expedited. Monitoring the terrorist problem must be continuous and thorough, as well.

The person who wrote this short paragraph was not thinking about coherence. At least three major ideas compete for the reader’s attention: (1) assessing the terrorism problem; (2) determining responsibility for terrorism; and (3) keeping track of the problem. It might be easier to keep track of shadowy terrorist groups than to find the main idea here.

Coherence is a blueprint for logical continuity in your paragraphs. Our minds naturally tend to think logically, always trying to connect pieces of information and make sense of them in terms of our own experience. When we encounter something incoherent, our minds immediately shift into neutral, mulling over what we encountered and trying to bring it into focus. When we do not understand, the inevitable result is frustration.

Don't frustrate your supervisors or professors by failing to follow a coherent organizational scheme in your writing. The topic sentence, usually the first sentence of a paragraph, is the most important. The topic sentence tells the reader, "Welcome to a new paragraph. I'm the main idea here, and I'll guide you through the next few sentences." *Pick your central assertion for each paragraph, and stick with it.* When you change controlling ideas, move to a new paragraph using a smooth transition. This will ensure a more coherent writing for your reader.

Prepositional Phrases: Wimps of Writing

If the verb *to be* and its permutations are the ninety-eight-pound weaklings of our language, then prepositional phrases are the ones that get sand kicked into their faces. Using some prepositions is unavoidable, but don't string them together in long sequences. Look at this phrase from a student's paper: "The chief of one of the tribes involved in the resistance movement in Afghanistan." A reader might lose their train of thought. Look at this rewrite of that phrase: "A tribal chief in the Afghan resistance movement." The second version has eight words instead of the fourteen in the original, almost a 50 percent saving. It conveys the same meaning but has one prepositional phrase, not four. If we had gone to extremes to eliminate all prepositions, the rewrite would have sounded awkward: "An Afghan resistance movement tribal chief." Stacking adjectives is a poor alternative to eliminating prepositions. Use discretion and common sense. Listen to your mind's ear as you read your work aloud. It will alert you to problems your eyes alone will miss.

Short Words and Variable-Length Sentences

For some reason, many writers feel they haven't accomplished their objective unless they have mired their readers in a swamp of big words and long, compound-complex sentences. Again, use a dictionary and thesaurus when you're writing, but there should be little cause to have to rely constantly on those references while you're reading someone else's writing. It's usually obvious to the average reader when a writer is resorting to unnecessarily big words to make a point.

One graduate paper proceeded well in its description of federal tax reform until the author threw in this gem: "Many other factors influenced the US economy during this period, and many of those were exogenous stochastic events." (While the meaning of the sentence was discernible from the context, many readers would nonetheless find themselves scurrying for the dictionary on that one.)

This sentence came from the “Key Judgments” section of a student’s paper: “Terrorist ideologues build contrived organizations predestined to relentless combat action.” (Details at 11! Although the words are generally understandable, they are strung together in an almost comical attempt to use the biggest words possible, throwing in a dash of drama like the tease for a newscast.)

Active, Not Passive, Voice

The normal order for the English language is the active voice: subject–verb–object, in that order. When you turn that order around and put the object before the subject, it generally tends to weaken the writing, and it leaves your reader with a question of whodunit. Look at this example:

“Economic aspects need to be considered when assessing the military capabilities of a nation.” (Of course, but by whom? The writer could have anticipated his readers’ question and written, “Intelligence analysts must consider economics when assessing a nation’s military capabilities.”)

Everybody writes in passive voice. *Everybody*. There are generally two reasons for this: They think passive voice sounds formal or official, or the writer lacks the confidence to say something declaratively. Given these tendencies, you have to work hard to avoid passive voice. You’ll have to own your writing.

Consider this sentence: “As a result of the increasing number of protests, the need for timely and accurate sociological and political intelligence was recognized.” Again, the reader asks, “By whom?” The example is a little wordy, too. Compare this rewrite: “Because of increasing protests, Egyptian officials recognized the need for timely and accurate sociological and political intelligence.”

The passive voice, per se, is not *wrong*. It is simply to be discouraged when you’re looking for a strong, positive writing style. If the object is more important than your subject or if you simply want to emphasize the object rather than the subject, use the passive voice: “A motorized rifle regiment was sighted by the observer in OP Alpha.” That’s passive voice, but it emphasizes the important part of that sentence—the potential threat—rather than the observer at an observation post (OP) who did the sighting. Note the difference when that sentence is recast in the active voice: “The observer in OP Alpha sighted a motorized rifle regiment.”

Another acceptable use for the passive voice is when the subject or “doer” of the action is unknown: “The enemy soldiers were sighted at dusk.” It might be awkward to turn that sentence into active voice: “An unknown outpost sighted the enemy soldiers at dusk.” Clearly, the important event in

SECRET

The Shah has already made a number of concessions in his effort to end civil unrest and elicit the tolerance of moderate religious and political leaders. In the area of society and religion, he has appointed a prime minister (Sharif-Emami) who enjoys good relations with Shia leaders, dismissed some ^{considered by him to be an extremist group} ~~well-known~~ government officials who were members of the Bahai sect, abolished the cabinet post for women's affairs, elevated responsibility for the religious endowment fund to cabinet level, closed gambling casinos, reverted from the so-called Pahlavi calendar to the ~~Islamic~~ ^{Islamic} calendar, and opened private negotiations with the religious leaders. To meet economic demands, the government ^{has} ~~has~~ settled numerous strikes in public sector enterprises ^{on} ~~in~~ generous terms -- increased wages, housing allowances, pensions and the like -- and has indicated its intention to cut back spending on defense and nuclear programs in favor of projects directly affecting the masses of the people, including housing, agriculture, transportation, and sanitation. In the political field, the regime has ^{pledged that} ~~ought to incorporate the views of~~ the Shah's liberalization program ^{promised the release of all political prisoners,} ~~and pledged to~~ will continue, circumscribed the activities of the royal family, launched a vigorous anti-corruption program, and affirmed the freedom of the press, the right to assembly, and the independence of the universities. The Shah ~~has~~ also allowed marginally greater latitude to ^{Shah-Emami} the ~~success~~ government than was enjoyed by its recent predecessors, ^{when these measures failed to} ~~halt the~~ ^{violence, a military government was brought in.}

None of Iran's basic problems will be solved in the few months that remain before the 1979 elections are due, yet it is during this period that the Shah

- 10 -

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Fig. 8.1. This draft of a National Intelligence Estimate that would have been prepared with input from the relevant intelligence agencies, provides substantial detail about the internal political situation in Iran. It paints a gloomy picture of the Shah's chances and at least allows for the possibility that the Pahlavi "dynasty" may not survive the next several months without major concessions. The study also points out for the careful reader (on page 9) that Ayatollah Khomeini, "the most influential leader" of the Shiite clergy, has "for years" called for the ouster of the Shah and "the establishment of a theocracy." It is unclear whether a final version of this NIE was prepared and circulated to policymakers. Central Intelligence Agency, National Intelligence Estimate, "Draft NIE," Secret, c. September 1978. This document is from the holdings of the National Security Archive: Documents of the US Espionage Den (Tehran: Muslim Students Following the Line of the Imam, c. 1981), February 11, 2019, <https://nsarchive.gwu.edu/document/18201-national-security-archive-doc-06-central>. These materials are reproduced from www.nsarchive.org with the permission of the National Security Archive.

that sentence is the sighting of the enemy, and the fact that the viewer was unknown is immaterial to your reader.

It's important, though, that you avoid using the passive voice as a cover-up for the unknown: "A friendly aircraft was fired on last night near the border." Your reader wants to know immediately, "By whom?" If you don't know the answer to that obvious question, then anticipate the question and rephrase the sentence: "Unidentified antiaircraft artillery fired at a friendly aircraft last night near the border." You haven't answered the question, but you have told the reader that you don't have the answer.

Deadwood

Be your own most ruthless critic in cutting words from your writing. Don't think of words only as combinations of letters to fill white space on a page or dark space on a monitor. Think of words as the tools of your profession—the only means you have of communicating to an audience the important work you're doing. You don't have time to waste in writing papers. Neither do your readers have the time to devote to excess words and phrases in your writing.

Always allot a portion of your time to proofreading and editing your writing. Even under the tightest deadline, you can program *some* time for that purpose. Devote at least one proofing to looking for redundancies and other excess verbiage. Check for the wordiness that often results from such usages. Examine the following:

"There's still too much to learn to allow myself to become too narrowly specialized." (This student's writing was too, too much. The repetitive *too* and *to* combination is irritating to the reader. The student might have said, "I still have much to learn before I pursue a narrow specialty.")

"provide the needed revenues necessary to reduce the budget deficit." (The reader gets the point that the revenues are both needed and necessary. Drop one or the other, and the sentence is better.)

The deadwood in these examples is clear. The excess stuff in your own writing won't be nearly so obvious to you. It will take hard work, another set of eyes, and a lot of practice before you'll be able to prune the deadwood adequately. But it will be worth every minute of the time you spend because of the immense satisfaction you'll gain from a polished, professional product.

Content: “Three Rs” and “Four Sweeps”

Most people view revision as a time to do a spell check and get all the commas in the right places, but revision is much more than that. It is the time when the writer reenvision the entire text. Remember that, while you might be the only one who has to live with a cluttered house, your reader has to live with your writing. Your first concern during the revision stage should be to examine the content of your writing. After all, if the paper lacks a focus, if the content doesn’t convincingly and logically support the thesis, then does it really matter that every word is spelled correctly and every sentence is punctuated properly?

The “Three Rs” method of revision prioritizes content revision. It covers ways you can make your content focused, organized, cohesive, and logical. This method is closely related to the “Four Sweeps” strategy, focused on analytical papers.

*The “Three R” Method of Revision: Reread, Reenvision, and Rewrite***Reread**

- After a period away from the completed draft (a day, if possible), reread it carefully. Share it with someone. A constructive, critical reading by one or more readers will help you achieve objectivity.
- Read first to see what the draft actually says (as opposed to what you were *trying* to say).
- Consider the draft from another reader’s perspective.
- Identify (and list) specific problems and shortcomings: misplaced material, vague or abstract passages, acknowledgment of counterarguments.

Reenvision

- Reconsider your original purpose.
- Review your materials, and gather additional information. Reread research notes to uncover counterarguments.
- List possible solutions to any problems: misplaced material (restructure entire body); vague or abstract passages (add specifics, examples); acknowledgment of counterarguments (look up in research notes).

Rewrite

- Rewrite the draft in light of what the rereading and reenvisioning might have revealed. Your revisions may be minor or major; they may focus on one small part of the draft or reconstruct the entire essay.
- Move from global to local revisions—revisions that improve overall clarity and correctness.

- Make major revisions.
- Make sentence-level revisions, and edit to correct errors.

“Four Sweeps” for Revision: Clarity, Persuasiveness, Packaging, and Writing

When you review a paper for *clarity*, you look for focus, the conveyed message, and the paper’s organization. Likewise, you look for certain discrete elements when you read for *persuasiveness*, when you check the product’s *packaging*, and when you edit or proofread the *writing*. The “Four Sweeps” will help you zero in on what you’re looking for. If time is an issue, try one or two sweeps. For example, check to see if the argument is persuasive. Although these steps were developed for hard-copy products, most are equally applicable to electronic publications.

Sweep 1: Clarity

1. Focus

- Does the paper have only one principal focus?
- Is the focus an intelligence question relevant to policy officials or decision makers?
- Is the paper’s focus consistent throughout?
- Does the introduction or the scope note place the paper’s focus in the context of the big picture or of previous research? Does it indicate why the paper is being done now?
- Are significant intelligence gaps identified?

2. Message

- Does the paper deliver a clear bottom line or message?
- Does it provide judgments about the future, or does it remain largely descriptive or past oriented?
- Is the message stated clearly and consistently throughout?

3. Organization

- Does the body of the paper develop the message in a logical order that is apparent to the reader?
- Do section headings and subheadings move the analysis forward and deliver a clear message?
- Do all major sections relate to the paper’s focus?
- Should sections be added or deleted? Put in a different order?

- Is the length of the paper appropriate: overall, among individual sections, text versus graphics?

Sweep 2: Persuasiveness

1. Argumentation

- Is the paper sufficiently analytical (versus descriptive)?
- Will the intended audience find useful insights in it, or does it seem simplistic or obvious or deliver old news?
- Is the paper convincing? Have you questioned the soundness of the major judgments?
- Are the major judgments backed by sufficient evidence and sourcing? Is the paper overly dependent on any one source or type of sourcing?
- Does the paper distinguish between facts, reporting, and speculation?
- Is the level of detail appropriate for the intended audience? Too much background or historical information? More evidence than needed to support the point?
- Are key issues left unaddressed or raised but not answered?
- Is a methodological explanation needed? If so, is it placed in an annex or appendix?

2. Topic Sentences

- Can the reader follow the analysis by scanning only the topic sentences?
- Does each topic sentence highlight the key point of each paragraph? Does the remainder of the paragraph support the topic sentence?
- Are some topic sentences too descriptive?

3. Outlook

- Is the outlook section forward looking? Does it take the analysis as far as reasonably possible?
- Does the outlook follow from information presented in the main body, or does it come out of the blue?
- Are forward-looking judgments presented consistently throughout the paper?
- Do these judgments make sense?
- Are assumptions underlying the judgments stated?
- Are intelligence gaps acknowledged and conclusions tempered accordingly?

- Are alternative scenarios presented, including any with a low probability but high impact on US interests? Are the reasons for the most likely scenario clear and persuasive?
- Are the alternative scenarios really plausible?

4. *Implications*

- Are there different implications for the region, for US friends or key adversaries, for the United States?
- Are implications stated consistently in the text and key judgments? Are implications presented prematurely in the body of the paper?
- Can implications be strengthened or made more precise? Are some so general as to be obvious or, worse yet, meaningless?
- Are there opportunities or vulnerabilities for the United States?
- Are any implications stated in a policy-prescriptive fashion? Do any sound like special pleading for command, agency, or institutional interests in certain operations or collection efforts?

5. *Key Judgments*

- Do key judgments stand alone for the busy policy maker?
- Do they focus on major, forward-looking judgments of the paper, including the implications for the United States?
- Are they consistent with the stated focus and message found in the other parts of the paper?
- Do the key judgments present or emphasize analysis or evidence that was not in the paper?
- Are key judgments concise (four to seven paragraphs), snappy in style, and understandable?

Sweep 3: Packaging

1. *Assembly*

- Is the paper properly formatted and mechanically correct to enhance its rapid review and processing?
- Is there a title page? Table of contents, if needed? Does the table of contents include appendixes and a list of graphics?
- Are text pages numbered? Are front-end pages in Roman numerals?
- Are graphics, photos, in-text boxes (sidebars) attached at the end of the paper?

- Are there appropriate references in the text to maps, photos, graphics, or in-text boxes? Are these the right locations to break the reader's eyes away from the text?

2. *In-Text Boxes, Appendixes, Annexes*

- Can the flow of the text and the clarity of focus and message be improved by putting historical, tutorial, or highly technical material in a supporting section?
- Do all the in-text boxes belong there or in the back of the paper? If they belong up front, are they as short as possible? (Each in-text box will take the reader's eyes away from the body of the paper.)
- Are there too many or too few in-text boxes?
- Is all the material in annexes or appendixes worth publishing?

3. *Graphics, Tables*

- Does information in graphics contradict or diverge from statements made in the text?
- Can a sequence of graphics or tables provide analysis in place of text?
- Are the graphics accurate and up to date?
- Are graphics properly located and referred to in the text?
- Are all the graphics or tables necessary?

4. *Pictures, Maps*

- Are there too few or too many?
- Does each picture or map support the paper's focus or message?
- Are captions for pictures informative and consistent with the text? Can pieces of analysis receive emphasis with a photo and caption?
- Can maps of obvious or well-known geography be enhanced with new information or graphics?

Sweep 4: Writing

1. *Style*

- Is the writing style too academic?
- Is the style clear, crisp, and straightforward?

2. *Transitions*

- Is there transitional language that moves the reader smoothly from one section of the paper to the next?
- Does each major section need an introduction or summary paragraph?

3. *Paragraphs*

- Does each paragraph have a topic sentence?
- Are some paragraphs too long? (Four to six sentences are most effective.)
- Is the length of the paragraphs varied enough to ease the reader's burden or to provide emphasis? (Short paragraphs are more visible on the page and attract reader attention.)
- Should any paragraphs be combined? Split?

4. *Sentences*

- Are sentences short and straightforward? (Reader comprehension rises if at least 50 percent of sentences are simple: subject, verb, object.)
- Is the active voice used? If passive voice is used, is there a valid reason? (If the object is more important than the subject or if the subject is unknown, the passive voice might be necessary.)
- Check grammar, usage, lost or unclear antecedents, nonparallel construction, and punctuation.

5. *Words*

- Are vigorous, exact nouns and verbs used rather than bland, general ones?
- Can you substitute simpler words for complex ones or single words for several words without violating the preceding guideline?
- Are some words used too often?
- Minimize use of abbreviations. Avoid clichés.
- Minimize the use of jargon or unfamiliar acronyms. Is a glossary needed?
- Check spelling and capitalization.

THESIS AND OVERVIEW STATEMENTS: ONE SMALL STEP DURING REVISION

To help readers find their way, especially through lengthy and difficult works, writers provide two kinds of orienting information: thesis statements to declare the main point and overview statements to identify the thesis and preview a text's plan.

Thesis Statements

You first read about thesis statements in chapter 2, regarding the argument in your paper. This review of thesis statements approaches the subject from a different slant: the *reader's* need. Readers naturally look for the point of a paper. They need a context in which to understand the details and ideas they will encounter as they read. If the writer does not supply a thesis, then readers will construct one themselves, or they will try to. While you revise, search for your thesis statement or overview statement.

Most readers look for the main idea early in the paper. Some expect papers to open with the thesis, and they need such statements to orient them. Although a thesis can go anywhere in the paper, you should place it up front to give readers a sense of control over the subject, enabling them to anticipate the content and more easily understand the relationship between its various ideas and details.

The following are some thesis statements written by students in a graduate-degree program. The writers have clearly identified their purposes, and their readers will know what to expect as they read:

“The end result of the US effort in Vietnam was a tactical victory and a strategic defeat.”

“Although the invasion of Panama on 20 December 1989, known as Operation Just Cause, successfully protected the short-term US interests, it failed to achieve long-term stability in Panama.”

“Amazon Basin development has had and will continue to have significant international impact and, particularly, an impact on the relations between the United States and Brazil.”

Overview Statements

Overview statements are special kinds of thesis statements that not only identify the main idea but also give an overview of the way the thesis will be developed. Although the previous thesis statements do forecast what is to come (we know, for example, that the first thesis will discuss the tactical and strategic aspects of US efforts in Vietnam), we do not know what specific aspects will be covered. Nor does the second thesis identify the short-term US interests for the reader. The following overview statement much more specifically prepares the reader for the main parts of the paper:

Operation Just Cause was a military success that achieved its objectives of protecting US citizens in Panama, apprehending Noriega, restoring democracy, and safeguarding the canal.

COMMONLY ASKED QUESTIONS ABOUT REVISION

When Does Revision Occur?

Revision can occur throughout the writing process. Finding a mechanical error might lead a writer to reexamine a passage for other errors. Reading a paper aloud and stumbling across some complex wording in a sentence might cause a writer to rethink what they are really trying to say. Revision, therefore, is not something we do only at the end of the whole writing process. In-progress revision is always a possibility, but don't let it interrupt the flow of your writing when you are making progress.

What Kinds of Revisions Are Possible?

Some revisions make the text more readable. In fact, the goal of all revision should be to make the writing say what it has to say clearly and gracefully. Some writers, however, can revise to make the text less readable. The writer who slavishly conforms to the advice of his or her grammar-checking program might move from a readable style to one that resembles a child's primer. Finally, it is possible to revise and make no meaningful changes to the draft.

Do Good Writers Always Revise Extensively?

Some writers, like James Michener, who labeled himself "one of the world's greatest revisers," revise extensively. James Joyce tinkered with *Finnegan's Wake* for seventeen years just trying to get the words right. Other great writers, like Robert Frost, dashed off poems in a few hours. But we can't say conclusively that bad writers make only minor corrections. What one has to conclude is that individual writers revise in different ways and seldom revise the same way each time.

When you feel you have completed your task and done your best work, much remains to be done:

1. Read aloud exactly what you wrote, what is actually on the pages, *not* what you *think* you wrote, *not* what you *meant* to write. Read what is on the paper. That is what your readers can see and is their only way to judge the merits of your efforts.
2. Listen to what you read. Your mind's ear will tell you things your eyes will never see.
3. Listen for punctuation. We punctuate our speech with brief pauses, complete stops, and changes in volume and pitch. Does the punctuation of the paper match that of your voice?

4. Make notes as you read to check for consistency and clarity.
5. Does the conclusion convey all the key points clearly and accurately?

TEN QUESTIONS TO HELP YOU EXAMINE YOUR OWN WRITING PROCESS

1. How do you typically go about preparing for a writing assignment? Describe the steps you take, including rereading the assignment, asking questions about it, talking to instructors or friends, jotting down ideas, gathering information, and so on. How far in advance of the due date do you usually begin working on the assignment?
2. When and where do your best ideas often come to you?
3. Where do you usually do your writing? Describe this place. Is it a good place to write? Why or why not?
4. What materials do you typically use when writing? Pen or pencil and notepad? Computer?
5. Describe your typical drafting process. Do you finish a draft in one sitting, or do you prefer to take breaks? How many drafts do you usually go through before the final one? Why?
6. If you get stuck while writing, what do you usually do to get moving again?
7. How do you typically go about revising, and what does your revising include? What are the things you think about most as you revise?
8. What would you say is most efficient and effective about your writing process?
9. What is least efficient and effective about your writing process?
10. What specific steps could you take to improve your writing process?

EXERCISES IN WRITING ANALYTICAL PAPERS

Group Exercises

Exercise 1

The following are types of intelligence writing:

1. **Descriptive:** As the name implies, this type of intelligence writing describes something in sensory terms—size, shape, composition, and color, for example.

2. **Explanatory:** This type of writing provides an explanation of how something works, why it performs the way it does, or why something happened.
3. **Estimative:** Estimates look toward the future and make forecasts or predictions, suggesting the implications for US national security.

With those definitions in mind, answer the following questions in your group. Be prepared to discuss your answers with the other groups:

1. Into what category do you think most intelligence writing falls?
2. Name types of intelligence products that you think might fit into each category:
 - a. Descriptive
 - b. Explanatory
 - c. Estimative
3. Where would analytical papers fit?

Exercise 2

List on a separate sheet of paper some of the features you think might characterize an analytical paper. Then discuss the following:

1. When you review someone else's paper, what is the first thing you do?
2. When you review your own paper, what is the first thing you do?
3. Briefly describe your review process for a ten-page paper if you are given
 - a. ten minutes
 - b. two hours
 - c. ten days

Exercise 3

The job is never over until the paperwork is done, and one of the last elements of the paperwork is proofreading. Many state-of-the-art computer programs can help you with this chore, but in the final proof, there is no substitute for the human eye. Ask a friend, your spouse, or your classmate to proofread your work if you feel you have missed something.

The following two exercises in proofreading contain some of the most common errors in student papers. See how many you can find; then compare your proofing with the answers. Remember that you are simply *proofreading*

here—looking for *errors*—and *not* editing for style or content. Work on this exercise in small groups (two or three people), and discuss each error:

Proofreading Exercise 1

There is many reasons why a student should learn to write correctly. Evidance of poor writing is apparant in many papers submitted to the college faculty. In our judgement, a principle reason for learning to write correct papers are the professionallism inherant in clear, concise writing. Your ability to produce a coherant paper might ultimatly effect your career.

Profreading is one technique which will help to insure correctness in your writing. One affect of proofreading is to prevent common errors from occurring. Irregardless of your writing experience, you will benefit from the procecdure of carefully proofreading your writing.

Proofreading Exercise 2

Media reports site numerous examples of an alledged international conspiracy among terrorist organizaions. Their are many possible reasons for terrorists groups to ban together, including: their mutual desire to destabalize a Government, or to disrupt an Alliance such as Nato; shared goals in an independance movement; or one groups willingness to accomodate the seperatist philosophy of another group.

A principle effect of a terrorist conspiracy might be it's devastating consequences in terms of International Alliances. The occurence of the Achille Lauro hijacking, for example, proved that a handfull of terrorists could affect a governments stability and have ominous repercussions on international relations. If an alliance of terrorist organizations had been involved in that incidunt, it's outcome might have been even more serious.

Individual Exercise

As you review the following papers, keep these questions in mind:

1. Is this an analytical paper?
2. If so, why? If not, why not?
3. What advice would you give the writer to improve the product?

Paper 1: A "Treasury" of Information

This excerpt was the introduction to a student paper entitled "U.S. Treasury Department Intelligence Capabilities: A Brief Description of Major Subordinate Operating Bureaus, Organizations and Functions." The paper was to be no longer than fifteen pages:

This research paper will focus on the Treasury Department and its intelligence capabilities. I will briefly discuss the history of the Treasury Department and its relationship with the Intelligence Community.

The Treasury Department maintains staff cognizance and responsibilities for various bureaus and offices which possess a unique intelligence capability. For the uniqueness of these bureaus and the U.S. Customs service; I selected the following agencies in a effort to provide a better understanding about how they function:

1. The U.S. Department of the Treasury.
2. Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco, and Firearms.
3. Internal Revenue Service.
4. U.S. Secret Service.
5. U.S. Customs Service.
6. The evolution of the role of the U.S. Treasury Department.
7. The role of the Treasury Department in the National Foreign Intelligence Community.

I will address several of these issues in the following discussion of the Treasury Department and its subordinate operating bureaus and their Intelligence capability. First, I will identify their various responsibilities and relationship to the Treasury Department. Second, I will offer an assessment of the Treasury Departments future of effort. Finally, I will provide an assessment of where the organization is and offer an analysis of where the organization is headed.

Background

U.S. Department of the Treasury (DOT), is an executive department of the U.S. government, charged with the management of the nation's financial actions. The Treasury Department was established on September 1, 1789, by an act of Congress. Currently the Secretary of the Treasury is charged with numerous duties to include sub-agencies responsible for guarding the President, enforcement of laws in such areas concerning counterfeiting, illegal imports, and tax evasion.

The Secretary of the Treasury is appointed by the President, and is aided by various operating bureaus subordinate to the Treasury Department. The Secretary of the Treasury serves as the Principal adviser to the President on fiscal matters.

Could the student have reasonably expected adequate coverage of this topic in fifteen pages? What was the fundamental problem with this paper's intent?

Paper 2: Conference in Canberra

This paper was a draft submitted by a young intelligence analyst in a national agency. Minor changes were made for security reasons:

A conference on U.S. and European naval activity in the Southern Hemisphere will be held this winter in Canberra. The agenda will be similar to that convened last spring in Montevideo. According to a usually reliable source in Paris, a Libyan hit team will be sent to attack delegates from countries inimical to Libyan interests and to its policy aims. Based on this report and other information, we believe they will be armed with [a] shoulder-fired missile launcher. The weapon's range would allow it to be fired from beyond the security perimeter set up around the meeting facilities. The team will likely target our embassy also and that of London and France. Libyan failure to successfully attack delegates to the Montevideo conference was because of its lack of this weapon, which they had tried to acquire.

The targeting of U.S., British and French interests is planned because Qadhafi regards these countries as the principal impediments to him achieving the radical anti-shipping aims, which are the subject of the conference. Such action might weaken another West European resolve to retaliate for Libyan terrorism in their countries. They will likely continue trying to convince the U.S. to improve relations. U.S. objections to Soviet representation, however, block Chinese efforts to attend, because the other countries will not accept one without the other. Prime Minister Thatcher has announced she will not stand in the way of Moscow taking part in deliberations affecting Soviet interests.

In our view, based on actions last spring, Qadhafi believes that our likely reprisals will not go beyond one or more surgical strikes on Libya. The Libyan claim that its forces downed U.S. planes there could give Qadhafi a pretext to avoid further escalation.

What is the theme of this paper? Where is that theme first stated?

Paper 3: Humint in the Old Testament

This final example is the introduction to a graduate research paper. It was to have dealt analytically with the subject of human intelligence (Humint) in biblical history:

The collection of information, either by legal or illegal means, through the use of human sources, whether about one's friends or enemies, has long been an accepted practice. This collection activity, referred to as human intelligence

(Humint), is as old as recorded history. Hence this study which examines the single source of our most ancient written history, the Old Testament.

It must be understood and accepted at the outset that many of the references and/or indications of Humint activities described in this paper may be in error due to the possibility of mistakes in the various translations or interpretations of the source. Never-the-less, the study will examine the incidents where it appears that Humint activities have been recorded or referenced, and will attempt to analyze the utility, accuracy and effect of the collected intelligence within its particular circumstances.

There will be no attempt to treat the source as other than an academic text. References to persons, places, or being described therein will be treated as factual. Other sources, commentaries, opinions, topical guides, indexes, etc., will be utilized to further make, clarify or substantiate a point, as required.

The earliest recorded event of Humint exploitation occurs in the Garden of Eden. Here a serpent tempted Eve to eat of the tree of knowledge of good and evil, saying it would make her as the gods, knowing good and evil, and that it was desirable to make one wise. Where did the serpent get this information? The record is mute on that point. This may be one of those times when the source can accurately be described as unknown. The serpent's information, from whom-ever or wherever it was obtained, was accurate, and it surely changed the course of events for Adam and Eve, if not the entire world, as they were cast out of the Garden of Eden to become members of the human race in the lone and dreary world of weeds and sweat and intelligence gathering and analysis.

Can this paper be called analytical? If so, why? If not, why not?

Answers to the Exercises

There are many potential answers to these exercises. The following are some possibilities.

Group Exercise 1

1. Despite our best efforts, most intelligence writing still seems to be *descriptive*.
2.
 - a. **Descriptive:** Orders of battle or country studies
 - b. **Explanatory:** Scientific and technical (S&T) intelligence studies and reports
 - c. **Estimative:** National intelligence estimates, defense intelligence estimates

3. Analytical papers really cover the gamut of intelligence writing. They are often based on historical (mostly descriptive) writing, but their *focus* is—or should be—*estimative*.

Group Exercise 2

An analytical paper has many characteristics, but perhaps the most important are these:

- An analytical paper is oriented toward conclusions, not just a summary.
- It is focused on the future, not the past.
- The paper contains essentials and evidence.
- An analytical paper is relevant to policy makers and decision makers.

Answers to discussion questions:

1. Put your pen or pencil down, and read through the entire paper once. Get a feeling for its organization, style, and content.
2. In reviewing your own paper, let it sit for a while first.
3. The review process differs depending on the amount of time you have to do the review. If you're limited to only a few minutes, then *skim* the paper, looking for major problems. You really don't have time to do anything else. If you have two hours for a ten-page paper, then you have more than ten minutes per page. Use the review processes in this chapter. If you have as many as ten days to review a paper, chances are, you'll still spend about the same amount of time as if you had two hours, but it helps if you do your holistic review at one sitting and then return for a second look later in the day or even days later.

Group Exercise 3

Remember that these exercises called for you to *proofread*, not to *edit*. You were merely looking for errors here, not trying to revise the style (although they could certainly stand some improvement).

Proofreading Exercise 1

There **are** [subject-verb agreement; the true subject of the sentence is *reasons*, not *there*, and requires the plural verb *are*] many reasons why a student should learn to write correctly. **Evidence** [spelling] of poor writing is **apparent** [spelling] in many papers **submitted** [spelling] to the college faculty. In

our **judgment** [preferred usage in American English is without the first *e*], a **principal** [usage error; *principal* is the adjective] reason for learning to write correct papers **is** [subject-verb agreement; *reason* is the subject, not *papers*] the **professionalism** [spelling] **inherent** [spelling] in clear, concise writing. Your ability to produce a **coherent** [spelling] paper may **ultimately** [spelling] **affect** [usage error; the verb form *affect* is needed here, meaning “have an impact on”] your career.

Proofreading [spelling] is one technique **that** [usage error] will help to **ensure** [preferred spelling; *insure* means to insure life, health, or property] correctness in your writing. One **effect** [usage error; here you need the noun *effect*, meaning “result”] of proofreading is to prevent common errors from **occurring** [spelling]. **Regardless** [there is no such word as *irregardless*] of your writing experience, you will benefit from the **procedure** [spelling] of carefully proofreading your writing.

Proofreading Exercise 2

Media reports **cite** [to mention is to *cite*; *site* is a location] numerous examples of an **alleged** [spelling] international conspiracy among terrorist **organizations** [spelling]. **There** [spelling] are many possible reasons for **terrorist** [singular, not plural or possessive] groups to **band** [usage error; *ban* means to prohibit] together, including their mutual desire to **destabilize** [spelling] a **government** [capitalize only for proper nouns] or to disrupt an **alliance** [again, capitalize only when being specific, as in *Alliance for Progress*], such as **NATO** [acronyms are all uppercase]; shared goals in an **independence** [spelling] movement; or one **group’s** [possessive, not plural] willingness to **accommodate** [spelling] the **separatist** [spelling] philosophy of another group.

A **principal** [usage error; the adjective form is *principal*] effect of a terrorist conspiracy might be **its** [possessive form is *its*, not the contraction *it’s*] devastating consequences in terms of **international alliances** [neither word should be capitalized when writing in general terms]. The **occurrence** [spelling] of the *Achille Lauro* [ships’ names are italicized or underlined] hijacking, for example, proved that a **handful** [spelling] of terrorists could affect a **government’s** [possessive, not plural] stability and have ominous repercussions on international relations. If an alliance of terrorist organizations had been involved in that **incident** [spelling], **its** [possessive again, not the contraction] outcome may have been even more serious.

*Individual Exercise***Paper 1: A “Treasury” of Information**

1. Considering the scope of information promised by this student in his introduction, he had absolutely no hope of covering the topic adequately in 15 pages (probably not even in 1,500 pages).
2. The fundamental problem with this paper’s approach is its focus. The student ignored prewriting and moved straight into the first draft.

Paper 2: Conference in Canberra

1. The theme of this article is a possible terrorist threat against delegates to a forthcoming conference.
2. Violating a cardinal rule of intelligence writing—bottom line up front—this writer waits until the third sentence to state the theme, which deals with an imminent threat.

Paper 3: Humint in the Old Testament

This student unintentionally injected a great deal of humor (not Humint!) into the piece. Beginning with the Garden of Eden is a stretch because there were only two humans on Earth at the time. If anything, he was writing not about Humint but about *Serpint* because the snake was the culprit. There’s little analytical value in this piece, but it provides a classic line: “[T]hey were cast out of the Garden of Eden to become members of the human race in the lone and dreary world of weeds and sweat and intelligence gathering and analysis.” So it was written; so it shall be.

Part III

BRIEFING WITH INTELLIGENCE

Scripting Your Briefing

BOTTOM LINE UP FRONT

When it comes to communication, briefings are essential for bridging the intelligence community (IC) to policy makers and policy action. In the intelligence and national security communities, we brief because we have information that we have collected, evaluated, analyzed, and turned into intelligence. The first step of successfully communicating intelligence to your audience is organizing and scripting the brief.

Key Points

The elements of a good briefing are as simple as ABC:

- Ensure *accuracy* by doing careful research and analysis.
- Be as *brief* as you can under the circumstances imposed on you by your supervisors.
- Be *clear* in speech, and use plain, simple, easy-to-understand words in short, hard-hitting sentences.

When writing the draft, do the following:

1. *Outline* your thoughts into an introduction, a body, and a conclusion.
2. Using those three headings, *develop* subordinate thoughts as you go.
3. In the introduction, *explain* what you will cover in the briefing.
4. In the body, *cover all* your main points.

5. In the conclusion, *briefly summarize* the points the audience should remember.

A DISCLAIMER: READ AND HEED

Rest assured of one certainty: If you serve in the profession of intelligence, you will brief. It's inevitable. Part III of this book has one goal in mind: to convey the *principles* of public speaking—briefing, in our usual vernacular. Don't read this portion of the book and assume that you have read all there is to know about giving a briefing. There are simply too many variations in the procedures, most of them dictated by the organization.

That said, I found one universal truth: The *principles* of a good intelligence briefing—one that communicates its message properly to its intended audience—don't change on the whims of new supervisors, professors, or technological innovations. With that in mind, this chapter focuses on those principles to guide you through some of the minefields between you and your objective.

As a former senior intelligence official who briefed members of Congress regularly about key threats, I know first-hand how important it is to deliver impartial and objective insights and analysis to the U.S. intelligence community in-person. While there is value in delivering what are known as “paper-only” assessments to members of Congress, in my career lawmakers and staff glean further insights from direct questioning of intelligence professionals. Moreover, the give and take that occurs in closed briefing rooms allows for a better understanding of sensitive and complex topics.

—Javed Ali, former senior director for counterterrorism
at the National Security Council¹

A BRIEF TYPOLOGY OF BRIEFINGS

There are as many types of intelligence briefings as there are organizations. The style, format, and content of these briefings are driven not by intelligence people but by commanders, policy makers, operators, planners, chiefs, directors, and others whose specific needs for intelligence are fulfilled by periodic briefings. In short, our briefings are consumer driven.

Briefings might be characterized by their content (threat; organization, mission, and functions; imagery); by their type (information, decision, staff, mission); by their currency (current intelligence, background, estimative); or by other means peculiar to a given organization.

The following pages address four of the most common types of intelligence briefings: organization, mission, and functions; specialty; recurring; and nonrecurring. The first two are topic oriented, and the last two are frequency oriented. The same principles, though, apply to all. Keep in mind the intended purpose and the recipient for each type of briefing in your own organization. Those points will apply whether you are a student or a professional.

The Organization, Mission, and Functions Briefing

This presentation focuses on a command or agency and is informative or explanatory in nature. It usually centers on a diagrammatic representation of the organization (a line-and-block chart or wiring diagram is a common visual aid), and it explains the roles and purposes of various components of the organization. It is generally a short briefing—ten to twenty minutes—and it might be conducted informally, even desk side, by an analyst who explains his or her role in the organization.

Many consumers tire quickly of this type of briefing, especially if the presentation is laden with the inevitable wiring diagrams. As a briefer, you can do many things to spice up the presentation. For example, limit the lines and blocks to a minimum, and throw in a tour of the organization or another concrete measure to relate the organization to the customer. They will retain a great deal more that way, and they will appreciate the opportunity to interact with the analysts.

The Specialty Briefing

The specialty briefing is common in the intelligence community. It might concern only a single subject and offer comprehensive coverage of that subject (an imagery briefing or a scientific and technical intelligence briefing about a particular piece of equipment), or it might cover a subject as broad as an intelligence discipline (Sigint operations in the theater, or a Humint Plan). Specialty briefings vary widely in their length and mode of presentation. They might be ad hoc, responding to a single request for information, or recurring, based on a standing requirement for updates on a given subject.

Again, these briefings can be greatly improved by tailoring the subject to the recipient. For example, if you are a human intelligence professional and your intended recipient is a senior officer in the Sigint community, then show



Fig. 9.1. Lt. Dana Wiener, intelligence officer aboard the guided missile frigate USS *Nicholas* (FFG-47), indicates the positions of ships in the Strait of Hormuz during an intelligence briefing, (January 6, 1988). Combined Military Service Digital Photographic Files (Scene Camera Operator: PHCS Mitchell, USN), the US National Archives, National Archives Building, Washington, DC.

how Humint can support and complement Sigint. Give specific examples related to the organization or the theater.

The Recurring Briefing

Many commands and agencies offer recurring briefings that are not specifically organizational or mission oriented but deal with the perceived threat to their command or theater, with products and services being offered or with a specific subject of intelligence interest to that organization. While either of the previously discussed types of briefings might be considered recurring, this category is a broader one, encompassing more topics than either the organizational or the specialty briefing. A daily briefing prepared for the chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff is a recurring briefing. The information differs every day, but the briefing occurs daily.

The Nonrecurring Briefing

Often the most time-consuming type of presentation, the nonrecurring briefing might respond to a single requirement for information and then never be

given again. However, if it is well received by the audience, it might suddenly become a recurring briefing. This type of briefing will vary widely in its length, formality, and method of presentation.

Perhaps the most frequent requirement placed on intelligence professionals is for informal desk-side briefings. Those might deal strictly with the organization, mission, and functions, or they might be more specific informational briefings about a specialty area. It's a good idea to have available an off-the-shelf briefing about your role in the organization, including any particular subject areas of current interest to someone who might drop by. Depending on the visual aids immediately available to you, two or three slides of a PowerPoint, flip charts, or copies of slides in a three-ring binder can help you cover a lot of territories. You might even be able to use a mobile device, such as a tablet.

THE ABCS OF GOOD INTELLIGENCE BRIEFINGS AND BRIEFERS

You've no doubt sat through a briefing where the briefer's mind seems to shift into neutral and never changes gears. It's agonizing for an audience to be subjected to some of the inane presentations dubbed "intelligence briefings." But with only a little foresight and preparation, anyone can give a well-organized, clear, concise briefing.

The components of a good intelligence briefing are as easy to remember as "ABC": accuracy, brevity, and clarity. None of these elements can be sacrificed or shortchanged without destroying the basic purpose of the briefing: to clearly and concisely impart factual information to a recipient or an audience with some reason for hearing it.

Accuracy: Just the Facts—and the Analysis

You might have given the same briefing one hundred times to one thousand different recipients, and you are convinced that you know the information cold. Then in the 101st presentation, you ad-lib some information for Representative Campbell about Iran's ballistic missile program, with no assurance that your information is correct because there hasn't been time for your fellow analysts to evaluate the data thoroughly. As it turns out, your information was incorrect. Five years later, you run into Senator Campbell, who is now the chair of the Intelligence Committee. Guess what one piece of information he retained from your entire briefing?

It is incumbent on intelligence professionals to be as accurate as possible in the assessments and estimates that form the basis for intelligence briefings.

We can never be absolutely certain that our information is correct unless we have highly reliable sources verified by unimpeachable sources. Nevertheless, we can make our best effort to ensure that whatever information we have is well researched, documented wherever possible, and cross-checked with other sources. Strive for all-source intelligence when possible.

No one has invented a magic formula to ensure accuracy. The best way to ensure that your briefing will be as accurate as possible is to do thorough research and exhaustive analysis. When a State Department official was asked what made someone a good briefer, he was blunt: “They know their stuff.” He didn’t use the word *stuff*.

Brevity: Say Only What You Need to Say

A briefing should be brief. The basic principle for ensuring brevity is this: Tailor the *time* to the *briefing*, not the briefing to the time. Of course, that’s not always an easy thing to do, especially when the boss calls and says, “I want you to prepare a thirty-minute briefing for Director Adam Hester, who’ll be here next Tuesday morning.” But there is a technique you might be able to use in getting the time tailored to the briefing: using an outline.

The outline you prepare for a briefing is no different than the one you might have done for a written product. Think first about the major topics you want to cover in your briefing. (Those topics might have been provided to you already by your considerate boss, who may not have wanted you to waste your time on such trivial thoughts.) Write the major headings and topics down, organize them, and decide what you want to say under each of them.

Once you’ve developed your outline into a satisfactory design for the briefing, decide how much time you’ll need to cover those topics. If it comes to less than the thirty-minute requirement the boss laid on you, then go back up the chain, show him the outline, and explain that you can cover the ground in less than thirty minutes. It is then incumbent on management to determine whether they want additional information to pad the briefing and fill time or whether the extra time might be spent doing something more productive.

If you encounter an intransigent boss who insists on the full thirty minutes being devoted to a formal presentation, then you must do so. You might then consider using an approach with two or more of the analysts participating in the briefing, focusing on their own areas of expertise. Of course, you will need to coach them and ensure that they are competent on their feet.

Clarity: Make It Understandable to All

The principle of clarity is stressed earlier in this book. It is also important in briefing. If you slip up in your writing and something is unclear, then the reader can always go back a sentence, a paragraph, or a page for clarity. The recipient of a briefing doesn't have that luxury. Some senior people will stop you during the briefing and ask you to explain something that they didn't understand, but you'll probably find that most of your recipients will politely allow the moment to pass, and the point will be lost. Worse, if your audience misses a point of information, they might sit thinking about it for a minute or so before giving up. Now, you have lost their attention completely.

You can make some preparations ahead of time to help ensure clarity in your briefing. These preparations include adequate planning, use of the principles of good writing, and careful selection or preparation of visual aids.

GET STARTED: GET ORGANIZED

Unless done extemporaneously, an intelligence briefing starts as a written product. The types of oral briefings are the same as those for written briefings: organization, mission, and functions; specialty; recurring; and nonrecurring. The most troublesome will probably be a nonrecurring briefing. These are often given for high-ranking officials who need a particular one-time briefing from your intelligence shop. Following simple steps will facilitate your work.

Topic and Time

The topic of your briefing and the time allotted for it will often be assigned by your superiors. The leeway you have within that topic might depend on such factors as your analytical experience, how many times you have briefed on that subject or a similar one, and the nature of the audience.

You must clearly define the topic in the organizational stages. Do not waste time. Do not take chances. If you have doubts about the intended subject, ask for clarification. If asking your superior face to face is impractical, then email him or her the proposed outline for approval. Often, defining your topic involves simply redefining the problem, which is common in intelligence work. Clearly define the problem in all its aspects; break it into its components; reintegrate it with all facets stated clearly (see Fig. 9.2).

Then choose a particular part of the topic or have someone do it for you. As noted earlier, tailor the time to the briefing, not vice versa. Being allotted a certain amount of time doesn't mean you must fill it. Neither you nor your

Talking points for briefing to House Energy and Commerce
Committee-Subcommittee on Oversight and Investigations, on 24
April 1991

(b)(7), 10 USC 424

— Good morning, I am [REDACTED] Chief of the Nuclear Energy Division at DIA. With me is

[REDACTED]

(b)(1), (b)(7), 50 USC
403 (a), 1.4 (a)

— I wear a second hat as Chairman of the Joint Atomic Energy Intelligence Committee or JAEIC. The JAEIC is an interagency body charged with advising the DCI on the production of intelligence on all foreign atomic energy issues and promoting the effective use of community resources. "11 + - kkr 1 J

L 2

— My intention today is to describe our intelligence assessments of the Iraqi nuclear programs, focussing on two time periods- the 10' 89-90 time frame and then on the Desert Shield/Desert Storm

JJA period. My presentation will be at the Secret/Noform/WNINTEL ,V level and I will not discuss [REDACTED] intelligence data. (b)(1), 1.4 (a)

Before I start, I would like to generally characterize the 2 nature of the intelligence we have on the Iraqi program.

[REDACTED]

(b)(1), 1.4 (a)

Overall, I would characterize our knowledge as good at the strategic level. That is, we can identify programs underway and their status.

[REDACTED]

(b)(1), 1.4 (a)

Fig. 9.2. "John T. Kriese, US Defense Intelligence Agency, 'Talking Points for Briefing to House Energy and Commerce Committee – Subcommittee on Oversight and Investigations'." April 24, 1991, History and Public Policy Program Digital Archive, Defense Intelligence Agency Freedom of Information Act Release. Obtained and contributed by William Burr for NPIHP Research Update No. 25, <https://digitalarchive.wilsoncenter.org/document/11922>.

audience has time to waste, so be clear and direct, and do not include unnecessary information. Quality is preferable to quantity. “Be brief, be bold, be gone,” is the advice Lieutenant Colonel Mike Brady gives to students at the Citadel Military College.

If you determine that the time allotted is too short, look for a solution. Review the proposed agenda to see if there is time you might “borrow” from a friend or fellow briefer. If the schedule looks tight and other presenters have no time to spare, then your options are limited: (1) Go with the assigned time and be as concise as possible, or (2) ask the individual who assigned the times for more. Once you have a specific subject and an allotted time, your work begins in earnest. If it’s a short presentation, don’t assume you need less time to prepare. Keeping things brief often requires more planning.

Prewrite

An effective briefing begins with careful planning based on an outline. Before beginning the outline, focus on your subject and a few other important considerations. First, focus *your efforts on your assigned topic*. Write the topic at the top of a piece of paper. You might include a proposed title or its major theme if it is untitled. Keep that paper in front of you throughout the planning and preparation stages, and stick to the subject. You could also use a Post-It note on your computer screen. Second, *plan your time schedule*, and *analyze your audience*.

Set Goals

As with a written product, you must initiate the backward-planning sequence that results in a list of goals. Start with the date and time of the proposed briefing and work backward from there to the present time. Be sure to use bold print or underline all items over which you have no direct control: preparation of the final script (if you’re using a formal one), preparation of the graphics, and scheduled rehearsals for intermediates—those in the chain of command between you and the principal recipient of your briefing. They will want to hear the presentation first.

Occasionally you must rely on people outside your office for help in preparing for your briefing. Alert administrative support people of any upcoming requirements. To ensure timely support, give them an idea of the approximate magnitude of the final product, such as the approximate number of pages of script and the likely number of graphics. Next, visit or call the office(s) of your superior(s) who will need to hear the briefing in rehearsal before it



Fig. 9.3. Lance CPL. Taf Tolbert, a graphic illustrator with Intelligence Company, 45 Commando, prepares a map for an orders brief (14 May 1996). Combined Joint Training Field Exercise (CJTfEX) 96 (Scene Camera Operator: Lance CPL. R. L. Kulger, Jr.), the US National Archives, National Archives Building, Washington, DC.

goes to the intended audience. Perhaps you can schedule a couple of them simultaneously.

Give yourself flexibility in scheduling rehearsals. Unless truly pressed for time, allow a full day between the last practice and the final briefing. This gives any supporting people the time needed to change the script and graphics; it also allows for your own last-minute checks and preparation. If the briefing is to be thirty minutes long, then schedule at least one full hour for each walk-through. Use that factor of two-to-one for planning rehearsal time to final briefing time.

You will seldom be able to devote your time entirely to preparing a briefing. Depending on the rank and status of the proposed recipient(s), your boss might give a break on other projects, but it's likely you'll still have to keep with your normal workload. Check your own suspense list or calendar for the dates between today and the proposed briefing date. Include any outstanding papers, projects, or other briefings on your goals list as necessary evils.

Analyze Your Audience

Even if you know those who will be your audience, consider what he or she may know about the specific subject you'll be briefing. Don't waste an important visitor's time by starting with a lot of background, geography, or history if your listener already has a strong foundation in those subjects. If this were a newcomer or visitor to your headquarters being briefed for the first time, then you might want to start with some of those subjects to give the necessary context to the main topic. If your intended audience is unfamiliar to you, then find out all you can before giving the briefing.

Senior officials often have chiefs of staff, administrative assistants, executive officers, or all of the above. Their jobs depend on managing the boss's schedule and ensuring that everything goes well. They cannot afford to waste their boss's time. Contact them ahead of time with the date and time of the briefing; ask if there's anything you should know. They will probably tell you more than you ever dreamed, including how they like their coffee, words to avoid in the briefing, and how many times they had a similar briefing in the last year or so. If this information isn't volunteered, ask.

Also, ask for a biographic sketch of your listener. By reviewing their career history, you can discern whether some aspects of your briefing might be superfluous. For instance, a military official on the National Security Council won't need you to explain how hypersonic missiles works. Try to learn in advance, also, whether there will be others in the audience. High-ranking officials often have an entourage with them. Ensure that everyone in the audience has both the security clearance and the need to know for your briefing. Briefing senior officials can also be unnerving, so it's best to be as prepared as possible.

Research

Like the written product, the briefing also requires you to do your research and analysis. Be sure that you gather all the facts. Accuracy is crucial and demands thorough and timely research. Gather all the data you will need for preparation of your script: studies, assessments, estimates, message traffic, maps, and your own notes on the subject. Have them readily accessible before you begin to prepare your briefing script.

Outline Your Thoughts

An efficient outline is your single best tool for organizing your thoughts and structuring your briefing in a logical, clear, concise manner. Even if you are

the top expert on the subject you're scheduled to present, you still need an outline to focus your thoughts and avoid creating an overstuffed presentation.

Remember that piece of paper where you wrote the subject across the top so you'd stick to it? Well, you need that paper now. Build your outline right under that title using these three major headings:

- I. Introduction
- II. Body
- III. Conclusion

Space those headings out or put one of the headings at the top of three separate sheets of paper or three blank documents in your word processor. Set aside the introduction page for a minute, and go to the body. That's the part you'll outline first. Consider the main topics you need to cover in the briefing. Perhaps some were provided by your superiors. Outline those subjects, either as a topic outline or a topic sentence outline. Once you're satisfied that you've covered the main points, reread your outline, and extract the key points. Include those in your introduction as summary points. Also plan to review those points in your conclusion.

At this point, you have sketched out the major topics to cover in your introduction and in the body. Now you can tentatively allot time to the segments of your briefing. Assuming that you're scheduled to give a thirty-minute presentation, anticipate at least one minute for the introduction and one minute for the conclusion. Set aside five minutes for questions and/or discussion. That leaves you with twenty-three minutes for the main body of your briefing. That figure will be important as you plan and begin to write the script.

WRITE THE SCRIPT

Many briefings, especially recurring ones that the briefer has given numerous times, do not rely on a script, but chances are that they began as scripted briefings. As the briefer becomes more familiar with the subject matter, the script is consulted less frequently and, finally, not at all. A good working script facilitates an effective briefing.

A good briefer must do three things:

1. Present the points to be discussed.
2. Explain those points.
3. Review those points.

The Introduction: Present the Points

Use the points listed in the main body section of your outline in your introduction. Other points to include are a greeting and self-introduction; subject, significance, and summary of the briefing; and the length, classification, and time allotted (if any) for questions and/or discussion.

Greeting and Self-Introduction

It's simple: Smile pleasantly at the audience, and greet the senior person present by name. Show that you care about both your audience and your topic. Give your listeners a one-liner with your name, rank or grade, and position in the organization. For example, if you're the desk analyst for the country you're about to brief, tell them. It lends *credibility* to your discussion. Also, never begin a briefing with "Webster's Dictionary defines . . ." Nobody will ever take you seriously again. It's tired and hackneyed. Do not do it.

Subject, Significance, and Summary of the Briefing

It's not enough to say something like "Today's briefing concerns a new weapon." The briefing will be far more meaningful to your listeners if you make it relevant to them by telling them why the subject is important to them. Give them a good reason for being there, and pique their interest by letting them know what this means for them. This will increase both their attention and their retention. That can be done by verbally highlighting the main points or by using a visual aid to convey those points.

Length, Classification, and Time Allotted for Questions

You can hope that your audience will know the intended length of the briefing, but don't count on it. Hence you should make a quick reference to the length of your prepared presentation.

Remind the audience, too, if your briefing is classified. Follow the procedures that your command or agency requires for a classified briefing. Do this before you begin, and then remind the audience during the introduction not only of the classification (confidential, secret, top secret) but also of any caveats that apply (Orcon, SI, TK, Noform, TGIF, or whatever).

Tell your audience how much time is allotted for questions and discussion. You know that senior officials will ask questions whenever they see fit, but most of them are polite about it and try to adhere to the time allotted. If they run over time, then at least you warned them.

The Body of the Briefing

Now you're ready to plunge into the second part of the equation: the main body of the briefing, in which you discuss the main points of the topic.

A good outline is a foundation on which to build the main body of the brief. Add the results of your accumulated research to the framework, building paragraphs based on the topic sentences. Each paragraph should contain one major idea or central assertion—*only one*. When you begin to cover a new subject or a different aspect of the same subject, move on to the next paragraph.

It's vital that you use short, precise, understandable words and sentences. As you write, pause periodically, and read aloud what you've written. Finding an isolated, quiet place to read your work aloud will help you find and fix problems. If that's not feasible because of your working conditions or other considerations, try to hear the words in your mind as you read silently. Also, be sure you are reading exactly what is on the page.

As you write the words, keep in mind the time allotted for the briefing. How do you plan the amount of writing that will fill the time allocated for the body of the briefing? In truth, that's a factor that requires individual briefing experience. I have learned from experience that it takes me approximately two and a half minutes to read, at a steady pace, a double-spaced, typewritten page of the script (assuming normal margins).

The only way to determine your own speed is to practice it. Don't just read one page and click off the stopwatch. It's best to use a longer script—four to ten pages—and strike an average. Time yourself *at least* three times, and try it at different times of the day. You might speak a little faster after your midmorning coffee break than at 4:30 p.m. after a long day's work. Assuming that you, too, average about two and a half minutes per page, determining the briefing's typewritten length is a matter of mathematics: Your twenty-three-minute briefing should be about nine pages long ($23/2.5 = 9.2$).

The Conclusion

The words and pictures that will constitute the main body of your briefing are the hardest ones to write and visualize. Once you've completed the body, review it carefully to ensure that all your main points are also included in your introduction. Then include those points again in your conclusion. Don't be redundant by repeating the exact words you used before. Rephrase them as a means of reemphasizing the point.

Always introduce the concluding part of your briefing with such keywords as "In conclusion" or "In summary." That lets your audience know you are approaching the last minute or so of your presentation and they should pay

particular attention to the points you're about to make because those are the ones they need to remember. Furthermore, the briefing conclusion, like the introduction, should always contain two key elements: (1) the summary and (2) a reminder of the classification.

Pointers for Writing the Script

- Type in all uppercase letters using a large font (fourteen or larger) for ease of reading.
- Leave a wide margin at the right or left to make your notations about slides, pauses, and time checks.
- Use only one-half to three-quarters of the page for the script so that when the script is on a lectern, you can glance at it without tucking into your chest as you read the lowest lines.
- Use only numerals regardless of the size of the number:
 1. Numerals are easier to read than numbers written as words, and they are also easier to find again if there's a question.
 2. Round off big numbers. They are easier to remember.
- Use of contractions is acceptable. You will sound less pretentious.

USE NOTES

Unless you've given particular briefing scores of times, you'll need notes to remind you of the key points. Hence, you should be aware of the proper techniques for using notes.

A scripted briefing alleviates memory lapses at the podium. Many times, though, you will not want to use a script. If that is the case, *don't memorize* the briefing. Memorizing is fine for lines in a play, but forgetting a word or two in a memorized briefing will cause you to stumble and become flustered. Use notes instead.

Notes ensure the accuracy of your presentation by having facts and figures at hand. They keep you on track, serving as an outline to follow. Also, notes let you adjust your briefing to your audience, if necessary, just before you speak. Furthermore, they jog your memory and help dispel your fear of forgetting.

Types of Notes

Notes are usually best when accuracy is a must. This is also true when you are not completely familiar with the subject matter being briefed. If you are well-versed in the subject, then you might prefer a *keyword outline*, which is planned idea by idea rather than word by word and contains keywords or phrases, such as a purpose statement or transitions, to trigger your memory.

Where to Write Notes

The medium you'll use for note keeping is a matter of personal preference: What are *you* most comfortable using? You might use notecards, either 3"×5" or 5"×8". The smaller ones are easier to palm if you're not using a lectern, but they're also easier to drop. An alternative is to use standard-sized paper, 8½"×11". Use only half to three-quarters of the page, and leave wide margins for notes or cues. Shuffling papers is the major downside to using standard pages, so determine if it's worth the trade-off.

Electronic media, such as PowerPoint or tablets, allow you to store your notes right there in your own copy of the graphics. Just make sure you don't crowd the notes, which will hinder your ability to keep your place.

Notes are reminders, not crutches, and should not be excessively detailed, which will require reading and frequent loss of eye contact with the audience. When referring to them, glance at the notes and quickly resume eye contact with the audience. Don't read from your notes, except for direct quotes. Place quotations in graphics of their own, and allow the audience time to read them.

Position your notes so that you don't have to bend your head to look at them. Place them on the lectern in advance; raise the lectern, if possible, to a comfortable viewing angle. Don't obscure your view of any part of the audience or the audience's view of you. If you hold the notes in your hands, then keep them at a comfortable reading level. Handle them with smooth motions. Be sure to practice this maneuver, especially if you wear glasses. Some briefers like to place their notes at different locations in the briefing room to enhance movement. Do not do this unless you're very, very comfortable with the room, the audience, and the subject matter. Mistakes are too easy to make—and are unforgettable.

Glance at your notes toward the end of a main point before transitioning to the next point, then look directly at the audience. Don't wait until you have finished one idea to look at notes. That can result in long pauses, loss of momentum, and stammering on the part of the briefer.

USE VISUAL AIDS

A briefing depends on two senses for its success: hearing and sight. Always keep in mind the visual aspects of the presentation. As you write about a person, place, or thing, decide whether you will use a graphic to illustrate that portion of your topic. Before you begin planning graphics, know your command or agency's policies in that regard: *Must* you have a picture on the screen at *all* times? How many slides per minute do you need? Is a blank or black screen acceptable at times?

Clearly, graphics alone won't rescue a foundering intelligence product. Visuals should be used to make any point more clearly or concisely than words alone could do it. Finally, graphics should suit the topic and message. Furthermore, you can always provide links in a secure online document so interested readers can find graphics or even additional information about your subject. Such innovations save space in an otherwise limited document and provide consumers with additional material.

Many maps, illustrations, photographs, and other graphic materials are readily available online. Check out the images section of your favorite search engine, and you'll find plenty of examples to spice up your work. Be certain that the downloaded version of an image is not degraded in quality, resulting in a grainy or otherwise unsatisfactory image. Also, keep in mind that copyright restrictions govern many materials.

Ubiquitous Technology: PowerPoint and Beyond

Increasingly, commands and agencies have available state-of-the-art electronic equipment to use for briefings. Projectors are being replaced by computers with highly sophisticated programs for creating and projecting PowerPoint graphics and using fade-ins, fade-outs, lap dissolves, and other techniques. No matter what, you must be familiar with whatever equipment is available to support your briefing. Using it might require additional training because of its complexity. If you have a chance to work with the newest technology, then take advantage of the opportunity and innovate. Just as computer-generated images astound us on the movie screen, such images can often add significant impact to a presentation.

Unfortunately, the intelligence community, the military, academia, and many other institutions are often dependent on these technologies, especially PowerPoint. In many cases, PowerPoint is a crutch for those who are afraid of public speaking and prefer to read off slides. In other instances, commanders and decision makers demand PowerPoint because it limits detail, allowing the consumer to see only the big picture.

Never assume your audience is too unsophisticated to understand your subject without dumbing down the briefing with endless slides. It's your job to make the presentation both comprehensible and useful. That doesn't mean jamming every detail imaginable onto a slide for fear your boss might notice a missing bit of information. Whether it's PowerPoint or some other medium, it's your responsibility to communicate with concision, precision, and accuracy.

Other Visual Aids

Use a map whenever you talk about a geographic location, and indicate that location on the map at the outset. It need not be a wall-mounted map; usually, a simple projected one will suffice and will be easier to see.

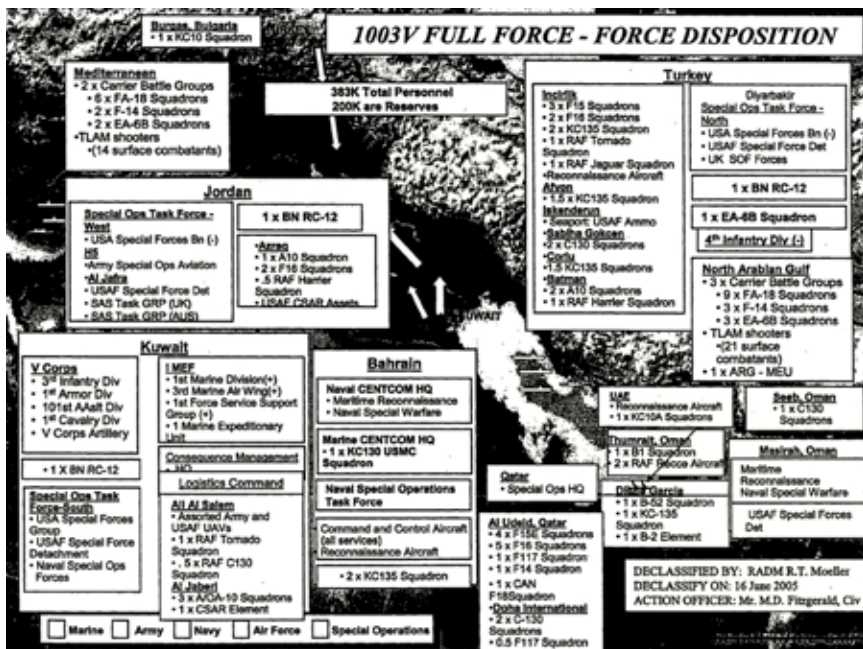


Fig. 9.4. The National Security Archives has posted the PowerPoint slides used in 2002 briefings for President Bush, NSC, former Defense Secretary Donald Rumsfeld, and others, for the run-up to the war. National Security Archive Electronic Briefing Book No. 214. See the PP slides here: <https://nsarchive2.gwu.edu/NSAEBB/NSAEBB214/Tab%20K%20-%20page%201.pdf>. These materials are reproduced from www.nsarchive.org with the permission of the National Security Archive.

Overhead transparencies—also known as vugraphs or VGTs—are still available in some organizations. They are relatively easy to prepare and project larger images than most other media. Overheads are particularly suited to slides with words on them (billboard-type slides). They are not always suitable when you want intimate detail (such as imagery or a terrain map), as they tend to be less crisp in detail.

Other briefing media (for example, butcher-paper charts on easels or standard-sized photographs) are more suited to smaller audiences or to particular briefing situations. A whiteboard might suffice for a fairly large classroom but is not always satisfactory for a briefing. Writing on one takes time. Writing out the material in advance is an alternative, but that might also distract your audience as they stare at the board instead of you. A whiteboard might be necessary, however, if you are explaining detailed mathematical equations or other work that would not lend itself to a medium you could prepare in advance.

The choice of your presentation medium is not always yours to make. It is often dictated by what is *available* at the site of the briefing. Know well ahead of time, if possible, exactly where you will be briefing and what types of media are available. Whatever the form of visual aid, it needs to make sense. “When we understand that slide, we’ll have won the war,” US commander in Afghanistan General McChrystal once said while taking a briefing.² Believe us: You don’t want to be the person who created that presentation.

Remember: The visual dimension is half of a briefing. Good visual aids promote understanding of key ideas, increase audience retention, and help focus the listeners’ concentration on the subject. Visual aids also save time and words, clarify the briefing’s organization, and emphasize transitions.

Put Words and Pictures Together

After you have written the words and chosen the graphics you’ll need, the remainder of your preparation is a matter of following through and ensuring that others stay on track. Check your goals list, and be sure you’re adhering to your schedule. If it appears that you are late with any of your projected goals, then you might need to make adjustments.

Notify everyone outside your immediate sphere of influence of any slip-page in dates or times. If you are running late, let them know. Either tell them that you’re running late with everything, or deliver a portion of the graphics so that they can start working. They will probably prefer to get a part of the job early and begin work. Having the entire package dumped on them with a tight deadline might make it impossible to finish without considerable overtime.

If time and circumstances permit, have your draft script approved by as many of your superiors as possible. Email or deliver a copy of the script and electronic or paper copies of the proposed graphics, and ask them to get back to you by a firm date with the time and date for your rehearsal. *Keep a copy for yourself!* While the package is being reviewed, you can do some preliminary rehearsal. Don't change too much at this point; if your briefing comes back approved as is, then you'll have to get any changes approved, too.

Next, get the approved script ready to go, and get the graphics to the appropriate people, unless you are doing them yourself. Remember to use a large font (fourteen points or larger), type in uppercase, format with wide margins, and use only one-half to three-quarters of the page. If you have others prepare the graphics for you, then sit down with them to be sure that they understand exactly what you want. You might think that you've done a great job building a visual, but if your graphics specialists suggest something that will make a vast improvement, listen to them. That's why they are specialists.

Again, keep a copy of everything so that you can be rehearsing during the final preparation stages. Give realistic due dates to administrative support staff, but allow enough lead time for proofreading and double-checking.

Points to Remember

- Use visuals of subjects (people, places, things) under discussion fix the information in the minds of your listeners.
- Select and control visuals so that they do not dominate your presentation.
- Use graphics and charts for your primary points of emphasis.
- Position your equipment so that the visuals are accessible by everyone in attendance.
- When you finish using a graphic, either cover the lens or use a blank (possibly colored) slide to avoid the irritation of white glare.
- Never get between your audience and the visual.
- Never read visuals to your audience. It is insulting.
- Groom your visuals in every detail, from spelling to grammar to parallel construction.
- Practice using your visual equipment.

Don't use graphics *solely* for the purpose of having something on the screen. It's just as distracting to your audience to have a meaningless visual aid in front of them as it is to have nothing. Good visual aids should *be helpful* by performing one or more of these functions:

- *To map* your listeners' journey through your presentation
- *To remind* them of the points covered
- *To indicate* what is ahead
- *To illustrate* something that might otherwise be difficult to grasp
- *To reinforce* what you're saying by bringing to bear the eyes as well as the ears of your audience
- *To dramatize* what you're trying to say by making a clear, concise visual statement

One source of ideas for visual aids might be news broadcasts. Watch a broadcast, and focus on how graphics support a news story. Many news items are fully intelligible with the sound muted, a real compliment to the graphic artist's work. By following the same general principles, you, too, can have graphics that speak for themselves. All visual aids have both advantages and disadvantages. Be familiar with the ones available to your organization, and use them to support your briefing.

FINAL THOUGHTS

You can't write a briefing script in isolation from the supporting visual aids. The two must be produced simultaneously. The script must flow from point to point in an orderly, logical manner. The graphics must be designed to complement and supplement every aspect of the script. A briefing is designed for both the eyes and the ears, so you must keep in mind the senses of sight and hearing while writing the script and designing the graphics. Once these steps have been taken and you and your superiors are satisfied with the final product, you're ready to go to the lectern.

EXERCISES IN ORGANIZING AND WRITING THE BRIEFING

Group Exercise

Revisit the sample introductions and conclusions in chapter 3. In small groups in your classroom or at your place of work, rework those sections into briefings. Take turns reading those samples aloud to other members of the group. Stand up. Have someone keep time, and try to adhere to one minute for each sample. Work on making eye contact with the group as you read. Make constructive criticisms to each group member as he or she makes the presentation. Be sure that everyone gets a chance to do it.

Individual Exercise

Write your own briefing introduction and conclusion, one minute for each. It can be a briefing that you are already working on or a brand new one. Try not to use one that you have given many times; you will gain more from a new experience. After writing the introduction and conclusion, stand up and read it. Time it, and try to adhere to the one-minute guideline for each. After you have honed it to a solid fifty- to sixty-second piece, read it again, and again, and again. Rehearsal is crucial for polishing any presentation.

NOTES

1. Javed Ali, "Election Security Briefing Changes Send Wrong Signal," *Hill*, September 9, 2022, accessed January 14, 2022, <https://thehill.com/opinion/national-security/514427-election-security-briefing-changes-send-wrong-signal>.
2. Simon Rogers, "The McChrystal Afghanistan PowerPoint Slide: Can You Do Any Better?" *Guardian*, April 29, 2010, accessed March 6, 2022, <https://www.theguardian.com/news/datablog/2010/apr/29/mcchrystal-afghanistan-powerpoint-slide>.

Briefing the Customer

BOTTOM LINE UP FRONT

The words and graphics are only half the formula for a good intelligence briefing. The other crucial element of that equation is the *briefer*. Recipients' overall appraisal of a briefing will be shaped by a combination of what they have heard and seen, plus the way it was presented. The ABCs of a good briefer are appearance, bearing, and cognizance.

Key Points

- First impressions count, so be sure you present a sharp *appearance* to your audience.
- Keep your poise and *bearing* throughout the briefing. A briefer's voice also helps to determine how the material is received.
- Be fully aware—*cognizant*—of your briefing subject and the environment in which you will brief.

APPEARANCE: MAKE FIRST IMPRESSIONS COUNT

Many briefings will begin with the briefer already in place behind a lectern and the intended recipient escorted into the room. Others might require the briefer to move to the platform as one of a number of presenters. Regardless, the first impression the audience receives of the briefer will often set the stage for the presentation to follow.



Fig. 10.1. President Barack Obama studies a document held by Director of National Intelligence James Clapper during the Presidential Daily Briefing in the Oval Office, February 3, 2011. Official White House Photo by Pete Souza.

If there is any hint of disarray or untidiness in personal appearance or clothing, if there seems to be an air of disorganization, or if there is any aspect of confusion in the environment, the audience will immediately become skeptical. Their attitude will change from “I’m here to learn something” to “*Show me that you can tell me something I don’t already know.*”

It takes only a few minutes to ensure that your audience will at least give you the benefit of doubt when you first take the lectern. On the day of the briefing, be sure to wear a clean, well-pressed, fresh uniform or, if you are a civilian, neat and conservative clothing. Greet your audience with a pleasant smile. It might not always be appropriate to offer a verbal greeting, but at least acknowledge their presence with a cheerful gesture like a smile. Use your best judgment here. If you are the bearer of bad news, then a smile would be inappropriate. A nod might serve as acknowledgment as you begin the presentation.

Bearing: Keep a Stiff Upper Torso

Among the synonyms for the word *bearing* are *carriage*, *manner*, *demeanor*, *air*, *presence*, and *poise*. All those words relate specifically to the way you conduct yourself during a briefing. Novice briefers probably have more

problems with their bearing than with any other aspect of a briefing. Even old-timers who have briefed for years occasionally feel the twinge of nervousness that can detract from their bearing. That's normal.

It's easy to spill out a few platitudes about how not to be nervous, but the only way you will ever learn poise and bearing is through the experience of briefings. There are, however, a few hints that will help you avoid some of the most common pitfalls briefers fall into.

What, Me Worry?

In the twenty-first century, we rarely encounter life-and-death situations in our daily lives. But our bodies still react as though we need that additional adrenaline shot when we face stressful situations. Public speaking is just such a situation. Most people fear public speaking, so be aware in advance that you will encounter many, if not all, of the symptoms produced by extra adrenaline: perspiring, trembling hands, sweaty palms, and elevated blood pressure. Sometimes the mere *awareness* that these things are normal can be helpful in overcoming their manifestations.

Probably the single biggest detractor from a briefer's poise is unnecessary movement behind the lectern. Shuffling the feet, fidgeting with the hands, and shifting the weight from foot to foot in a rocking motion are common distractions. It's difficult for an audience to pay attention to a briefer whose rocking motion back and forth gives the impression of being at sea.

There are a number of techniques to deal with these problems. First, if you're a caffeine addict, avoid drinking your usual dose of coffee, tea, energy drink, or cola for four to six hours prior to the briefing. When you're briefing, additional stimulants are unhelpful. Try abstinence or decaf on the day of the briefing. Before the briefing begins, take one or two long, slow, deep breaths. Breathe in and out slowly, and feel the relaxation as the fresh air goes to work. That added adrenaline has actually given your lungs an ability to draw a deeper breath.

Start with a Good Posture

Plant your feet firmly on the floor, and resolve to stay put unless, of course, your briefing is more informal and you can move about. Let your knees bend just a little to allow the blood to circulate and to prevent the knees from locking (and knocking). If you feel that you need more blood circulation, try gently wiggling your toes. That small motion will stimulate the circulation in your feet and will be imperceptible to your audience.

Don't get a death grip on the lectern. If you clutch the sides, your white knuckles will be obvious to the audience, and when you release your grip, your hands will tremble violently. (Try it sometime if you don't believe it.)

If your hands are always behind your back or your arms are folded across your chest, it will tend to restrict your breathing. That posture might even show hostility, arrogance, or smugness in your body language. Instead, let your hands rest gently atop the platform of the lectern, where you have placed your script. That way, you can follow along in the script with your fingers as you proceed through the briefing.

Avoid Distracting Gestures

It's monotonous to watch a briefer who remains absolutely motionless the entire time. Some animation is important. But when you use gestures, be sure they emphasize what you are saying. Some gestures are both meaningless and distracting, while others give away your nervousness.

Some uses or misuses of the hands call attention to your discomfort. When your hands are always in your pockets, you are displaying a casual demeanor that will not suit the briefing situation. Even worse, if you have keys or loose change in your pocket, you will no doubt find yourself playing with these items. Even though your "unseen" gesture might remain noiseless, it is remarkably distracting to the audience.

Virtually anything within a briefer's reach becomes fodder for distracting gestures, including useful objects like notes or pointers. Be aware of your own tendencies in that regard. When in doubt, ask a colleague to watch you give a short presentation and critique your bearing. If you believe certain distracting gestures are a part of your repertoire, ask your colleague to watch for those. Be aware, though, of the Hawthorne effect: People being studied often modify their behavior simply because they are being studied, so you might be less inclined to have those problems because you are either consciously or subconsciously attuned to them.

Use Pointing and Purposeful Gestures

The preceding section deals with avoiding gestures that almost certainly would distract your audience. By the same token, though, it's important to *use* some gestures to emphasize important points in your presentation, to add another dimension—body language—to the briefing, or simply to help you retain the attention of your audience.

The simple act of pointing, for example, calls attention to something. If you have a chart or graphic on the screen and want to emphasize any portion



Fig. 10.2. Photograph of President Reagan in a briefing with National Security Council Staff on the Libya Bombing. Collection RR-WHPO. White House Photographic Collection, 01/20/1981–01/20/1989, the US National Archives, National Archives Building, Washington, DC.

of it, point to it. Use the hand that's closest to the graphic and use a pointer. Don't lean toward the screen when you point. Glance, point, and then turn your attention back to your audience. After you've pointed, bring the pointer back toward the outside of your leg or, if you won't need it for a while, lay it down on a table or the lectern, especially if you tend to fiddle with it. Practice this maneuver ahead of time so that you can do it smoothly, without leaning or disrupting the cadence of your presentation.

Many other emphatic gestures can help you punctuate your briefing and add interest. The most common include a clenched fist to show strong feeling, a wagging index finger or an open hand slicing the air to denote caution or emphasis, and facial expressions that reflect the content of the briefing. Don't overdo it, though, especially with senior officials who might not appreciate being cautioned by a briefer.

The body language you see and use every day can serve you in a briefing, as well. You might shrug your shoulders or shake your head to show uncertainty; a facial expression could convey an impression; or you might describe something geometric—a square or a circle, for example—by sketching it in the air.

Look Them in the Eye

Another extremely important aspect of bearing is establishing and maintaining eye contact. It commands attention, shows you are interested in your audience, piques their interest, and establishes rapport. Communication must be two-way. Eye contact increases nonverbal feedback, and you can adjust accordingly. It also helps reduce nervousness when you speak directly to someone.

Establish eye contact before you speak. Talk directly with your audience one at a time, pausing briefly for direct eye contact. Avoid sweeping the room because you might avoid eye contact altogether or look at some more than others. That's particularly true if one or more members of your audience nod in agreement or otherwise give rapt attention to what you're saying; you *will* spend more time looking at them.

Deliver one complete phrase to an area before moving on to another area. Look directly into their eyes. It builds rapport. When you converse casually with friends or colleagues, note how eye contact works to promote harmony within the group. The same principle applies to briefings. Avoid gazing overhead, at the wall, out the window, or down at the floor. *See* when you look. Become personally involved.

Look at your audience more than you look at your notes and visual aids. Have and reflect an earnest desire to communicate. Concentrate on the message and on your listeners' reactions.

Distractions occur during a briefing: A latecomer arrives, a door slams, someone dozes off and falls out of his chair, or a helicopter flies overhead. (*All* those things and many more have happened to us.) As tempting as it is to focus attention on the distraction, avoid that temptation. Doing so directs the audience's attention toward the distraction and away from your briefing. Continue to look them in the eye.

Voice

A briefer's voice also helps to determine how the material is presented and received. While you can't change your voice per se, you can train yourself to use it effectively. It takes some practice, and you have to be willing to *speak out*. No audience can comprehend what it cannot hear clearly.

Be Intelligible

An effectively articulated presentation increases the receptiveness and understanding of the audience. *Articulation* involves not only crisp enunciation but also the sensible fusing of brisk vocabulary and crisp sentences to express

your main points. Work to ensure that your audience understands what you are saying the first time you say it. Generally, it is better to overarticulate than underarticulate. *Avoid drama.* Recording your voice as you practice the briefing will help you understand your articulation.

Mispronunciations during a briefing should be avoided at all costs. Making such errors conveys a lack of preparation. If you need to know the correct pronunciation of a foreign place name or a person's name, ask someone who knows the area in question or someone in the person's office. If that fails, then consult the Internet. It's out there. For the people you are briefing, you also need to know how to pronounce their names. This isn't optional. You do *not* want to address a senior official and find that you have mispronounced his or her surname. Of course, you can always simply say, "Good morning, sir," or, "Good afternoon, ma'am." But using the person's name is preferable.

Many websites provide pronunciations of difficult words or names. Use them. Far better to be safe than sorry. Exercise judgment in such matters. If using correct pronunciations of foreign language words might seem pretentious to your audience, then use standard English pronunciation.

Use Variety

Vary the rate, force, and pitch of your voice. We do this naturally in everyday conversation. Doing so in a briefing lends ease to your delivery. Vary the *rate* of your speech for emphasis. For example, lay out facts or stories at a lively pace; then present main ideas, more difficult points, and transitions slowly and emphatically. Combined with appropriate gestures, such variations add a powerful dimension to your presentation.

Pause between thought units, not in the middle of a unit, and pause for emphasis, as well. Use markers or highlighters to annotate the text for pauses, or simply write the word *pause* at an appropriate juncture in the script. Don't fill empty spaces with vocalized pauses (uh, um, er, ah, OK); they are distracting and convey that you are unprepared. I invited a high-ranking guest speaker to one of my classes because we used one of his books as a text. At the end of almost every sentence was the word *OK*. The students' critiques of the presentation were unanimous: "Loved the book, hated the briefing." Practicing will help you avoid similar errors.

A *forceful* speaker tends to be both dynamic and remembered. Consider speakers whose voices you remember: John F. Kennedy? The Reverend Martin Luther King Jr.? Ronald Reagan? Barack Obama? All demonstrated elements of *force* in their speeches: volume, variation, length, manner, and stress. Their most memorable speeches are online. Use that resource to study the elements that constitute an effective speech.

Speeches are not necessarily good models for briefings because many are too dramatic for intelligence briefings. Use them as examples of how and when to apply force and emphasis in your briefing, *but avoid drama*. Strike a happy medium between emphasis and decorum when you brief.

Speak loudly enough to be heard easily by using volume appropriate for the room size. If possible, practice ahead of time in the room where the briefing will be held. Acoustics vary depending on whether the room is empty or full. If you are in a large room and are not using a microphone, ask the people in the back whether they can hear you. If you don't, then chances are that someone will chime out, "Can't hear you!" That's both embarrassing and disruptive.

Varying the force in your voice adds emphasis. While a lack of force will bore an audience with its monotony, a continuous force will wear them out with its intensity. Vary the amount of force from a whisper to a louder voice, but don't shout. Move naturally down as well as up. *Don't trail off at the ends of sentences*. Often the most important information is in one of two places: at the front or at the end. Don't abuse either.

Consider in advance where to apply force. Let your voice peak gradually so as not to startle your audience. Decide which syllables and words to stress. Use your voice to underline or italicize individual words. President John F. Kennedy applied that technique in his inaugural address: "Ask not what your country can do for you; ask what you can do for your country."

The pitch of your voice is the property of its sound, especially the higher or lower tones. Vary your pitch within your normal range (high to low), but work mostly in the lower half to convey assurance, poise, and strength. Avoid singsong patterns. Don't end every sentence with an upward inflection. Again, don't drop the ends of sentences.

Use Emphasis

Emphasis is a combination of all forms of vocal variety. The more drastic the change, the more emphasis. Avoid continuous emphasis because then nothing will stand out. Pick out the most important ideas to emphasize. Highlight them in your script, and provide the proper vocal tone for emphasis. Remember this absurdity: Don't put your em-PHAH-sis on the wrong syl-LAH-ble.

Keep an Easy-to-Follow Pace

You need to work your way through a briefing at a pace the audience can easily follow. Nervous speakers often blaze through their presentations because of an unconscious (or maybe conscious) desire to finish the briefing. When

it's really rushed, the briefer has the rapid-fire cadence of an auctioneer. Instead, you need to take a more relaxed pace, moving from slide to slide in a deliberate manner. Practice beforehand will make this much easier. Knowing the material will also help enormously. While you're in the presentation, make sure to look for cues from your audience. If you see blank stares or confused looks, then slow your pace and ask your audience if anybody needs clarification.

Do not read off your slides. Instead, let the slides serve as visual aids for your audience. You should be sufficiently prepared to do it cold without the crutch of reading off your slides.

COGNIZANCE: KNOWLEDGE REALLY *IS* POWER

Two aspects of cognizance come into play in a briefing: your subject area knowledge and your environmental awareness. You must be cognizant in both areas, or the briefing will suffer, and you will lose credibility in the eyes of the audience.

Subject Area Knowledge: I Know More than They Know!

Knowing the subject is rarely a problem because it's extraordinary for someone to give a briefing on a subject about which he or she has no knowledge. It does happen but usually only with professional briefers, such as those who present the daily intelligence briefing to the chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff. Those briefers cannot possibly be expected to have substantive knowledge in all the areas they brief daily.

For that reason, they have analytical backup—area experts who are available to answer questions on the spot or are on call to respond to a query after the briefing. When you brief a subject, be certain that you are up to date on the latest information about that subject, including any current message traffic, Internet chatter, newspaper articles, or television news updates about the topic.

Environmental Awareness: Where Am I?

Knowing the territory is usually easy to anticipate and plan for. It involves finding out where the briefing is going to be given and paying a visit to that location. If it's to be in a conference room where you brief regularly, then no problem. But if it will be at another site with which you are unfamiliar, then pay a visit if possible. If the site is remote—another city or overseas, for

example—talk to someone about the facilities, and get a mental image of what you’re up against. Ask the right questions, some of which are suggested here.

One of the most important parts of your briefing will be your visual aids. What will be accessible to you at the site? Check out all available visual aids—PowerPoint, tablet, overhead projector, whiteboards, maps, an easel with butcher paper, or whatever you might require. Find out where to get help if you run into a technical problem. At military facilities, you will not be able to use a thumb drive (thanks, Wikileaks). You’ll need to find another means to access your material, usually your email.

Turn the projector on and off to be sure that you know where the buttons are; they’re not all in the same place, so take nothing for granted. If you use slides, then see whether the room has a front or rear projection or both. Rear projection requires that you use either an assistant or a remote switch to change your slides, and some slides must be arranged differently in the tray. If you’re transferring your visuals from a tablet to a projected screen, then you’ll be looking at the same thing on both media. Nevertheless, glance at the screen to be sure.

Find out where the light switches are in the room and how to dim or kill the lights next to the screen. Do you need a pointer? If so, there should be one readily available at the front of the room. Is the lectern satisfactory? Does it adjust up and down for different speakers?

How are the acoustics in the room? Test them if possible to determine whether you will require a microphone. If so, be sure one is available and turned on when briefing time arrives. A lectern-mounted microphone will restrict your movement. You might prefer the lavalier (lapel-mounted) microphone. If one is not available, then you might want to bring your own, but the necessary sound system must be in place for its use.

These are all items you need to know in advance because some of today’s modern conference room equipment can overwhelm the novice with its complexity. Accomplished briefers even carry their entire presentation with them on a tablet, then plug in to project the visuals on-site. In fact, many senior people who have been briefing for years get flustered when they encounter all the equipment in conference rooms today. Awareness of the briefing environment adds professionalism to a briefing. It contributes to timing, boosts the briefer’s self-confidence and poise, and adds an atmosphere of calm to the conference room.

Cognizance of the subject area and the briefing environment is a key factor in a successful briefing. It’s also a factor over which the briefer usually exercises a considerable degree of control, assuming that there is sufficient forewarning of the time, place, and subject of the briefing. It takes a keen eye, an ability to ask the right questions, and a sincere desire to succeed. That’s all.

FINAL THOUGHTS

You learned in this chapter that a briefing must be accurate, brief, and concise. You've also seen that some of the basics of being a briefer are also as simple as ABC: As a briefer, you need to think about personal *appearance*, *bearing*, and *cognizance* of both the subject and the briefing environment.

Prebriefing Preparation

Subject/Time

- Clearly define your subject; be sure it is specifically what was requested.
- Pinpoint the exact time allotted for the briefing; if open, then recommend the time you need.
- Confirm the date, time, and place for the briefing.
- Analyze your audience; use biographies and any other information at your disposal.

Outline

- Outline your presentation, using three major headings: introduction, body, and conclusion.
- Extract key points from the body, and include them in your introduction as summary points; also review those points in the conclusion.
- Tentatively allot time to each segment: 10 percent for introduction, 10 percent for the conclusion, and the remainder for body.

Draft

- Know how long it takes you to read one page of double-spaced, typewritten script, and plan accordingly.
- Using your outline, prepare the sections in the draft.
- Plan your visual aids simultaneously with script development (see "Visual Aids" later in this box).
- Do research and analysis, using all available sources, to ensure accuracy.

- Conclude with a statement, such as “Sir, that concludes our unclassified presentation on the situation in the Middle East. Do you have any (further) questions?”

Revise

- Have your draft script approved by the supervisor(s) if possible.
- Read the words aloud to check for word traps, tongue twisters, assonance, or harsh-sounding words.
- Prepare script or notecards for your use while presenting.

Visual Aids

- Know in advance what presentation media will be available to you: PowerPoint, electronic tablet, overhead transparency, 35 mm projector, whiteboard, butcher paper, and anything else.
- Use visual aids to clarify, illustrate, reinforce, or dramatize the words you’ll be saying.
- Proofread visual aids in their projected form.

Facility

- Check out the briefing site in advance, especially if it is unfamiliar to you.
- Know the location and operation of all visual aids, light switches, and temperature controls.
- Determine the availability of a lectern, pointer, and sufficient chairs for the anticipated audience.
- Try to conduct at least one rehearsal of your briefing at the site where it will be given.
- Know where to get help if Murphy’s Law is in force (and it will be!) on the day you brief.

Briefing Day

- Read the morning newspaper, check current news online, listen to a headline newscast, and read anything in the morning message traffic or email relevant to your briefing topic.
- Review these checklists.

- Check your appearance in a mirror immediately before the briefing.
- Be friendly to your audience.

Briefing

- Gain your audience's attention early, and try to maintain it.
- As the briefing begins, establish eye contact with your audience. Maintain it throughout.
- Stand firmly and confidently behind the lectern, or confine your movements to a minimum.
- Proceed logically, in a well-organized manner, through the body of your briefing.
- Give accurate, full exposition to all your ideas.
- Don't ad-lib unless you have timely information that must be mentioned; use separate notes for that information, or have a backup analyst explain it in more detail.
- Ask your backup analyst or someone else in the room to make notes of any questions asked or comments made.
- Use notes or script, but don't read extensively with your head down.

Questions, Answers, and Discussions

- When your listener asks a question, be sure of your answer before you respond definitively.
- Use backup analyst(s) for subject areas that are not your specialty.
- If the answer is unknown, then don't use a trite phrase like, "I don't know, ma'am, but I'll find out." Give your questioner a reasonable expectation of an answer by saying something like this: "Ma'am, we don't have that information at hand, but we'll find it immediately after this briefing, and we'll respond to your secretary later today [or tomorrow morning]."
- If something in your briefing precipitates a discussion among the senior members of your audience, then pause and wait for them to signal you that they are ready to proceed.

Postbriefing

- Always follow up promptly on questions you've promised to answer. Provide an information copy of the response to your supervisor.

- Store your briefing script and visual aids in a readily accessible place. You may need them again soon, especially if the briefing was well received.
- Write a memorandum for record (only for yourself, so it can be handwritten) on the briefing circumstances: date, time, location, principal recipient(s), how received, key questions asked, and responses given.

EXERCISES IN TYPES AND PRINCIPLES OF BRIEFINGS

Group Exercise

This exercise can be accomplished by students and professionals alike, as discussed here. There is no single answer to any exercise. The form found in appendix C can be used to evaluate a briefing:

Professionals: In groups of three to five people, take turns discussing with your peers the types of briefings given by your organization. If you personally deliver briefings, then share your experiences with the others. Focus on the requirements laid down by your superiors, and discuss any variations permitted or forbidden.

Students: In peer groups assigned by your instructor, discuss any briefings you might have given in other classes or elsewhere outside the classroom. Focus on the requirements laid down for those briefings. If you have never given a presentation, then look again at the types of briefings discussed in this chapter and describe how you might conduct one or more of those briefings based on your course of study.

Individual Exercise

Review again the types of briefings discussed in this chapter. Take notes about the types you have personally encountered, whether they are lectures you have attended or presentations you have seen or given yourself. For example, many professors use visiting lecturers who discuss something related to the subject you are studying. What did you like about their presentations? What did you dislike?

EXERCISES IN GOOD INTELLIGENCE BRIEFINGS AND BRIEFERS

Group Exercises

These exercises are best accomplished when larger groups are subdivided into smaller groups. If, for example, your class or your group has twenty members, divide it into four groups of five or five groups of four. Depending on time allocated for the exercise, allot equal time for each group member to talk. *Adhere to the schedule.* Allow a few minutes at the end of the group activity for each group to share some of their most significant observations with the entire group.

Exercise 1

You've reviewed the tenets of accuracy, brevity, and concision as they apply to an intelligence briefing. Chances are that members of your group have given briefings or, at a minimum, have attended presentations. Taking turns in your group, discuss instances where you have seen one or more of these principles violated. Or maybe one briefing stands out in your mind as a *good* example of those principles. Take notes, and be prepared to share your group's observations with the other groups.

Exercise 2

Again, relying on experiences of the members of each group, share events you might have witnessed where a briefer's appearance, bearing, or cognizance have had an impact—positive or negative—on a presentation. For example, have you ever seen briefers trembling so violently that they could not control their hands? Have you witnessed a briefer pass out? Lose his or her place in the briefing? Have no idea of how to control the lighting or electronic media in the room? Have any of these things (or worse) ever happened to *you*? Share your experiences with the group, and try to suggest fixes for each problem area. Chances are that one or more members of the group have witnessed (or been involved in) one or more of these occurrences. Use them as a learning tool.

Individual Exercise

Read all directions before proceeding with the exercise.

Go online and search for a well-known speech from history. Thousands are available to choose from. Print out the entire speech if it is two to four double-spaced pages long; if it is longer, then select a few pages from the

speech. Print in a font size that is easy to read at arm's length (fourteen or sixteen point, for example). Print double-spaced, and convert the text to all caps for ease of reading. If you don't find anything suitable or if your time is limited, then use this excerpt from General Douglas MacArthur's famous "duty, honor, country" speech, given upon his receipt of the Sylvanus Thayer Award at West Point.

Seated at your desk or in a comfortable chair, read your selected speech *aloud* two or three times, noting where you would place emphasis and where you would pause. Make notes in the text to help you. Note especially portions of the speech that give you problems: difficult words or phrases, long sentences that require you to take a breath, any other problem. (Hint: An audio version of the speech is accessible online so that you can actually hear General MacArthur deliver his speech.)

Next, find a mirror in your home or office. Ideally, it should be a full-length mirror. Stand in front of the mirror, and using as much eye contact as possible and your most effective briefing voice, read the text. Do this at least three times. The more you practice, the better you will do.

This address by General of the Army Douglas MacArthur to the cadets of the US Military Academy on May 12, 1962, is a memorable tribute to the ideals that inspired that great American soldier. The following is an excerpt:

Duty, honor, country: those three hallowed words reverently dictate what you ought to be, what you can be, what you will be. They are your rallying point to build courage when courage seems to fail, to regain faith when there seems to be little cause for faith, to create hope when hope becomes forlorn.

The soldier, above all other men, is required to practice the greatest act of religious training—sacrifice. In battle and in the face of danger and death, he discloses those divine attributes which his maker gave when he created man in his own image. No physical courage and no greater strength can take the place of the divine help which alone can sustain him. However hard the incidents of war may be, the soldier who is called upon to offer and to give his life for his country is the noblest development of mankind.

Yours is the profession of arms, the will to win, the sure knowledge that in war there is no substitute for victory, that if you lose, the nation will be destroyed, that the very obsession of your public service must be duty, honor, country.

This does not mean that you are warmongers. On the contrary, the soldier above all other people prays for peace, for he must suffer and bear the deepest wounds and scars of war. But always in our ears ring the ominous words of Plato, that wisest of all philosophers: "Only the dead have seen the end of war."

The shadows are lengthening for me. The twilight is here. My days of old have vanished—tone and tint. They have gone glimmering through the dreams of things that were. Their memory is one of wondrous beauty, watered by tears

and coaxed and caressed by the smiles of yesterday. I listen vainly but with a thirsty ear for the witching melody of faint bugles blowing reveille, of far drums beating the long roll.

In my dreams I hear again the crash of guns, the rattle of musketry, the strange, mournful mutter of the battlefield. But in the evening of my memory, always I come back to West Point. Always there echoes and reechoes: duty, honor, country.

Today marks my final roll call with you. But I want you to know that when I cross the river, my last conscious thoughts will be of the corps, and the corps, and the corps.

I bid you farewell.

Part IV

CITATIONS AND CLASSIFIED MATERIALS

Citing Your Sources

A Must for Scholarship

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Much of this book is oriented toward professionals in the intelligence and national security communities. This chapter, however, is intended for students, especially those pursuing curricula in intelligence or national security studies. There are occasional references to a thesis for students whose graduate course of study culminates with the production of that product.

This material will also be useful for professionals pursuing part-time studies or writing articles for refereed journals. The forms and formats prescribed here follow a widely used reference guide and can serve you well in many venues besides academic work.

Many aspiring intelligence professionals express exasperation when confronted with the dizzying array of forms and formats used to document sources in academic work. “After all,” they think, “we’ve been writing intelligence reports for years and never worried about periods, commas, and hanging indentation.” That is true to some extent, but almost everything you’ve written followed a prescribed format, some more structured than others. Whether it’s a letter to friends or family (snail mail) or an electronic greeting (email), some format is required. Even a tweet limits you to 140 characters.

Footnotes, endnotes, and bibliographies not only show a professor the sources used in your research but also enable an interested reader to pursue the subject of your paper in future scholarly research. In this book, the term *notes* means either footnotes or endnotes. Your professors will specify whether they want footnotes or endnotes. If they do not, then *ask*.

Number footnotes consecutively throughout the paper or the thesis. If you prefer to number the notes by chapter (in a thesis), then use endnotes, and place them at the end of each chapter with the A-level heading “Notes for Chapter *x*,” the *x* being the chapter number. The format is identical for both footnotes and endnotes; only the placement differs. Begin endnotes for each chapter with number 1.

If you use endnotes for a paper or thesis and include them all at the end of the paper, then number them consecutively throughout and begin them on a separate page after the conclusion of your text. Use the centered, bolded heading “Notes” (not “Endnotes”) on the first page of the endnotes. Their placement makes it obvious that they are endnotes.

Many professors and supervisors prepare explicit guidelines for what they expect. Read those guidelines carefully before starting your work. If, however, you anticipate trying to publish your work, expect some reformatting to accommodate the citation style of your intended publisher.

Academic citation is among the most structured forms you will find, but a few hours spent studying this chapter—especially this first section—will greatly ease your transition into footnotes, endnotes, and bibliographies. Compare similar forms, and study how the placement of data is similar: author, title, publication data, and page numbers, for example. As you gather materials for a paper or a thesis, note the ones you are citing most regularly—probably books, Internet or Intelink sources, journals, magazines, newspapers, and certain types of US government publications. For those products, set up “template” files by constructing a correct sample citation for each type of product; then when you have another, simply call up a copy of the template for that form and type over the original data. In an academic year, that will save hours of searching for this book.

Footnote and bibliographic entries follow a prescribed format. In fact, all documentation follows some format. Ours is based on the widely used *Chicago Manual of Style*. At this writing, the seventeenth edition is available. Familiarize yourself with that basic format, and then consult this book when you encounter variations. No guide of this size can hope to cover all the variations you will come across. In many cases you will need to extrapolate formats; that is, find a similar entry and adapt its general guidelines. Adaptations require common sense. When in doubt, consult your professor. In addition, at many colleges and universities, a writing center is available to provide this type of help. If your institution has one, *use it!*

GENERAL FORMAT

Forms vary widely depending on the type of work being cited. Consult the appropriate entry (book, periodical, or US government publication, for example), and follow its format precisely. Note that commas separate major elements of the note form, whereas periods separate elements of the bibliography. In the bibliography, authors' names are reversed (for alphabetization) but not in the note. If more than one author is listed, then reverse only the first-listed author's name in the bibliography. Observe, too, that we italicize the names of such major works as books and periodical titles. All modern printers and word processors support italics; in older works, you might see underlining instead. Underlining and italics are synonymous.

Spacing and Fonts

Space only once after periods. Note forms and bibliographic forms are single-spaced within the entry and double-spaced between entries. Indent notes one tab (approximately one-half inch) on the first line; leave subsequent lines flush with the left margin. Bibliographic entries are left-justified on the first line; subsequent lines are hang-indented one tab (one-half inch).

Most word processors support hanging indentation. Instructions for that procedure vary widely depending on your word-processing software and its year. You can highlight (click-drag) the text to be hang-indented, right click, and click "Paragraph" on the pop-up menu. Then, under the heading "Special," select "Hanging." Considering the potential variations among word processors, perhaps the easiest thing to do is to search for "hanging indent." Do not use a hard return at the end of a line within a bibliographic entry. That will cause problems with the hanging indent. Allow the text to wrap automatically. Use the hard return only at the *end* of the bibliographic entry.

Your notes should use the same font style as the rest of your paper but in smaller point size. For example, if you use Times New Roman eleven-point (a widely used font), then set your notes in Times New Roman ten-point. The bibliography is set in the same size as the text. In the case of each note form, we include an example of a secondary (short) citation, representing the way the note would look later in the paper, after the first full citation.

Microsoft Word is a standard word processor in most organizations and institutions, including the US government. Word will automatically insert endnotes or footnotes into your text, but unless you change certain default values, you might have to reformat them. With your cursor placed where you want the footnote number to appear, click “References” on the menu bar at the top of the page. In the drop-down (cascading) menu, click “Insert Endnote,” or “Insert Footnote.” When you click either “Footnote” or “Endnote,” a pop-up box will give options for placement and numbering. If the default value is what you want, then click “Insert,” and Word will take you to the appropriate setup. It will also insert a superscripted note number in the text where you placed your cursor.

Microsoft Office 2021 (again, under the “References” tab). The default is typically *Chicago*, but a drop-down menu offers a variety of selections. Among the most popular other styles are the American Psychological Association (APA) and Modern Language Association (MLA). The choice of formats also extends to bibliographies, with a drop-down menu for those. The “Help” function offers further information. In all cases, know which style is required by your school or organization. If there is no set standard for notes and bibliographies, then we recommend the *Chicago Manual of Style*, probably the most accessible and widely used style for intelligence writing.

SAMPLE NOTE AND BIBLIOGRAPHICAL FORMS

Though the *Chicago Manual of Style* gives detailed examples of how to cite sources from books to interviews to social media posts, there’s simply no way for the editors to cover *everything*. There are simply too many sources. In the cases where you don’t have a specific example, provide as much information as possible for the reader so the provenance is clear and they can relocate the original source if needed. In these instances, it’s also important to remain consistent in how you cite a particular source.

Some archives prefer you use their version of a citation. That makes it easier for them to locate the source when someone reaches out for the original. In those cases, stick with the archive’s instructions. It makes life easier on everybody on the off chance a reader wants to find that primary source.

There are a few annotated examples of the note and bibliographic forms employed throughout this book. The first entry, “Note Form,” shows the way a footnote or endnote for that source would look. The manner of referring to that source again in the same paper is shown next, under “Subsequent Reference.” Finally, a sample bibliographic entry for that source is shown.

Abbreviations

Do not write *p.* or *pp.* before page numbers in citations because they are always the last element of a citation form. Use *and others* instead of *et al.*, and use a short citation instead of *ibid.* Modern usage is moving away from Latin abbreviations.

If you are not sure your reader will understand an abbreviation, spell it out the first time you use it. Common abbreviations, such as state names, DC (District of Columbia), and GPO (Government Printing Office), may be used without spelling them out first. Note: Our form calls for omitting periods in these abbreviations. Use *ed.* for *editor* or *edition*, *comp.* for *compiler*, and *trans.* for *translation* or *translator*. Plurals are *eds.*, *comps.* and *trans.* When no publication date is given for your source, use *n.d.* (no date) in the normal position of the date. When no publication data are provided, use *n.p.* (no publisher). You may also omit *Inc.*, *Ltd.*, or *Co.* from publishers’ names. See “Publishers” in this chapter.

Alphabetization

Many word-processing programs will alphabetize bibliographies automatically. You must still check these listings, though, because the programs often err. For example, they will alphabetize entries beginning with an article (*a*, *an*, or *the*) under that letter (*A* or *T*) rather than ignoring the article as most style guides—including this one—instruct you to do.

Numbers

Alphabetize numbers in the bibliography before the alphabetical listing. For example, if you used sources from the 1st Cavalry Division, 3d Marine Expeditionary Force, 7th Fleet, and 17th Air Force, those entries would be placed at the start of your bibliography, in the same ascending order as shown in this sentence. For purposes of sequencing, treat Roman numerals as Arabic numbers: V US Corps, for example, would be listed as 5th (V) US Corps.

Foreign Names

Many foreign names pose unique problems in alphabetizing. Asian names, for example, are not reversed in the bibliography. The classic Chinese strategist Sun Tzu would *not* be cited as “Tzu, Sun.” Rather than detail the rules for each of these name groups, consult the *Chicago Manual of Style* (seventeenth edition) or the ninth edition of Kate Turabian’s *Manual for Writers of Research Papers, Theses, and Dissertations*, available in libraries or online at <https://www.chicagomanualofstyle.org/home.html> and <http://jcs.edu.au/wp-content/uploads/2016/09/A-manual-for-writers-of-research-papers-theses-and-dissertations.pdf>.

Anonymous Authors or Unattributed Work

It is not unusual to find articles and editorials that do not identify the author, especially online or in US government products. In such cases, do not use the words *anonymous*, *author unknown*, or *unattributed*. Such works are alphabetized by the first word of the title, or if the first word is an article (*a*, *an*, or *the*), then alphabetical placement is determined by the first word following it. Note that this rule pertains to titles in English only. Foreign titles are alphabetized by the first word of the title, even if it is an article, preposition, or conjunction. An article entitled “The Washington Beltway Syndrome,” with no listed author, is alphabetized under *W*; however, the German magazine title *Der Spiegel* (translated as *The Mirror*), if it is the first element of your citation, is alphabetized under *D*. See “Foreign-Language Publications” in this chapter.

Basic Forms

Note Form

¹ Jan Goldman, *Words of Intelligence: An Intelligence Professional’s Lexicon for Domestic and Foreign Threats* (Lanham, MD: Scarecrow Press, 2011), 37.

The first line of the note is indented; the second line is flush with the left margin. The note number is superscript for footnotes. (If you use endnotes, the numbers will *not* be superscript.) The author’s name, listed first, is not reversed. The title of the book—a major work—is italicized.

Publication data (the place of publication, publisher, and copyright date) are in parentheses, followed by the page number where the information was found. Note that “p.” or “pp.” abbreviations are not used for page numbers. Commas separate main elements of the note.

Subsequent Reference

² Goldman, *Words of Intelligence*, 38.

For a subsequent reference to the same source, number the note sequentially. Use only the author's last name, a shortened title, and a page number, all separated by commas. If the work you are citing had no author listed, then use the title of the work or a short title. See also "Secondary (Short) Citations" in this chapter.

Bibliographic Form

Goldman, Jan. *Words of Intelligence: An Intelligence Professional's Lexicon for Domestic and Foreign Threats*. Lanham, MD: Scarecrow Press, 2011.

In the bibliography, the font size is the same as the text. The author's name is reversed to facilitate alphabetization, and major citation elements are separated by periods. Note: Publication data are not in parentheses for the bibliography, and page numbers are not cited for books. You are citing here the *entire work*. The entry is hang-indented—the second and subsequent lines are indented approximately one-half inch.

The remainder of this section applies to note and bibliography forms in general and is intended to answer some of the most frequently asked questions. The headings in this section ("Abbreviations," for example) are arranged alphabetically for ease of reference.

Capitalization and Punctuation in Titles

Often the titles of books, magazine articles, or newspaper articles will use nonstandard capitalization or will have no punctuation between the title and the subtitle. In those cases, standardize the capitalization and punctuation, following these examples:

Book title on cover: *INDONESIA a country study*

Standardized for note or bibliography: *Indonesia: A Country Study*

Newspaper article, headline followed by subhead: "Afghanistan dominates bar conversation Customers back Obama, GIs in war"

Standardized for note or bibliography: "Afghanistan Dominates Bar Conversation: Customers Back Obama, GIs in War"

Remember to avoid Latin abbreviations, such as *ibid.* and *op. cit.* Instead, in the note form, use the last name of the author or agency, followed by a shortened title, and then a page number. See also “Secondary (Short) Citations.” In some cases, especially for long or complex entries, abbreviate organizations or other elements of the note for a secondary citation. To be sure that your reader understands what you are doing, add the words “Cited hereafter as . . .” to the end of the first citation of the source, as in the following example:

¹ Office of the Intelligence Community Chief Information Officer (IC CIO), *Intelligence Community Information Technology Enterprise Strategy 2012–2017* (Washington, DC: Director of National Intelligence, n.d.), 5. Cited hereafter as IC CIO.

In this example, *n.d.* means *no date*. For simple citations that are not likely to cause confusion—authored books or articles, for example—you don’t need to use this tag.

Congressional Members

To cite a member of Congress as a source, include his or her party affiliation and home state, using standard abbreviations for both, as shown in the example. If your document does not show that information, then look it up in a reference book, such as *United States Government Organization Manual*, *Official Congressional Directory*, or a current annual publication like *The World Almanac*. For example, Senator (Sen.) Mark R. Warner is a Democrat (D) from Virginia (VA).

Use the letter *D* for Democrats, *R* for Republicans, and *I* for independents, along with the standard two-letter postal state abbreviations, which can be found online at the US Postal Service website (<https://www.usps.com>) or in chapter 9 of the *GPO Style Manual* (<https://www.govinfo.gov/collec tion/gpo-style-manual?path=/GPO/U.S.%20Government%20Publishing%20Office%20Style%20Manual>).

Note Form

¹ Thomas C. Fletcher, *Report of the Special Commission Appointed to Investigate the Affairs of the Red Cloud Indian Agency, July, 1875: Together with the Testimony and Accompanying Documents* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1875), 25.

Bibliographic Form

Fletcher, Thomas C. *Report of the Special Commission Appointed to Investigate the Affairs of the Red Cloud Indian Agency, July, 1875: Together with the Testimony and Accompanying Documents*. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1875.

If it's an online version, use this format:

Note Form

¹ US Congress, Permanent Select Committee on Intelligence, *Cyber Intelligence Sharing and Protection Act*, H.R.112-445, 112th Cong., 2d sess., <https://www.govinfo.gov/content/pkg/CHRG-111hhrg50208/html/CHRG-111hhrg50208.htm>.

Bibliographic Form

US Congress. House. Permanent Select Committee on Intelligence. *Cyber Intelligence Sharing and Protection Act*. H.R.112-445, 112th Cong., 2d sess. <https://www.govinfo.gov/content/pkg/CHRG-111hhrg50208/html/CHRG-111hhrg50208.htm>.

Dates of Publication

The date to be used in citing a source is usually the copyright date. It is found either on the cover, on the title page, on the back of the title page, or a combination of those three places. Look for the date following the copyright symbol: © 2014. If more than one copyright date is listed, use the most recent. Ignore printing dates—use the *copyright* date. Dates of periodicals are usually on the cover or first page. If the date is shown, for example, as 21 March 2014, then standardize it for your citation as March 21, 2014. Always spell out the month in both note and bibliographic forms.

Some products—especially electronic sources and unpublished works—have no discernible publication date. In that case, use *n.d.* (no date) in the normal position of the date. Because it follows a comma, both letters are lowercase.

Explanatory Notes

You might want to include information that you feel your reader should know but that does not seem to fit or seem important enough to be in the text of your

work. A good way to handle this is to write an *explanatory note*, also called a *substantive* or *content note*. Also, use explanatory notes to define terms or to provide additional commentary that does not fit into the text of your paper.

If an explanatory note grows to the size of a hefty paragraph, chances are you have developed a main point that might deserve its own place in the text of your paper. Use explanatory notes sparingly. Do not yield to the temptation to include useless information that you have come across. There is a scholarly compulsion to want to include as much of what one has dug up in research as possible. Successful writing garners strength from selectivity, so be selective in writing your text and in using explanatory notes. See also “Multiple Sources in One Note.”

Additional Information of Interest

Observe how Captain Steve Magnan, USAF, uses this form in his thesis, “Information Operations: Are We Our Own Worst Enemy?” when he discusses poor security practices:

Even more simplistic, yet not vigilantly followed, are protective measures surrounding DoD recycling programs and trash. Even with the advent of computer technology, vast amounts of information can still be gathered by the age-old art of “dumpster-diving.”³⁷

Magnan then uses an explanatory note to define the term he has used and to provide additional clarification that might be awkward in the text:

³⁷ “Dumpster-diving” is a term used to describe information and data gathered from literally sorting through another organization’s trash. Hackers still use this technique to gather passwords, modem phone numbers, and other such necessary items they need to successfully “break in.” However, many others sort through trash and find even more sensitive information as cited in [the earlier] example.

This added information might not be significant enough to include in the text, but it provides a point of interest and shows that Magnan researched many different elements of his topic.

Personal Experience

An explanatory note is also useful when you want to cite yourself—that is, when you want to refer to your own experience with the subject you are discussing and perhaps to add credibility to your argument. That type of note might take this form:

¹ Unless otherwise noted, material in this section is based on the author's personal experience as a Special Operations Team Leader in Afghanistan from March through July 2013.

Foreign-Language Publications

If you read a foreign language, then you might have occasion to use publications printed in that language. Similar documentation requirements apply, but you must make it clear when you translate material that any such translation is plainly noted as yours. In the following example, an article from the German-language magazine *Der Spiegel*, you translated the title of the article. Some style manuals use something like "Translation by the author." But when you cite an authored article, such as the example, then the reader might mistakenly conclude that the author of the article did the translation. Accordingly, this is one of those rare instances where you may use the first person: "Translation is mine." If, however, you make extensive use of foreign-language materials—in a thesis or final course paper, for example—then you might wish to place a preface early in your work, explaining that, unless otherwise noted, translations are yours. Show the translated words in parentheses:

¹ Romain Leick, "*Langer Marsch*" ["Long March"], *Der Spiegel*, March 10, 2003, 154. Translation is mine.

Indirect (Secondary) References

It is always a good idea to go directly to a source rather than to quote that source from someone else's work. Go pull the original source. Occasionally, however, you might need to quote or cite one author as found in another author's work. For example, the work cited by an author might be out of print. In the note form, provide information on both the original and your own source. The bibliographic entry will be for your source only. If at all possible, though, the thorough researcher will secure the original.

Book or Report Cited in a Book

In the first example, the student is citing a source that she found on page 116 of Summers's book. The original source, Admiral Sharp's report, had the information on page 6. Here the student used more than one source by Harry Summers, so she used a short title for Summers's book in the secondary citation. To emphasize Sharp's report rather than Summers's book, see the next entry.

Note Form

¹ Admiral U.S.G. Sharp, USN, "Report on Air and Naval Campaigns against North Vietnam and Pacific Command-wide Support of the War, June 1964–July 1968," *Report on the War in Vietnam* (Washington, DC: GPO, 1968), 6, quoted in Harry G. Summers Jr., *On Strategy: A Critical Analysis of the Vietnam War* (Novato, CA: Presidio Press, 1982), 116.

Subsequent Reference

² Sharp, quoted in Summers, *On Strategy*, 117.

Bibliographic Form

Summers, Harry G., Jr. *On Strategy: A Critical Analysis of the Vietnam War*. Novato, CA: Presidio Press, 1982.

Lecture Cited in a Book

Note that these forms emphasize Kennan's lecture and not Gaddis's book, in which the lecture was cited. In the bibliographic entry, cite the *inclusive pages* where the lecture is quoted.

Note Form

³ George Kennan, lecture presented at the National War College, December 18, 1947, quoted in John Louis Gaddis, *Strategies of Containment: A Critical Appraisal of Postwar National Security Policy* (Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press, 1982), 42.

Subsequent Reference

⁴ Kennan lecture, quoted in Gaddis, *Strategies of Containment*, 43.

Bibliographic Form

Kennan, George. Lecture presented at the National War College, December 18, 1947. Quoted in John Louis Gaddis, *Strategies of Containment: A Critical Appraisal of Postwar National Security Policy*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press, 1982, 42–43.

Military Rank

Include military rank when it is part of your source documentation. Use the forms shown. It is also helpful (but not required) to add the individual's title. Note that the second examples for the note and bibliographic forms that follow are for a foreign military officer. Note also that there is no comma in the note form before "II" in the first source or "Jr." in the second entry, but there is a comma in the bibliographic form. (See "Titles of Individuals" in this chapter.)

Note Form

¹ General John R. Smith II, USA (Ret.), CINCUSEUCOM from 1998–2000, interview by the author, February 27, 2013.

² Air Marshal Jonathan Witherspoon-Smythe Jr., British Army, Commander IFOR Panaragua, 2011, interview by the author, March 11, 2013.

Bibliographic Form

Smith, John R., II, General, USA (Ret.). CINCUSEUCOM from 1998–2000. Interview by the author, 27 February 2013.

Witherspoon-Smythe, Jonathan, Jr., Air Marshal, British Army. Commander IFOR Panaragua, 2011. Interview by the author, March 11, 2013.

Abbreviations

Follow appropriate style for abbreviating military ranks, as shown in chapter 9 of the *GPO Style Manual* (<https://www.govinfo.gov/collection/gpo-style-manual?path=/GPO/U.S.%20Government%20Publishing%20Office%20Style%20Manual>).

Military Titles Referenced in Text

At times you will refer to a military title (rank or grade) in the text of your paper. If using the individual's full name, then abbreviate the title, as in this example: "LTG John J. Ranger, USA, took command in April." If you use the surname alone, then spell out the title, as in this example: "In a recent interview, Lieutenant General Ranger cited the contributions made by his intelligence staff."

Missing Data

Occasionally, a student will bring in a piece of paper or even a stack of papers and ask, “How do I cite this?” “This” turns out to be a source from the Internet. It has no title, no author, and no publisher listed. Our initial reaction is usually not *how* to cite that source but rather “*Why* cite it?” In an academic paper, you and your reader need some assurance of the validity of your information and the reliability of your source. Except for a uniform resource locator (URL) or a homepage, many World Wide Web sources fail that simple test.

There are, however, occasions when you will find elements of the source data missing. Newspaper editorials, for example, usually list no authors; neither do some magazine articles. Government publications often do not clearly show a publisher, place of publication, or even a date. How to handle those legitimate cases is shown elsewhere in these pages. (See, for example, “Publishers.”) However, when you can, find out as much as possible about your sources. That is a goal for students and intelligence professionals alike.

Multiple Sources in One Note

On occasion you might need to cite two or more sources in the same note. In addition, you might wish to add some explanation to a note. Either of those cases may be handled as shown. Note the semicolons between major entries in the first example. In the second example, note the short citation for Wirtz’s book, which had been cited fully in an earlier footnote.

The entry shown as “Subsequent Reference”—the secondary citation—assumes that you cited all the same sources, including the same page numbers, in a previous note. The second entry assumes that you used different page numbers in two of the four works cited. A secondary citation is not shown for the second example because you do not need a secondary reference for that note. In addition, a bibliographic entry is not shown for either example because you must cite each item separately in the bibliography, using standard citation format. See also the information under “Explanatory Notes” in this chapter.

Note Form

¹ Stanley Karnow, *Vietnam: A History* (New York: Penguin Books, 1991), 528–81; George C. Herring, *America’s Longest War: The United States in Vietnam, 1950–1975* (New York: Knopf, 1986), 186–220; William S. Turley, *The Second Indochina War: A Short Political and Military History, 1954–1975* (New York: Westview Press, 1986), 99–119; and James J. Wirtz, *The Tet*

Offensive: Intelligence Failure in War (Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press, 1991).

Subsequent References

This example shows a secondary citation for the previous note when all information in the note remains *exactly the same*. Footnotes for sources with two or three authors should include all the authors' names. When there are four or more authors, use *and others*.¹

² Karnow and others.

This shows a secondary citation for the earlier note when some of the information changes—in this case, the page numbers.

³ Karnow, *Vietnam*, 573; Herring, *America's Longest War*, 186–220; Turley, *Second Indochina War*, 99–119; Wirtz, *Tet Offensive*, 35.

Note Form

This example is a combination of an explanatory note and additional source material relevant to the information being cited.

⁴ For thoroughly researched and documented evidence that indicators of an impending communist attack were in the hands of allied intelligence prior to the Tet Offensive, see Wirtz, *Tet Offensive*; Glen Helm, "The Tet 1968 Offensive: A Failure of Allied Intelligence" (MMAS thesis, Arizona State University, Tempe, 1989); and Hoang Ngoc Lung, *The General Offensives of 1968–69* (Washington, DC: US Army Center for Military History, 1981).

Names Referenced in the Text

When you refer to someone repeatedly in the text of your paper, it helps readability if you vary the reference periodically. For example, if you are reviewing the published works of Dr. Richard D. Lionhearted and you mention him four times in succession, then your paragraph might look something like this (the italicized feature simply points out the references and should not be used in your paper):

Among noted scholars who have written on Kenya, Dr. Richard D. Lionhearted stands out. *His* works have appeared in many publications, including encyclopedias and scholarly journals. *Lionhearted*, fluent in Swahili, has translated African literature for English-speaking audiences. This thesis will make extensive

use of *Dr. Lionhearted's* materials in the thesis chapter dealing with ethnic rivalries in central Kenya.

Periodicals

As their name suggests, periodicals are products that are published periodically—usually daily, weekly, biweekly, or monthly. The most frequently encountered periodicals include digests, journals, magazines, and newspapers. Many of them have online editions.

Periodical Titles

Periodical titles are italicized, and titles of articles or segments within them are enclosed in double quotation marks. A standard convention in notes and bibliographies is to omit an initial article in a periodical title; for example, *The Washington Post* and *The Washington Times* are cited simply as *Washington Post* and *Washington Times* in a footnote or bibliography. In the text, however, you might use *the*, depending on context (e.g., *the Washington Post* and *the Washington Times*). The ear is often a good judge, meaning that you should read the entry *aloud and listen for what works better*:

- *The Washington Post* criticized efforts being made . . .
- *Washington Times* editor Wes Pruden wrote . . .

Article Titles and Subtitles

Many articles in periodicals have not only a title (often called a headline) but also a subtitle (also known as a subhead or subheading). For example, an August 30, 2013, *Washington Post* article by Barton Gellman and Greg Miller on page A1 has this headline: “‘Black Budget’ Revealed.” The subhead beneath it reads, “Top-Secret Summary Details U.S. Spy Network’s Successes, Failures, and Objectives.” You need not include subheads of periodical articles in your citation, but if you do, then separate the title from the subtitle with a colon, as follows: “‘Black Budget’ Revealed: Top-Secret Summary Details U.S. Spy Network’s Successes, Failures and Objectives.” As you see, that can make for some long citations. Note that if you do it for one, you must do it for all. See also “Capitalization and Punctuation in Titles” in this chapter.

Volume Numbers

Some publications give the volume number in Roman numerals: *Parameters* XXXII, no. 2 (Summer 2002). Use Arabic numerals instead of Roman numerals, even if the volume number of your source is given as a Roman numeral: *Parameters* 32, no. 2 (Summer 2002). Omit the word *volume* or the abbreviation *vol.*

Publishers

Cite the name of the publisher exactly as it appears on the title page. You may omit such words as *Company (Co.)*, *Incorporated (Inc.)*, and *Limited (Ltd.)* from the citation. If more than one city is named for the publisher, use only the first one listed. Carefully note any unusual spelling or capitalization, and retain it exactly; for example, *Encyclopaedia Britannica* and *Jane's Defence Weekly* (British spellings) and Macmillan Publishing (the second *m* is lowercase).

If no publication data are given on the cover, title page, or elsewhere in your source, then use *n.p.* (no publisher) in its place. The first letter of the abbreviation (*n.*) is lowercase in the note form because it follows a comma. In bibliographic forms, however, where it follows a period or a colon, the letter "N" is capitalized—but not the letter "p."

Note and bibliography entries use the US Postal Service two-letter abbreviations listed in chapter 9 of the *GPO Style Manual*. Do not abbreviate location names in the text of your papers.

Punctuation in Notes and Bibliographies

Separate major elements of note forms (footnotes and endnotes) by commas: Author, *Title of Major Work Italicized* (Place of Publication: Publisher, date), page number. Note that *no punctuation precedes the parentheses* in any note form and that the place of publication is separated from the publisher by a colon. In the bibliography, major elements are separated by periods:

Author with name reversed. *Title of Major Work Italicized*. Place of publication: Publisher, date.

This section deals with punctuation problems you might face in citing your sources. For more detail on punctuation marks in general, see chapter 8 of the online *GPO Style Manual* (<https://www.govinfo.gov/collection/gpo-style-manual?path=/GPO/U.S.%20Government%20Publishing%20Office%20Style%20Manual>).

Punctuation within Punctuation

You will occasionally have a citation where you must use punctuation within punctuation—most often, quotation marks or italics.

Quotation Marks within Quotation Marks: Remember that the only time you will use single quotation marks is within double quotation marks. This might happen when the source you are citing already uses quotation marks. For example, in the headline of the *Washington Post* article cited earlier, the words *Black Budget* were in quotation marks. In the citation, therefore, those words are in single quotation marks because the title of the article is enclosed in double quotation marks:

Gellman, Barton, and Greg Miller. “‘Black Budget’ Revealed: Top-Secret Summary Details U.S. Spy Network’s Successes, Failures and Objectives.” *Washington Post*, August 30, 2013.

Italics within Italics: If a word or words in the title of a major work are italicized or underlined, then remove the italics or underlining in your citation. For example, in the bibliographic citation that follows, the name of the newspaper (*Times*, *New York Times*) is italicized twice on the title page of the book:

Diamond, Edwin. *Behind the Times: Inside the New York Times*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1995.

Stacked Punctuation

If the title of a source you are citing ends with a punctuation mark (for example, a question mark or exclamation point), then do not stack punctuation by following the title with a comma (in the note form) or a period (in the bibliography), as you would normally do. For example, in the following bibliographic entry, the book’s title would typically be followed by a period. Because the title ends with an exclamation point, however, the period is omitted:

Shaw, Harry. *Punctuate It Right!* New York: Harper and Row, 1963.

Punctuation in Quoted Material

Material that you quote verbatim must be cited properly, including its punctuation and its style. For proper use of quotation marks, review that topic in

chapter 8 of the online *GPO Style Manual* (<https://www.govinfo.gov/collection/gpo-style-manual?path=/GPO/U.S.%20Government%20Publishing%20Office%20Style%20Manual>). The most common marks of punctuation you will use within quoted material are brackets and ellipses. Each is discussed here.

Brackets

Brackets are used to make insertions into or changes to quoted matter. For example, you might need to alter the tense of a quotation to make it correspond smoothly with the tense of your text. Sometimes you might need to insert your own words for clarification. In the following example, the bracketed words [global positioning system] are used to spell out the abbreviation in the text of the quotation:

“We are concerned about reports of a Russian company providing GPS [global positioning system]-jamming equipment to Syria,” Mr. Wright said.

Brackets are also used to alter capitalization within quoted material. For example, if in your paper you wanted to begin a sentence with a word that is lowercased in the original, then change the first letter to uppercase by using brackets:

“[T]here are reports of ongoing cooperation and support to Syrian military forces being provided by a Russian company that produces GPS [global positioning system]-jamming equipment,” Mr. Wright said.

Ellipsis Periods

Ellipsis periods, also called ellipsis marks or ellipses, show that something has been left out of a quoted passage. Three spaced periods indicate that the words following them are from the same sentence. Four spaced periods are appropriate when you have omitted (a) the last part of a quoted sentence or (b) a complete sentence or more. An ellipsis is not needed at the beginning or at the end of a quotation because it is assumed that material preceded or followed what you have extracted. Never use ellipses simply for dramatic effect.

According to *Bartlett’s Familiar Quotations*, Abraham Lincoln said, “It is true that you may fool all the people some of the time . . . but you can’t fool all of the people all the time.”

Note: Microsoft Word often closes the spaces between ellipses. Observe the difference between the previous ellipses and the next example. Either form is acceptable, but be consistent throughout your work:

According to *Bartlett's Familiar Quotations*, Abraham Lincoln said, "It is true that you may fool all the people some of the time ... but you can't fool all of the people all the time."

Many rules apply to the use of ellipses, including how to omit material at the beginning or end of quoted material as well as when and why to use *four* ellipsis periods. Rather than repeat those rules here, we refer you to chapter 8 of the online *GPO Style Manual* (<https://www.govinfo.gov/collection/gpo-style-manual?path=/GPO/U.S.%20Government%20Publishing%20Office%20Style%20Manual>).

Block Quotations

Use a block quotation when the material you are quoting is four lines or more of typescript. The entire block quotation is indented one tab from the left margin and runs flush with the right margin. Indent on both sides. If the block quotation begins with a paragraph in the original, then indent the first line an additional tab.

Do not place quotation marks around the material; your reader knows you are quoting because of the indentation and single-spacing. If, however, you have an interior quotation (as in the following example from a thesis), then mark it with double quotation marks, not single.² Note that the text of the example would be double-spaced—a common practice in academic papers—and the block quotation would be single-spaced. The font size should be the same as the text.

A colon or other punctuation may be used to introduce the quoted material, unless it is a run-on quotation like the example. A run-on quotation continues the flow of the sentence with no noticeable pause. Note also that we omit a portion of the quotation—shown by the ellipsis—and changed the case of the word *our* from lowercase to uppercase, using brackets.

Because block quotations are long, use them sparingly. They should, like the following example, contain striking words or phrases that would be difficult or not worthwhile to paraphrase:

In reference to current and future threats, General Peter J. Schoomaker, Commander in Chief, United States Special Operations Command (USSOCOM), explains that

we face threats of a new dimension, different from and more complex than the threat posed by the old Soviet Union. . . . [O]ur most likely adversaries will be rapidly evolving nonstate aggressors such as terrorist organizations, crime syndicates, drug cartels, and extremist groups who operate “in the seam” between war and crime.³

Integrating Quoted Material Smoothly

Whether you insert verbatim or summarize the idea of another person, introduce material smoothly into the text of your paper. Prepare your reader with either a conversational tag or a lead-in sentence. When you employ these devices, avoid using verbs of emotion to characterize the quotation; that is, don’t say, “The President *felt* that Putin needed to investigate the matter,” or “Mr. Wright *sensed* that something was wrong.” Of course, if you interview the president and he says that he “felt” that way, and Mr. Wright tells you he “sensed” it, then you may use those terms. The conversational tag and the lead-in sentence in the examples shown use previously quoted material. As with any quoted material, you would footnote the quotation. See the following examples:

Conversational Tag: As White House spokesman Ricky Wright noted, “We are very concerned that there are reports of ongoing cooperation and support to Syrian military forces being provided by a Russian company that produces GPS-jamming equipment.”

Lead-in Sentence: White House spokesman Ricky Wright noted the president’s concern about “ongoing cooperation and support to Syrian military forces being provided by a Russian company that produces GPS-jamming equipment.”

Secondary (Short) Citations

After your first reference to a work in a footnote or endnote, use a secondary citation (a.k.a., short citation or short form) using the author’s last name, abbreviated title, and a page number.

First Reference

¹ Jan Goldman, *Ethics of Spying: A Reader for the Intelligence Professional* (Lanham, MD: Scarecrow Press, 2009), 28–29.

Subsequent Reference

² Goldman, *Ethics of Spying*, 35.

The next example assumes you used more than one work by the Central Intelligence Agency. Use enough data in the secondary citation to identify the work clearly for your reader. Employing the “Cited hereafter as . . .” tag makes it easier for the reader.

First Reference

¹ Central Intelligence Agency, *9.11: Marking the Tenth Anniversary* (Langley, VA: CIA, 2011), 6. Cited hereafter as CIA, *9.11*.

Subsequent Reference

² CIA, *9.11*, 7.

This next example is one with no author listed. It is a *hypothetical* newspaper article drawn from wire service reports and carried on several nonsequential pages in the paper. The example assumes that you used no other material with the same title; otherwise, you would have to provide enough data to clarify which entry you are citing.

First Reference

¹ “New Council Eases Concerns in Damascus,” *Washington Post*, June 13, 2014.

Subsequent Reference

² “New Council,” 24.

Subsequent Works by the Same Author, Agency, or Organization

If listing two or more works in your bibliography by the same author, agency, or organization, give the full name in the first entry only. Thereafter, use three em dashes followed by a period. This instruction applies *only to bibliographies*, not to note forms. Alphabetize these bibliographic entries by title, without regard to initial articles (*a*, *an*, *the*). For example,

Sayigh, Yusif A. *The Determinants of Arab Economic Development*. London: Croom Helm, 1978.

———. *Economies of the Arab World: Development since 1945*. London: Croom Helm, 1978.

Titles of Individuals

Sources are often identified by such titles as *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, *Ms.*, *Dr.*, *Jr.*, *Sr.*, *II*, *III*, and the like. Citations in a note or bibliography may omit *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, or *Ms.* Treat the title *Dr.* as you would a military rank (see “Military Rank” in this chapter), substituting *PhD* or other title as appropriate (*EdD* or *DBA*, for example). When the source is a junior (*Jr.*), the second (*II*), the third (*III*), or the like, never spell out *Junior*, *Second*, or *Third*. Note the punctuation in the example that follows. See also “Names Referenced in the Text” in this chapter.

Note Form

¹ Chandler H. Chase II, PhD, interview by the author, February 27, 2014.

² Air Marshal Jonathan Witherspoon-Smythe Jr., British Army, Commander IFOR Panaragua, 2011, interview by the author, March 11, 2014.

Bibliographic Form

Chase, Chandler H., II, PhD. Interview by the author, February 27, 2014.

Witherspoon-Smythe, Jonathan, Jr., Air Marshal, British Army. Commander IFOR Panaragua, 2011. Interview by the author, March 11, 2014.

US Government Documents

US government documents are usually published by the command, agency, or organization listed on the front cover or title page. For example, Defense Intelligence Agency (DIA) products carry a publication control number (PCN) on the back cover, showing that DIA published the document. (The second edition of the book *Clift Notes*, for example, has PCN 43713 on the back cover.) If that distinction is unclear, then look in the margins of the last few pages of the product. You will often find a US Government Printing Office control number there. In that case, list GPO as the publisher.

ELECTRONIC SOURCES

Examples shown earlier in this chapter refer to sources in print or to people you interviewed. Far more common these days are the overwhelming

numbers of sources available from electronic media, especially the Internet. Academic institutions worldwide are struggling with proper citation formats for electronic material from the Internet and, in the case of the intelligence community, from Intelink. Increasingly, periodicals and even books are published in electronic formats. Some—including this book—have both a print version and an online version.

Generally, sources fall into two categories: (1) items published in standard (paper) format and then made available electronically and (2) items that exist only electronically. In both cases, citations should indicate the electronic address where you accessed the document and the date on which you accessed it because electronically stored and retrieved items are liable to change. If applicable, include the link and the homepage in roman font, unless it is the title of a blog or a website with a printed version (e.g., *New York Times*); then the title of the homepage should be in italic.

When dealing with electronic information, consider what you are citing. Are you using a book? An online edition of a newspaper, magazine, or journal? An email interview? By determining the nature of your source, you can cite it just as you would a paper copy of that source, followed by the electronic address of the material and the date you accessed it.

In the electronic world and in printed material about electronic media, you will encounter many variations in capitalization, hyphenation, and even spelling. An excellent source for this material is the *GPO Style Manual*, available at <https://www.govinfo.gov/collection/gpo-style-manual?path=/GPO/U.S.%20Government%20Publishing%20Office%20Style%20Manual>. Note: Some of these terms (*database* and *email*, for example) have been updated since the first edition of this book to follow the usage in the *GPO Style Manual*. For standardization in our lexicon, we offer the usages in table 11.1.

When retrieving information electronically, note the electronic medium (Internet address, for example) and the date you accessed it. Because electronic information tends to be perishable, print out at least a page or two of

Table 11.1. Proper Terms for Electronic Sources

<i>Use</i>	<i>Don't Use</i>
database	data base or data-base
email	e-mail or E-mail
homepage	home page or home-page
Intelink	INTELINK or Intellink
Internet	internet
online	on-line or on line
website	web site or Website
World Wide Web	Worldwide Web

any material you cite in a paper or thesis. If you cannot find a citation format covering your item, then extrapolate from this chapter or consult the *Chicago Manual of Style* or Kate Turabian's *Manual for Writers*.

Note that anyone with a home computer and modem can place material on the Internet—it is an “information dumpster.” It behooves the careful researcher to cross-check or verify information from an online source. Whenever possible, obtain a hard copy (printed version) of anything you cite from the Internet. That applies especially to periodicals, whose online editions often rush to distribute a story, only to retract or change it later.

The following are some citation formats, but expect adaptations concurrent with the growth of electronically accessible information.

Disappearing Websites

You may have had occasion to seek access to a website referenced in a book, article, thesis, or other source. Armed with its URL, you diligently enter all the characters: http://www.gpoaccess.gov/nara/v39no15.cgi-bin/getdoc.cgi?dbname=2003_presidential_documents&docid=pd14ap03_txt-6. You press “Go” or the “Enter” key, and after a nanosecond or two you see an all-too-familiar screen: “The page cannot be displayed.”

Inability to access a website derives from two major causes: (1) You might have made an error in one or more keystrokes. If you type “presidential_document” instead of “presidential_documents” in the earlier address, or if you use a hyphen instead of an underscore, then your browser will not recognize the URL. (2) The address no longer exists. Some websites remain accessible for only a set period—days, weeks, or months; many are then archived and are still retrievable at the Wayback Machine (<https://archive.org/web/>); still others disappear forever into the Internet ether.

So how can you search for your desired document or at least one like it? One technique is to go to the *basic* Internet address of the site. For example, in the earlier query, you would enter <http://www.archives.gov/> or use your favorite search engine to search for “NARA.” That address takes you to the homepage of the National Archives and Records Administration (NARA) and the Federal Register. From that screen, you can link to many related documents, including the one you were seeking earlier, the *Compilation of Presidential Documents*. These documents, once printed weekly, are now online and, since 2009, available as the *Daily Compilation of Presidential Documents*.

There is an advantage to using the basic address instead of trying to replicate the complex alphanumeric string in a directory path. That homepage usually offers links to many related documents and other websites. Your research

might benefit by pursuing that broader perspective. Beware the temptation to wander afield, tapping your new reservoir of source material and possibly wasting precious research time.

Page Numbers

Most electronic materials lack page numbers, or pagination differs depending on the print medium. Your goal is to make the item accessible, so use a section subheading or other identifying data in the page number position. Failing that, leave the page number position blank. Your supervisors and professors understand that electronic material is usually without page numbers. See the following exception.

PDFs, ProQuest, and Such

There are exceptions to the “no page number” situation with electronically derived materials. The most well-known include portable document format (PDF) and the ProQuest information retrieval system. When you access information on files of this nature, you are looking at a digitized image of the product. Page numbers, along with all other elements needed for a proper citation, are there, so treat these sources as *invisible*. Cite the product as though you were looking at it. In essence, you are.

Links, Homepages, and Search Engines

When working with electronic material, provide sufficient information for your reader to locate the material later. Keep one guiding principle in mind: *If your reader can't potentially retrieve your source, then you can't use it.* In some cases, rather than a complex URL that risks failure if one character or punctuation mark is incorrect, it is acceptable—even preferable—to cite only a link or a homepage. For our purposes, a homepage is an opening screen of work. Picture the homepage as the filing cabinet where the material is stored. A link is a “button” (a hyperlink) that enables you to move directly to another site. Picture it as a drawer within the filing cabinet.

Your main source of information online will undoubtedly be a search engine, such as Google, Yahoo, or Bing. Any of those will bring you millions of results. Keep in mind the differences between searching and researching. A search will provide definitions, descriptions, and volumes of other information, but ultimately you must add value to that information before it becomes research. For example, a definition of *strategy* might be a “high-level plan to achieve one or more goals under conditions of uncertainty” (Wikipedia).

By expanding that definition to describe precisely how you intend to pursue the “conditions of uncertainty,” for example, you have begun the process of research.

Sample generic formats for two of the most common types of electronic citations are shown here. Secondary citation formats (“Subsequent Reference”) are not shown because they vary so widely. Note the use of commas in the note form and periods in the bibliographic form, just like the citations for hard-copy documents.

Authored Work Online

Note Form

¹ First Name Last Name, “Title of Webpage,” Name of Website, Publishing Organization, Publication or Revision Date (if available), Access Date (if no other date is available), URL.

Bibliographic Form

Last Name, First Name. “Title of Webpage.” Name of Website. Publishing Organization. Publication or Revision Date (if available). Access Date (if no other date is available). URL.

Titled Work Online, No Author Listed

Note Form

¹ “Minor Work Title in Quotation Marks,” *Major Work Italicized*, Date of Item (if provided), Access Date, URL.

Bibliographic Form

“Minor Work Title in Quotation Marks.” *Major Work Italicized*. Date of Item (if provided), Access Date, URL.

Keeping Up in the E-World

Citing sources is always a challenge, made even more difficult by the wide variety of electronic sources. That difficulty can be eased by following two basic guidelines: (1) Keep a citation reference book handy (hard copy or online)—this book, the *Chicago Manual of Style*, or Turabian; and (2) use common sense in extrapolating formats from one type to another. Follow those two steps, and you’ll be less frustrated with the citation process.

EXERCISES IN CITING SOURCES

Note: These exercises may be done either as a group (with members collaborating on the solutions) or as an individual—in class or as homework.

1. You read an article titled “Duck Dynasty: The Life and Legacy of Duck Commander,” in *Backwoods Weekly* magazine dated March 11, 2014. The article was written by Jimmie Hicks and found on pages 12, 13, and 48. You quote from page 13. Show the proper footnote and bibliographic citations.
2. You quote from page 32 of the book *An Introduction to Intelligence Research and Analysis* by Jerome Clauser and Jan Goldman. The book was published in 2008 by Scarecrow Press, Lanham, MD. Write footnote and bibliographic entries for your quotation.
3. One of your sources is the journal *Studies in Intelligence*. You use an article from the March 2011 issue titled “What I Learned in 40 Years of Doing Intelligence Analysis for US Foreign Policymakers,” written by Martin Petersen. The article, found in pages 13–20, is in volume 55, issue 1. You quote from page 14. Show the proper footnote and bibliographic citations.
4. You want to quote a portion of the text found on page 14 of the previous article. The full text reads, “If the IC is going to be part of the regular routine in the White House, not only must we have something to say that people there cannot get somewhere else—which has to be more than having secrets—but we have to be mindful of how we deliver it.” To be sure that your reader understands the abbreviation *IC*, you want to insert the meaning “*intelligence community*” within the quotation. In addition, you want to omit the portion of the quotation between the dashes (between the word *which* and the word *secrets*). Show how you would do that.
5. On February 11, 2014, you interviewed a source, US Army Colonel Hans Krieglieber. Your source was the commander of Task Force Zulu in Afghanistan from July 2013 through January 2014. Cite the interview in a footnote and a bibliography.

NOTES

1. Both examples are taken from Ronnie E. Ford, “Tet 1968: Understanding the Surprise” (master’s thesis, Joint Military Intelligence College, Washington, DC, 1993).

2. This example is taken from Captain Peter J. Don, "USA, the Awakening: Developing Military Intelligence Professionals to Support United States Army Special Forces" (master's thesis, Joint Military Intelligence College, Washington, DC, 1998), 2.
3. General Peter J. Schoomaker, USA, "Special Operations," *Army* (April 1998): 19.

Handling and Citing Classified Material

Most students will neither have access to nor need to use classified material. This chapter applies only to intelligence and national security professionals who regularly deal with classified material. The guidance here is unclassified. All regulations pertaining to security clearance and need to know apply when handling the material. Consult your organization's security officer with any questions that arise.

These precautions are not intended to discourage use of classified material. Some government institutions, including certain schools, are unique in their students' and professionals' ability to perform in-depth research in classified sources. Proper precautions are taken with this material.

If you use classified material for your paper, then cite it in notes and the bibliography as you would any other source. Using classified material will preclude the publication of your paper or thesis outside official channels. *Security regulations prohibit writers from using information from official sources in unclassified papers when the sources are not available to the general public.* An unclassified paper intended for public release, therefore, must use and refer to only open, available sources. If any classified material is used, then the paper must be appropriately classified.

UNCLASSIFIED EXCERPTS FROM CLASSIFIED WORKS: A BAD IDEA

Because of the danger of compromise, *do not use unclassified excerpts from classified publications.* You must ensure that any such extract is handled appropriately. Even if the information you quote or paraphrase is unclassified, you must mark the paper with an appropriate distribution statement; it

**CIA HISTORICAL REVIEW PROGRAM
RELEASE AS SANITIZED**

21942

1999

27 SEP 1988

MEMORANDUM FOR: Richard Kerr
Deputy Director for Intelligence

FROM: Douglas J. MacEachin
Director of Soviet Analysis

SUBJECT: Leadership Situation in the USSR

1. The increasingly volatile situation in the USSR makes an already difficult analytical problem even more uncertain. On the one hand, forecasts of impending political crisis for Gorbachev--particularly given the great political skills he has demonstrated to date--run the risk of being perceived as alarmist. Yet his radical program is placing such enormous stress on the Soviet system, damaging the vested interests of so many powerful institutional elites, and creating such a high degree of tension in society as a whole that failure to call attention to the potential for leadership conflict to come to a head would reflect a gravely unjustified complacency.

2. This memorandum lays out the factors that account for our unease about our ability to forecast developments in the Soviet leadership. It was drafted

Fig. 12.1. CIA memo, Douglas MacEachin to Richard Kerr, Leadership Situation in the USSR. Soviet Union. Douglas J. MacEachin, Director of Soviet Analysis. Memorandum to Richard Kerr, Deputy Director for Intelligence. Leadership Situation in the USSR. September 27, 1988. Attachment, "Prospects for a Leadership Crisis." n.d. Records of the Directorate of Intelligence. White House Photographic Collection, 01/20/1981-01/20/1989, the US National Archives, National Archives Building, Washington, DC.

cannot be handled outside official channels. See your security officer for the most current guidance.

HOW TO CITE CLASSIFIED FORMS

Citing classified forms is so similar to citing unclassified forms that only a few examples are provided in this chapter. If you do not find a specific source here, then refer to a similar unclassified source in the *Chicago Manual of Style* or Kate Turabian's *Manual for Writers of Research Papers, Theses, and Dissertations*. Extrapolate a form from there, adding the appropriate security markings.

Note that all examples in this chapter are unclassified. Classifications are *notional* and are shown only to provide formats for student use.

Always keep security precautions in mind when dealing with classified material. Use proper markings and downgrading instructions on the required cover sheet and title page. Mark the appropriate classification of each paragraph in the paper, even if it is unclassified (U).

If your paper uses classified material from multiple sources, then maintain a list of those sources. List them in your bibliography. List classified sources in a separate section with the heading “Bibliography of Classified Sources.” For questions about the security aspects of your paper, see your security office.

DOWNGRADING, DECLASSIFICATION, AND MARKING

Executive orders consistently emphasize the need for periodic evaluation of classified material for possible downgrading or declassification. At this writing, the latest guidance on this is executive order 13526, dated December 29, 2009. Department of Defense implementation of those executive orders requires that classified documents be marked with a statement showing why the material was classified (“Classified by . . .”) and a declassification statement or, in many cases, a notice of exemption from downgrading (“Declassify on . . .”).

This textbook is *not* a security manual and does not presume to offer detailed guidance on security matters. But it is important for intelligence professionals—and for students who aspire to that profession—to understand proper procedures for marking classified material in a citation. Detailed guidance concerning these procedures can be found in the security regulations available to your organization.

If you must cite a classified document that has no downgrading or declassification statement anywhere in the document, use the following statement at the end of the bibliographic entry: “Downgrading or declassification instructions not provided.” These instructions are not required in the note form.

NOTE AND BIBLIOGRAPHIC FORMS

Notes and bibliographies for classified material must clearly reflect your source for the information and must follow security regulations regarding the handling of classified material. One crucial consideration in citing classified material is your identification of the product’s security classification. Dissemination control markings, such as “Orcon” (dissemination and extraction of information controlled by originator), need not be spelled out. If it is

essential for you to cite Orcon material, then you must arrange officially for its release and include that release authorization with your paper.

If you have a source that does not correspond with any of the examples, then use a commonsense approach. Use something analogous to the examples wherever possible, getting guidance from your security officer. Include enough information that a reader with the appropriate clearance can find the item later.

A note or bibliographic entry for a classified source should contain the following items, in the order shown: classification of the *entry* in parentheses; producer (author, if named, or originating organization); recipient if appropriate (e.g., of a letter, memorandum, message, or interview); title, with its classification; the classification of the *document*; date (for a message, use the date-time group); page number, if appropriate (e.g., for a study or report); and remarks, if necessary. Include downgrading instructions as the last item *in the bibliographic entry only*; they are not necessary in the note form. A separate listing for the publisher and place of publication for classified products is not necessary because that information is usually obvious.

The following are generic examples of note and bibliography forms for classified sources. The entries given as “Subsequent Reference” under notes are examples of shortened subsequent references to the same source. In your bibliography, alphabetize by the author if possible; otherwise, alphabetize by source—producing agency or command. Include all the information you used in the footnote or endnote, omitting page numbers of books. For articles, give their inclusive page numbers in the original publication. Do not number bibliographic entries.

The following generic citation shows the positioning of each element, including classification markings. Use that example as a model for any classified source that you cite. The example is a fictitious authored article from a classified journal-type publication, *Studies in Intelligence*, a journal that is also published in an unclassified version. If no author were listed, then the entry would begin with the article title and would be alphabetized in the bibliography of classified sources under the first word of the title, unless that word was *a*, *an*, or *the*. When military ranks or other titles are used, retain them in a note and bibliographic forms. Include the branch of service if known.

The examples shown here are *unclassified*. Classifications are *notional* and are shown only to provide formats for users.

Note Form

¹ (U) Capt. John C. Marvel, USAF, “(U) The New Information War,” SECRET//NOFORN//X1 article in S//NF//X1 *Studies in Intelligence* 92, no. 2 (2013): 5.

Subsequent Reference

² (U) Marvel, S//NF//X1 article, 7.

Bibliographic Form

(U) Marvel, John C., Capt., USAF. “(U) The New Information War.” SECRET//NOFORN// X1 article in S//NF//X1 *Studies in Intelligence* 92, no. 2 (2013): 1–12. Classified by 2234568; declassify on X1.

Downgrading instructions are needed *only in the bibliography*. Note the placement of portion markings *before* each item they relate to.

INTELINK: A UNIQUE INTELLIGENCE SOURCE

Intelink provides remarkable access to intelligence community documents as well as many unclassified sources. Remember, though, that Intelink is available only to official users in secure areas; therefore, citing sources from Intelink affects the handling of your paper. At a minimum, consider your paper “for official use only” if you cite any source—classified or unclassified—from Intelink. Security professionals have determined that the URL citation for an Intelink source is itself unclassified. So wherever possible, include that URL in your citation.¹

The following example is a *notional* article in a Defense Intelligence Agency product that is often cited in student papers. Adapt this format to other sources you take from Intelink, combining where necessary with related unclassified forms. Many sources accessed on Intelink will lack page numbers. In that case, omit that portion of the note entry. Again, the classifications in these citations are *notional*.

Note Form

This entry is classified (*notionally*) because the *title* is classified. There were no page numbers shown in this electronic medium.

¹ (C//NF) Defense Intelligence Agency, “(C//NF) Panaragua: Will Its Forces Participate in Peacekeeping?” C//NF article in S//NF *Military Intelligence Digest* 053-13, March 22, 2014, URL: http://delphi.dia.ic.gov/intel/world_wide/disp/mid/2014, accessed on Intelink April 5, 2014. Cited hereafter as DIA, “Panaragua.”

Subsequent Reference

² (U) DIA, “Panaragua.”

Bibliographic Form

(C//NF) Defense Intelligence Agency. “(C//NF) Panaragua: Will Its Forces Participate in Peacekeeping?” C//NF article in S//NF *Military Intelligence Digest* 053-03, March 22, 2014. URL: http://delphi.dia.ic.gov/intel/world_wide/disp/mid/2014. Accessed on Intelink April 5, 2014. Derived from Multiple Sources; declassify on X1.

Even if the document you retrieve from Intelink is unclassified, it is a poor security practice to cite Intelink-derived materials in unclassified papers, especially if you hope to release the material outside US government channels.

EXERCISES IN HANDLING AND CITING CLASSIFIED MATERIAL

Note: These exercises may be done either as a group activity (with members collaborating on the solutions) or as an individual assignment—in class or as homework. Again, all classifications shown in this exercise are *notional*.

1. You used an unclassified excerpt from a CONFIDENTIAL//NOFORN//X1 hard-copy publication titled *Panaraguan Intelligence Digest* 06-14, published by the Defense Intelligence Agency. The date on the cover is June 1, 2014, and no author is given for the product. You quote statistics from page 13 of the publication. Your citation is itself unclassified. Because it is one of many such products you’ll be using, you want to include a subsequent citation (“Cited hereafter as . . .”). Show the proper footnote form.
2. Using the information from the footnote in exercise 1, show the proper bibliographic form for this product. It was classified by Director, DIA, and is exempt from declassification for reason 1 (X1).
3. On June 16, 2014, you accessed Intelink and found an article in the online *Panaraguan Daily*, number 061514, dated June 15, 2014. The publication was SECRET NOFORN, and the article, also classified SECRET NOFORN, was titled “Panaraguan Forces Prepare for Possible Coup.” The article’s *title* was CONFIDENTIAL. The URL for the site you accessed was http://dia.ic.gov/pd_061514. Show a footnote entry for the article, and include a subsequent reference.

4. Show a bibliographic entry for the source cited in exercise 3. The source was derived from multiple sources and is scheduled to be declassified on June 15, 2034.

NOTE

1. For an unclassified account of how Intelink came to be, see Fredrick Thomas Martin, *Top Secret Intranet: How U.S. Intelligence Built Intelink—The World's Largest, Most Secure Network* (Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1998), v.

Appendix A

Memo for the Director and Deputy Director from Vice Chairman of the National Intelligence Council Herbert E. Meyer

30 November 1983

MEMORANDUM FOR: Director of Central Intelligence
Deputy Director of Central Intelligence
fR0/1 Herbert E. Meyer
Vice Chairman, National Intelligence Council
SUBJECT: Why Is the World So Dangerous?

The level of global violence has risen as sharply and as suddenly as a child's temperature. In just the last several months we have seen the shoot-down of KAL flight 007 the assassination of Beigno Aquino, the murderous decapitation of South Korea's leadership in Rangoon, the terrorist bombings of US, French, and Israeli soldiers in Lebanon, the Libyan invasion of Chad, and the anti-Bishop coup in Grenada that ultimately triggered our own successful action on that island. What makes these acts of violence so especially disturbing is their common denominator: each has hurt the citizens, governments, or interests of the Free World.

Clearly, the world has become a much more dangerous place. We *need* to know why. Are these acts of violence somehow linked or traceable to the same malevolent source? Or should we dismiss the present trend as a series of frightening, tragic, but unconnected events whose one-after-another timing is mere coincidence?

I believe the current outbreak of violence is more than coincidence. More precisely, I believe it signals the beginning of a new stage in the global struggle between the Free World and the Soviet Union. My contention rests on a perception that present US policies have fundamentally changed the course of

history in a direction favorable to the interests and security of ourselves and our allies. What we are seeing now is a Soviet-led effort to fight back, in the same sense that the Mafia fights back when law enforcement agencies launch an effective crime busting program. Let me concede right now that I cannot prove this—if your definition of proof is restricted to intercepts, photographs, and purloined documents. Of course these things matter. They matter hugely. But to truly understand an alien phenomenon like the Soviet Union, one needs to go beyond a listing of facts; one needs also to make a leap of imagination.

If four years ago the Soviet leadership had asked my counterpart—call him Vice Chairman of the Soviet National Intelligence Council—for its evaluation of the global struggle, I believe my counterpart would have replied: “Comrades, I’m delighted to report that the correlation of forces is moving steadily in our direction.” He would have cited the following trends to support his upbeat analysts:

- The US economy is faltering.
- US defense spending was too low to truly assure the nation’s security.
- The Soviet Union had established a mechanism for the steady flow of wealth from West to East.
- The Soviet Union had established a companion mechanism to assure the steady flow of technology from West to East.
- The Soviet Union, through the effective use of surrogates such as Cuba and Vietnam, had developed a technique for spreading its influence throughout the Third World by targeting fragile countries, destabilizing them, and swiftly taking over.
- Through the massive deployment of SS-20s, the Soviets were changing the balance of power in Europe.
- In more and more countries, policymakers, elites, and the masses were coming to accept the Soviets’ long-standing claim that time was on their side; that one needed only to align with Moscow to be on the winning team.

Were the Vice Chairman of the Soviet National Intelligence Council called in by the Kremlin’s leaders, say in mid-1983, and asked for his evaluation, I believe he would have sung a very different song: “Comrades,” he would have said, “something has gone wrong. The US is refusing to accept history!” Assuming our Vice Chairman were allowed to continue—and this is a bloody, big assumption—he would have cited the following trends to support his downbeat analysis:

- The US economy is recovering, with the only argument focusing on the breadth and duration of the boom. (The Vice Chairman, who enjoyed the privilege of access to US business publications, could not understand their failure to discuss the awesome national security implications of a 15-month, 64 percent rise in the Dow Jones Industrial Average, combined with a lowering of the annual inflation rate to less the 4 percent.)
- US defense spending is up, with the debate in Congress and campaign hustings focusing only on the proper size of the increase. (The Vice Chairman had in his briefing book—but chose not to read aloud—a letter Dwight Eisenhower wrote to General Lucius Clay in 1952: “One of the great and immediate uses of the military forces we are developing is to convey a feeling of confidence to exposed populations, confidence which will make them sturdier politically in their opposition to Communist inroads.”)
- The flow of wealth from the West to the East is less than the Soviets had anticipated it would be by now. (The Vice Chairman took a deep breath and pointed out that Moscow’s most audacious project, the Siberia to Western Europe pipeline, had been literally cut in half by US opposition; after all, the pipeline was originally to have comprised two strands, and lately no one either in Western Europe or the Soviet Union had even mentioned that second strand.)
- The flow of technology from West to East is less than the Soviets had anticipated it would be by now. In part, by reducing the flow of wealth the US also reduced the Soviet Union’s ability to buy equipment and know-how. And the US-led crackdown on illegal technology transfers had put a crimp in that key effort. (The Vice Chairman thought sadly—but did not take the liberty of complaining—that the expulsions of roughly 100 KGB agents from Western countries, mostly on technology transfer-related charges, had wiped out the KGB’s welcome-home-party fund.)
- The Soviet mechanism for spreading power through the Third World, while still a considerable threat to Western security, has run into unexpected resistance. Soviet textbooks insist that anti-Soviet Third World insurgencies cannot develop. Yet in 1983 there are five of them—in Nicaragua, Mozambique, Angola, Kampuchea and Afghanistan. Thus Moscow can no longer target a Third-World country and assume that no serious resistance will develop. Most worrisome of all is the shocking setback in Grenada. (The Vice Chairman bit his tongue to keep from pointing out that the Soviet Union believed deeply in the domino theory—and that one of its own had just toppled over.)

- With deployment now certain of Pershing IIs and cruise missiles, NATO is about to change the balance of power in Europe back to its favor. (The Vice Chairman had read in Pravda that a P-11's flight time to Moscow is 12 minutes—which, he thought to himself, is roughly how long it takes some of the Kremlin's leaders to get out of their chairs, let alone to their shelters.)
- And most dangerous of all, by describing the Soviet Union as “the focus of evil,” US president Reagan has singlehandedly deployed the one weapon for which the Soviets lack even a rudimentary defense: the truth. (The Vice Chairman made a mental note to ask a friend at the USA and Canada Institute how it happened that the Republican Reagan had made good against the Soviets a threat made against the Republicans by the Democrat Adlai Stevenson in 1952: “If you don't stop telling lies about us, we'll start telling the truth about you.”)

Whether or not such briefings actually took place, it is apparent that by mid-1983 Soviet leaders had sufficient evidence to conclude that US policy had fundamentally changed course and was now moving in a direction highly unfavorable to Soviet national interests.

From Moscow's perspective, the immediate danger would be the taking hold of a perception among leaders and voters throughout the West, but particularly in the US, that this new course was not only right but also successful. Surely Western politicians—especially those up for reelection—would chortle: “You see, we were exactly right to stand up to the Russians. We are defending our own interests more effectively now, and it's working.” The inevitable result of this approach would be precisely what Soviet leaders dreaded most: widespread public support for the new US course and therefore a continuation or even an acceleration of it.

If Moscow's chief objective were to knock the US off its course, Moscow's most likely strategy would be to discredit this course through the following tactics:

- Raise the level of violence, thus making the world a more dangerous place. (Keep in mind that US tolerance of violence has declined markedly during the last 10 years.)
- Attribute the increased violence and danger to the inevitable result of reckless US policies. (It could be safely assumed that members of the US media and other elites would swiftly pick up and amplify this theme.)
- Hope that voters will force a change of course, either by replacing the incumbent leaders or forcing them to adopt a more moderate policy.

To implement this strategy, the Soviets would not need to commit each and every act of violence themselves. They would commit some, arrange for others to be committed by surrogates or allies, and generally create an atmosphere in which violence flourishes. This last element would be especially fruitful, for there are always those who stand ready to murder for one cause or another when the timing is right.

Whether or not this Soviet strategy succeeds in the short term, I believe the current outbreak of violence is a harbinger of things to come. Let me begin with an assertion that that seems startling, but is accepted by at least two dozen Soviet specialists and generally well-informed individuals whose political views and affiliations range across the spectrum: If the Soviet Union does not achieve its ambition to displace the US as the world's pre-eminent power within—very roughly—the next 20 years, the Soviet Union will never succeed. Among the analytic points supporting this assertion:

- The Soviet Union has failed utterly to become a country. After sixty-six years of communist rule, the Soviet Union remains a nineteenth-century-style empire, comprised of more than 100 nationality groups and dominated by the Russians. There is not one major nationality group that is content with the present, Russian-controlled arrangement; not one that does not yearn for its political and economic freedom. It's hard to imagine how the world's last empire can survive into the twenty-first century except under highly favorable conditions of economics and demographics conditions that do not and will not exist.
- The Soviet economy is heading toward calamity. With an average annual growth rate of less than 2 percent, and with defense spending going up an average annual rate of 4 percent, something fairly drastic has got to give, and fairly soon. It's a matter of simple arithmetic. Moreover, sharply rising energy costs will make even current growth rates difficult to sustain. It is inevitable that if present economic trends continue, living standards will decline, perhaps to post-World War II levels. We have all been warned by the experts never to under-estimate the Russians' capacity for belt-tightening; I myself have published articles on this very subject. But there is a limit, and the limit is coming closer every year.
- The Soviet Union is a demographic nightmare. Today only about half the country's population can speak Russian; for an industrialized, technologically advanced society, this is intolerable. Moreover, so low has been the Russian birthrate that in coming years the able-bodied working-age population of the Russian Republic—which contains roughly two-thirds of the Soviet Union's total industrial production capacity—will actually decline. This is not merely a drop in the growth rate; it is a drop in the

total number of warm bodies showing up each morning, drunk or sober, for work. Moreover, high birthrates in the Moslem republics have begun to soak up vast amounts of investment for schools, hospitals, roads, and so forth. Thus, fewer and fewer Russians must work harder and harder to support more and more non-Russians. This sort of thing, cannot go on indefinitely . . .

. . . It has long been fashionable to view the Cold War as a permanent feature of global politics, one that will endure through the next several generations at least. But it seems to me more likely that President Reagan was absolutely correct when he observed in his Notre Dame speech that the Soviet Union—one of history's saddest and most bizarre chapters—is entering its final pages. (We really should take up the President's suggestion to begin planning for a post-Soviet world; the Soviet Union and its people won't disappear from the planet, and we have not yet thought seriously about the sort of political and economic structure likely to emerge.) In short, the Free World has out-distanced the Soviet Union economically, crushed it ideologically, and held it off politically. The only serious arena of competition left is military. From now on the Cold War will be more of a bare knuckled street fight.

We should be optimistic, for if present trends continue we will win. But we must also be on guard, for it is all too likely that incumbent or future Soviet leaders will not choose to await their fates quietly while their empire completes its shattering descent into history. The current outbreak of violence may thus be merely a prelude to the most dangerous years we have ever known.

Herbert E. Meyer

Appendix B

FBI Intelligence Estimate

UNCLASSIFIED//LAW ENFORCEMENT SENSITIVE
8 UNCLASSIFIED//LAW ENFORCEMENT SENSITIVE
UNCLASSIFIED//LAW ENFORCEMENT SENSITIVE

(U) Handling Notice: Recipients are reminded that FBI Intelligence Assessments contain sensitive terrorism and counterterrorism information meant for use primarily within the law enforcement community. Such assessments are not to be released either in written or oral form to the media, the general public, or other personnel who do not have a valid need-to-know without prior approval from an authorized FBI official.

PREPARED BY
FBI COUNTERTERRORISM DIVISION

(U) White Supremacist Infiltration of Law Enforcement

17 October 2006

UNCLASSIFIED//LAW ENFORCEMENT SENSITIVE UNCLASSIFIED//
LAW ENFORCEMENT SENSITIVE

(U//LES) White Supremacist Infiltration of Law Enforcement*(U) Scope Note*

(U//LES) This intelligence assessment provides an overview of white supremacist infiltration of law enforcement and derives its information from FBI investigations and open sources available as of August 2006. This assessment addresses the terrorism (TERR) topic of the NIPF and responds to Intelligence Requirement FBI DT-I.A.3.

(U) Key Judgments

- (U//LES) Although white supremacist groups have historically engaged in strategic efforts to infiltrate and recruit from law enforcement communities, current reporting on attempts reflects self-initiated efforts by individuals, particularly among those already within law enforcement ranks, to volunteer their professional resources to white supremacist causes with which they sympathize.
- (U//LES) The primary threat from infiltration or recruitment arises from the areas of intelligence collection and exploitation, which can lead to investigative breaches and can jeopardize the safety of law enforcement sources and personnel.
- (U//LES) White supremacist presence among law enforcement personnel is a concern due to the access they may possess to restricted areas vulnerable to sabotage and to elected officials or protected persons, whom they could see as potential targets for violence. In addition, white supremacist infiltration of law enforcement can result in other abuses of authority and passive tolerance of racism within communities served.
- (U//LES) The intelligence acquired through the successful infiltration of law enforcement by one white supremacist group can benefit other groups due to the multiple allegiances white supremacists typically hold.

(U) Introduction: Consequences of Compromised Intelligence

(U//LES) This assessment examines white supremacist infiltration of law enforcement from perspectives of both strategic infiltration by organized groups and self-initiated infiltration by law enforcement personnel sympathetic to white supremacist causes. The primary threat from infiltration or recruitment arises from the areas of intelligence collection and exploitation, which can lead to investigative breaches and can jeopardize the safety of law enforcement sources or personnel.¹

- (U//LES) A white supremacist leader is known to have acquired a sensitive FBI Intelligence Bulletin on the white supremacist movement that had been posted on Law Enforcement Online and had inadvertently become publicly accessible through a law enforcement Web site. In addition to identifying the FBI personnel who prepared the bulletin, the document identified the FBI's targeting interests within the white supremacist movement.²

(U//LES) White supremacist presence among law enforcement personnel is also of concern due to the access they may possess to restricted areas vulnerable to sabotage and to elected officials or protected persons, whom they could see as potential targets for violence. Though least verified by reporting, this last scenario gains prominence given the training and access to firearms provided to law enforcement personnel in their line of duty. In addition, white supremacist infiltration of law enforcement can result in other abuses of authority and passive tolerance of racism within communities served.

(U) Organized Intent to Infiltrate Law Enforcement

(U//LES) There is little corroborated reporting on current strategic attempts by white supremacist groups to infiltrate law enforcement communities. Cases that have been reported tend to reflect self-initiated efforts by white supremacist sympathizers, particularly among those already within law enforcement, to use their professional skills for the benefit of white supremacist causes.

(U//LES) The apparent sporadic reporting on white supremacist infiltration of law enforcement could be an indication of successful infiltration that has gone undetected, unreported incidents, or—despite apparent intentions to the contrary—a lack of systematic effort on the part of white supremacist groups to recruit from law enforcement communities. Although this last possibility appears more credible as a result of the current factionalism and crises of leadership among several national white supremacist groups, the possibility that infiltration has gone undetected is of great concern.

(U) Strategic Infiltration and Recruitment Campaigns

(U//LES) White supremacist leaders and groups have historically shown an interest in infiltrating law enforcement communities or recruiting law enforcement personnel. Most information about systematic attempts by white supremacist groups to infiltrate law enforcement involves efforts by

the National Alliance (NA) during the era of its founder, William Pierce, and in the years immediately following his death in 2002. White supremacist infiltration of the federal government, including the FBI, plays a prominent role in Pierce's novels, *The Turner Diaries* (1978) and *Hunter* (1989), both widely read works that are sometimes interpreted as practical guidance within white supremacist circles.

(U//LES) In March 2001, Pierce began focusing the NA's recruitment efforts toward individuals associated with academic institutions, members of the military, and law enforcement officers.³ At that time, the NA had a military unit and hoped to form a law enforcement unit comprised of current and former federal, state, and local law enforcement and corrections officers.⁴

(U//LES) By developing a law enforcement unit, Pierce intended to attract "higher quality" members, who possessed intelligence access and weapons training, and who had minimal criminal or extremist histories in law enforcement records. As part of this recruitment campaign, the NA mailed audio tapes and flyers to law enforcement officers.⁵ Reporting in 2004 indicated that several state units of the NA had discussed production and distribution of DVDs designed in part to recruit law enforcement personnel.⁶

(U//LES) Whether in response to these recruitment efforts or by personal initiative, active and retired law enforcement personnel are known to have joined the NA and in some cases have held regional leadership roles in the organization. Any success the NA may have in infiltrating or recruiting law enforcement would likely benefit other white supremacist groups with whom the NA shares intelligence. Shared intelligence is a particular likelihood given the multiple group affiliations typically held by white supremacists.⁷

(U) Tradecraft

(U//LES) Since coming to law enforcement attention in late 2004, the term "ghost skins" has gained currency among white supremacists to describe those who avoid overt displays of their beliefs to blend into society and covertly advance white supremacist causes. One Internet posting described this effort as a form of role-playing, in which "to create the character, you must get inside the mind of the person you are trying to duplicate." Such role-playing has application to ad-hoc and organized law enforcement infiltration. At least one white supremacist group has reportedly encouraged ghost skins to seek positions in law enforcement for the capability of alerting skinhead crews of pending investigative action against them.

(U//LES) Leaders in the white supremacist movement have advocated confronting suspected infiltrators and to instruct them to provide their FBI handlers with low level information that will minimally impact the group's activities. Another as yet undocumented infiltration strategy is for members to "walk in" to law enforcement agencies and offer information to determine an agency's interest in the organization.

- In 2001, Creativity Movement (CM) leader Matthew Hale stated that, although the CM had few law enforcement officers as members, the group shared intelligence information with the NA.⁸

In addition to its historical interest, white supremacist leadership has also engaged in recent rhetoric that encourages followers to infiltrate law enforcement communities.

- (U) In a speech made at Aryanfest 2004 in Phoenix, Arizona, a white supremacist leader reportedly encouraged his audience members to refocus their energies from street violence to infiltration of the military, local governments, school boards, and law enforcement.⁹

(U) White Supremacist Sympathizers

(U//LES) The Ku Klux Klan (KKK) is notable among white supremacist groups for historically having found support in many communities, which often translated into ties to local law enforcement. Although the First Amendment's freedom of association provision protects an individual's right to join white supremacist groups for purposes of lawful activity, the government can limit the employment opportunities of group members who hold sensitive public sector jobs, including jobs within law enforcement, when their memberships would interfere with their duties.¹⁰ Recent examples of law enforcement personnel whose activities in support of white supremacist beliefs have come under scrutiny include:

- (U) In July 2006, a former police officer with possible ties to the KKK was charged with civil rights violations involving alleged death threats made against black schoolchildren and a black city council member.¹¹
- (U) On 26 June 2006, Shayne Allyn Ziska, a state correctional officer at the California Institution for Men in Chino, was sentenced to seventeen and a half years in federal prison. Ziska was convicted on federal racketeering charges for helping the Nazi Low Riders white supremacist prison gang distribute drugs and assault other inmates, and reportedly

providing white supremacist indoctrination to an inmate. Ziska advised he considered himself a government infiltrator consistent with National Socialism's strategy for revolution.¹²

(U) Creativity Movement

(U) The following exchange appears among the "Frequently Asked Questions" on the Creativity Movement (CM) Web site (<http://rahowa.com/faq.html>):

Q: Do you hate police and military personnel?

A: No. The United States Iron Heel's military and police forces are evil institutions, but we have nothing against many individual cops and soldiers, who are often the best of our Race. Indeed, many cops and soldiers are sympathetic to the pro-White cause.

(U) Outlook

(U//LES) Having personnel within law enforcement agencies has historically been and will continue to be a desired asset for white supremacist groups seeking to anticipate law enforcement interest in and actions against them. The potential for strategic attempts by white supremacist groups to infiltrate law enforcement will likely increase should the movement as a whole resolve some of its factionalism. This could occur either by existing groups resolving their leadership disputes and stabilizing their membership bases or by the emergence of new leaders or groups that could bring cohesion to the movement.

(U//LES) Factors that might generate sympathies among existing law enforcement personnel and cause them to volunteer their support to white supremacist causes could include hostility toward developments in US domestic policies (such as the current immigration debate) and foreign policies (such as perceived US favoritism toward Israel) that conflict with white supremacist ideologies.

(U) Intelligence Gaps

(U//LES) Are white supremacist groups engaging in systematic efforts to infiltrate law enforcement communities?

(U//LES) To what extent have white supremacists already infiltrated law enforcement?

(U//LES) To what extent are law enforcement communities operating in environments sympathetic to white supremacist beliefs that could potentially hinder investigations into criminal white supremacist activities?

(U//LES) What methods are white supremacist organizations using to recruit law enforcement personnel?

(U//LES) To what extent has infiltration into law enforcement adversely affected investigations into white supremacist activities?

This product was prepared by the Domestic Terrorism Analysis Unit, Counterterrorism Analysis Section at FBI Headquarters. Questions may be addressed to the DTAU Unit Chief at 202-324-0256.

NOTES

1. (U//LES) FBI case information (UNCLASSIFIED).
2. (U//LES) FBI case information (UNCLASSIFIED).
3. (U//LES) FBI case information (UNCLASSIFIED).
4. (U//LES) FBI case information (UNCLASSIFIED).
5. (U//LES) FBI case information (UNCLASSIFIED).
6. (U//LES) FBI case information (UNCLASSIFIED).
7. (U//LES) FBI case information (UNCLASSIFIED).
8. (U//LES) FBI case information (UNCLASSIFIED).
9. (U) <http://www.phoenixnewtimes.com/issues/2004...m1/1/index.html>, 19 February 2004 (UNCLASSIFIED).
10. (U) Brian Levin, "Addressing Hate Groups" (UNCLASSIFIED).
11. (U) *Washington Times*, 18 July 2006 (UNCLASSIFIED).
12. (U) AP article, "Ex-California Prison Guard Sentenced for Aiding White Supremacist Gang," 26 June 2006 (UNCLASSIFIED); FBI case information (UNCLASSIFIED).

Appendix C

Briefing Evaluation Form

The form in this appendix can be used to evaluate a briefing. I developed the form after a number of years as a faculty member at what is now the National Intelligence University, where I routinely critiqued student presentations. The evaluation is based on a number of forms I have used over the years, adapted from similar ones used by the military services, most of which are longer. I find this form particularly useful because everything one needs to critique someone's briefing is on one side of one page.

You will see lines at the top where the evaluator may enter his or her name and the name of the briefer being evaluated. Note that the form is divided into five sections. The three main parts of a briefing are there (introduction, body, and conclusion), each assigned a number of points. The introduction, for example, is allotted sixteen points and has eight gradable items, so each item is worth two points. As evaluators listen to the briefing, they need only circle or check off each item to score it. There is also a section to evaluate the briefer.

The scores are for classroom use and may be ignored if you are simply using the form as a training device or to assist you in critiquing a colleague. Total points should be added only at the end of the briefing to avoid distraction during the presentation. There is room in the right margin and at the bottom of the form ("Comments") for the evaluator to make notations about *specific items* of the briefing that are particularly well done or that require corrective action. That kind of feedback is far more valuable to a briefer than the point grade.

Note the "Timing" block at the bottom of the page. I taught students in my classes that they must be sensitive to time requirements in their briefings, and I *insisted* that they adhere to a strictly allotted time. As their briefing begins,

INTRODUCTION (16 points)						
Did the briefing introduction include all necessary elements, clearly recognizable as such? (Circle)						
Greeting	Self-Introduction	Subject		Significance		Points:
Length	Classification	Summary		Q&A Time		
BODY (35 points)						
Main Points	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent	Outstanding	Points:
Organization	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent	Outstanding	
Transitions	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent	Outstanding	
Use of Notes	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent	Outstanding	
Visual Aids						
Appearance	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent	Outstanding	
Use	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent	Outstanding	
Support	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent	Outstanding	
BRIEFER (40 points)						
Eye Contact	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent	Outstanding	Points:
Body Movement	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent	Outstanding	
Gestures	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent	Outstanding	
Voice Quality	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent	Outstanding	
Word Use	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent	Outstanding	
Clarity	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent	Outstanding	
Confidence	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent	Outstanding	
Knowledge	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent	Outstanding	
CONCLUSION (9 points)						
Did the conclusion include all necessary elements, clearly recognizable as such? (Circle)						
Cue	Summary		Classification			Points:
TIMING						
Stop Time:		Overtime (Deduct Points)				Minus Points:
Minus Start Time						
= Time Length						
				10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1		
Comments:					Total Points:	

Fig. C.1.

note the time, and jot it in the “Start Time” box on the lower left. As the briefing concludes, note the stop time, and enter it in the designated box. The rest is mathematics. I deducted points for overtime at the rate of one point for every thirty seconds of overtime or a portion thereof. So if a briefing is allotted five minutes and the student takes a total of seven minutes, I deducted four points for overtime. Of course, if you have a stopwatch, the timing is much simpler.

In addition to my own critique of student briefings, I required students to use this form to evaluate fellow students’ presentations. I believe there is great value in having someone listen to a briefing with evaluation in mind. It is no longer a passive receiving mode for the student; he or she must actively participate in the evaluation process. We learn to brief, as I have said in this book, by briefing. But there is much to learn as well by watching someone else brief. This form might help with that experience.

Briefer’s Name _____

Evaluator’s Name _____

Bibliography

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Note to the user: Most of the works cited here are available in other editions, including paperback, CDs, e-books, and online. Some publication dates are old, but the works cited endure as classics in their field. Many of the citations are annotated based on our personal experience with the works or the recommendations of colleagues.

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Pat holds a PhD from Stellenbosch University in South Africa. His dissertation focuses on the alliance between the United States and the Republic of South Africa in rolling back Soviet influence in southern Africa during the Ronald Reagan and P. W. Botha administrations. His research shows how the United States and South Africa attempted to use a combination of military intervention, intelligence sharing, counterinsurgency, and diplomacy to reorder the geopolitical balance of Africa. He also holds master's degrees from Winthrop University and the Citadel Military College of South Carolina.

Prior to academia, he worked as a field coordinator for John M. Spratt, the US representative for South Carolina's fifth congressional district. He also worked as a historian and archaeologist for public and private clients, including the Department of Defense, the Army Corps of Engineers, the National Park Service, Exxon Mobile, and Verizon. As an archaeologist, he worked on prehistoric, protohistoric, and historic sites in thirty-two states and the Caribbean.

His manuscripts include *Murder and Mayhem in the Holy City*; *Down and Dirty: Archaeology of the South Carolina Lowcountry*; and *The History of Fort Sumter: Building a Civil War Landmark*. He lives on James Island with his wife, Robyn; son, Bodhi; and Labrador, Layla.

James S. Major spent more than forty years in intelligence, serving in both military and civilian capacities at the tactical, operational, strategic, and national levels.

Jim was commissioned from Army ROTC in 1963. After airborne and Ranger training at Fort Benning, Georgia, he served as an infantry officer in West Germany. In 1966, he transferred to the military intelligence (MI) branch and went to Fort Holabird, Maryland, for basic MI training. Following a one-year advisory tour in Pleiku, Vietnam, he returned to Fort Holabird for advanced intelligence training. There he entered foreign area officer training, specializing in Indonesia and spending a year in Bandung, West Java, at the Indonesian Army Command and General Staff College. Returning to Ohio University, he earned a master's degree in international affairs, specializing in Indonesia and Southwest Asia. He then served three years with the Defense Intelligence Agency (DIA) at Arlington Hall Station, Virginia.

In 1975, "Major Major" moved to Fort Gordon, Georgia, where he established and commanded the first Special Security Detachment at the US Army Signal School. Promoted to lieutenant colonel in 1978, he served in Germany as a plans officer and later a division chief on the V (US) Corps staff. In 1980, he was reassigned to DIA at the Pentagon, where he was first the intelligence support coordinator for NATO, then the executive officer to Mr. John T. Hughes, the senior civilian in DIA. In 1982, he transferred to Tampa, Florida, where he served as DIA's first liaison officer to the US Central Command and the US Readiness Command. He returned to Washington in September 1985 and joined the faculty of the Joint Military Intelligence College (JMIC). He retired from the army in November 1988 and as a government civilian created the Writing Center at the JMIC.

Major wrote fifteen books that were published by the US government. These include the textbooks *Writing with Intelligence*, *Briefing with Intelligence*, *Wordshops*, and *Communicating Intelligence*, as well as the JMIC style manual *Style: Usage, Composition, and Form* and two editions of a book on footnotes and bibliographies entitled *Citation*. Major has also published articles and anecdotes in regional and national publications, including the *Washington Times*, *Quarterly Review of Doublespeak*, the *Writing Lab Newsletter*, *SpellBinder*, and *Army* magazine. In 1994, he received the JMIC Award for Excellence in Teaching, presented to the outstanding faculty member of the year. In 1997, he was awarded the National Intelligence Medal of Achievement, and in 2013, he was named faculty emeritus at the National Intelligence University.

Major's military awards include the Legion of Merit, Defense Meritorious Service Medal with two Oak Leaf Clusters, Bronze Star Medal, Cross of

Gallantry with Palm, Presidential Unit Citation, Airborne Wings, and Ranger Tab.

Solveig Eggerz Brownfeld (chapter 2), a native of Iceland, taught research and writing from 2004 to 2007 for the Writing Center at what is now the National Intelligence University. During the years 2007–2011, she served as a mentor to research fellows at the Center for Strategic Intelligence Research. She is the author of the award-winning novel *Seal Woman*, republished in 2014. Solveig holds a PhD in comparative literature from Catholic University of America. She teaches life story/memoir workshops in the Washington, DC, area and at Anam Cara Retreat, West Coast of Ireland.

