## cyber adv

Advantage one is cyber

Cyber rules exist now but are classified --- secrecy and legal uncertainty ensures cyber escalation

Segal et al 13 (Adam Segal – Project Director of CFR Task Force and Maurice R. Greenberg Senior Fellow for China Studies, and CFR Independent Task Force, “Defending an Open, Global, Secure, and Resilient Internet” Independent Task Force Report No. 70, June 2013, Council on Foreign Relations Press)

Adopt a Greater Degree of Transparency

Although public officials have warned about the threat of a “cyber Pearl Harbor” or “digital 9/11,” the Task Force sees widespread cyber economic, political, and military espionage against defense, government, and privatesector networks as the most immediate threat to economic and national security interests. The capacity to launch a sudden strike that destroys or disrupts a large swath of critical infrastructure is most likely limited to a few nation-states. These actors should be deterred by the expectation that the United States could respond to a cyberattack through a combination of retaliatory cyber and kinetic attacks, as well as diplomatic and other measures.46

The U.S. government is more likely to be able to attribute a devastating attack to a specific state actor, especially if it comes during a geopolitical crisis, but the genesis of attacks at a lower threshold may remain unknown and will continue. These low-intensity attacks can have a long-term corrosive effect on the trust and integrity of the networks that are the foundation of the banking, transport, and communications systems. Furthermore, over time, the capability to conduct more damaging attacks will spread to states that may be harder to deter, as well as to extremists, lone wolves, criminal entities, and other nonstate actors.

It is widely assumed that offense has—and will continue to have in the foreseeable future—the advantage over defense in cyberspace. Improved defense and greater resiliency are necessary but not sufficient. The defense has to secure tens of millions of lines of code and billions of items of data across hundreds of networks and thousands of devices, which are often maintained by private actors and individuals. As a result, offensive capabilities are required to deter attacks, and, if deterrence fails, to impose costs on the attackers.

This offensive dominance, along with the problem of attribution and low barriers to entry, make cyberspace a highly unstable strategic environment. Given the speed of potential strikes, nation-states have strong incentive to strike first, to take out an adversary’s communication, electric, and transportation grids before it strikes. Former secretary of defense Leon Panetta recently said that the United States may also consider preemptive strikes if it detects “an imminent threat of attack that will cause significant physical destruction in the United States or kill American citizens.”47 The concept of imminence in the cyber realm, however, remains legally and doctrinally nebulous.48 This ambiguity makes coordination with allies more difficult since they may have a different legal interpretation of what is permissible. It increases the chances for miscalculation since legal boundaries can be useful for signaling and unclear ones can contribute to miscommunication, in addition to making it more difficult to predict international reactions to moves and countermoves in cyberspace.

After a long period in which U.S. officials hesitated to speak about offensive capabilities, over the last two years there have been a series of leaks to the press and public pronouncements on the development of cyber weapons. Reports in the New York Times and Washington Post have credited the United States and Israel with being behind Stuxnet, the malware designed to slow Iran’s nuclear program as part of a secret operation code-named Olympic Games.49

Arguments in support of Stuxnet or other covert operations are based in part on the alternatives. That is, an attempt to slow Iran’s nuclear program with malware that killed no one is politically and strategically preferable to commando raids, air strikes, or missile strikes that are likely to cause much greater physical damage and a number of deaths. Given the United States’ high degree of vulnerability to cyberattacks, there is concern that an operation like Stuxnet may create blowback or provide cover for an adversary to conduct a similar attack. Iran appears to have accelerated its cyber programs after the attack. There is also a negative impact on the United States’ ability to convince other states of the need for norms of peaceful conduct in cyberspace if they believe Washington has already used cyber weapons. But it is also true that many potential adversaries have been thinking about and developing offensive capabilities long before Stuxnet was ever developed, and the United States was no more vulnerable after Olympic Games was revealed than it was before. The public, however, is unable to fully participate in the debate on the merits of these types of uses of cyber weapons because of a high degree of secrecy. The Task Force calls for a more open public discussion and, where appropriate, the declassification of information.

Despite severe constraints in almost every other part of the defense budget, funding for computer network warfare is growing; the 2014 budget request includes $4.7 billion for cyberspace operations, a 20 percent increase from this year.50 U.S. Cyber Command is reportedly expanding by more than fivefold, from nine hundred to forty-nine hundred personnel, and creating three types of forces: national mission forces, to protect critical infrastructure and defend against nationallevel threats; combat mission forces, assigned to the operational control of individual combatant commanders, to plan and execute attacks; and cyber protection forces, to defend the Defense Department’s network. 51 Within the national mission forces, the Pentagon will reportedly create thirteen offensive teams by 2015 and twenty-seven within the combat mission forces to support the Pacific, Central, and other combatant commands as they plan offensive cyber operations.52

According to press reports, the Pentagon has developed classified rules of engagement for battle in cyberspace, which would guide commanders on when they could leave government networks to conduct offensive and defensive operations. In November 2012, President Obama reportedly signed Presidential Policy Directive 20, which “established principles and processes for the use of cyber operations,” including the offensive use of computer attacks.53 Offensive cyber operations outside a war zone are said to require presidential permission; even self-defense involving cyber operations outside military networks that could be construed as a use of force require presidential authorization. In addition, a legal review purportedly concluded that President Obama has the broad power to order a preemptive strike if the United States detects credible evidence of an imminent major cyberattack.54

This is progress compared with past reticence about offense, but U.S. government officials still publicly frame offensive military operations as defensive.55 The Task Force supports the U.S. government’s right to develop offensive capabilities, but calls for greater transparency about how and when such capabilities might be used. As the Defense Science Board argues, the United States needs to “clearly indicate that offensive cyber capabilities will be utilized (preemptively or in reaction, covertly or overtly), in combination with other instruments of national power, whenever the National Command Authority decides that it is appropriate.”56

These statements should be linked to and reinforced by the United States’ argument that the laws of war apply to cyberspace. State Department officials have said that that international humanitarian law can be extended to this new cyber domain, addressing the legal requirement of necessity in using force, what constitutes an act of force—“cyber activities that proximately result in death, injury, or significant destruction would likely be viewed as a use of force”—as well as the principles of proportionality, neutrality, and distinction.57 But states like China question whether existing international laws apply to cyber and believe that cyberspace requires a new set of laws and treaties.

It is essential for the leading nations to agree on a set of norms for activity and engagement in cyberspace; **a failure to agree will be destabilizing, increasing the chances of misperception, misunderstanding, and escalation**. Perhaps even more disruptive to stability, nonstate actors frequently operate under the cover of a sovereign state. One country may see its action as permissible, the other as an act of war.

Lack of congressional consultation fuels uncertainty --- increases the risk

Dycus 10 (Stephen – Professor @ Vermont Law School, “Cybersecurity Symposium: National Leadership, Individual Responsibility: Congress's Role in Cyber Warfare” 2010, 4 J. Nat'l Security L. & Pol'y 155)

The important point here is that any use of cyber weapons, offensive or defensive, could have enormous consequences for the security and other interests of the United States. The effect of such use, actual or potential, matters more than the labels. And if the effect - on human life or property, for example, or diplomatic relations or compliance with the law of armed conflict - is substantial, Congress has a role to play in adopting policy for that use.

Congress has not thus far adopted measures suited to the regulation of cyber warfare. The War Powers Resolution, for example, is concerned with sending U.S. troops into harm's way, rather than with clicking a computer mouse to launch a cyber attack, although the strategic consequences might be similar. And the WPR's relatively relaxed timetable for executive notice and legislative response is unrealistic for war on a digital battlefield. Similarly, if cyber warfare is regarded as an intelligence activity, the intelligence oversight measures just described cannot, for reasons already indicated, ensure that Congress will be able to play a meaningful role. In the words of the National Research Council study cited above, "Today's policy and legal framework for guiding and regulating the use of cyberattack is ill-formed, undeveloped, and highly uncertain." n45

Our experience with nuclear weapons may point to needed reforms. Since the beginning of the Cold War, the United States has had a fairly clear nuclear policy (albeit one that deliberately includes an element of [\*163] ambiguity) - one known generally to Congress, the American public, and potential enemies. n46 Congress has approved or disapproved the purchase of the weapons and delivery systems. It has been briefed on the policy, and it has debated that policy vigorously. n47 While Congress has not articulated U.S. nuclear policy in any coherent form, it has collaborated closely with the executive branch in the development and execution of that policy.

Cyber weapons bear a striking resemblance to nuclear weapons in some important ways. An enemy's cyber attack would, like a nuclear strike, probably come without a clear warning. There are as yet no reliable defenses against either a cyber attack or a nuclear attack. Collateral damage from a nuclear attack would almost certainly be very extensive and would linger for an extended period. n48 The direct and indirect effects of a cyber attack, while different in kind and degree, still could be widespread and indiscriminate. n49

In other ways, cyber weapons are critically different from their nuclear counterparts. For one thing, the time frame for response to a cyber attack might be much narrower. A nuclear weapon delivered by a land-based ICBM could take 30 minutes to reach its target. An electronic attack would arrive instantaneously, and leave no time to consult with or even inform anyone outside the executive branch before launching a counterstrike, if that were U.S. policy.

What most distinguishes digital warfare, however, is the potential difficulty in identifying the source of a cyber attack. It is always possible, of course, that an enemy might covertly deliver a nuclear device to the U.S. homeland in a shipping container or a Cessna. But the apparent ease with which a cyber attack may be carried out without attribution could make it impossible to fight back at all. If an attacker made it appear that the source was an innocent neutral state or perhaps another enemy of the attacker, a misdirected U.S. response might provoke a wider conflict. The potential [\*164] difficulty in tracking the source also makes a policy of deterrence based on a threat of retaliation far less credible.

Given these characteristics of cyber warfare, and the continuing refinement of cyber weaponry, we approach a state of extreme strategic instability, with each nation on hair-trigger alert. The execution of an ill-conceived cyber war policy calling for a prompt response - or any response - to an attack or threatened attack could have disastrous, unanticipated consequences. It also might, depending on the circumstances, violate the law of armed conflict.

Congress accordingly needs to work closely with the executive branch in the development of a policy for this new kind of conflict. Such a policy ought to reflect the distinctive technology and strategy of digital warfare, and it should be reviewed constantly as the technology evolves. Like other regulations dealing with dynamic subjects, this policy should include general approaches that reflect this nation's broad strategic concerns and fundamental values. But the policy must also be crafted with enough flexibility to allow those charged with its execution to deal with future developments that cannot now be predicted. And it should set out a procedure for such adaptive use by identifying, for example, who must be consulted under what circumstances, and who will make the final critical decisions.

It is at least theoretically possible that Congress could play an active, real-time role in the implementation of whatever cyber warfare policy is adopted. The policy might, for example, like the War Powers Resolution, require consultation "in every possible circumstance." n50 But it seems more likely that a digital war would begin and end before any notice could ever reach Capitol Hill. Congress therefore needs to lay down clear guidelines, with as much flexibility as prudence requires, for executive branch officials to follow if consultation is not reasonably possible. And Congress should require a prompt and full account of every significant use of cyber weapons.

That causes global nuclear escalation

Rothschild 13 (Matthew, author and editor in chief of Progressive magazine, appears frequently on Nightline, C-SPAN, The O'Reilly Factor, and NPR, and his newspaper commentaries have run in the Chicago Tribune, the L.A. Times, the Miami Herald, and a host of other newspapers, “The Dangers of Obama’s Cyber War Power Grab” February 4, 2013, The Progressive) \*we don’t defend gendered language in this card

When our founders were drafting the Constitution, they went out of their way to give warmaking powers to Congress, not the President.

They understood that if the President could make war on his own, he’d be no different than a king.

And they also understood, as James Madison said, that such power “would be too much temptation” for one man.

And so they vested that power in Congress.

But since World War II, one President after another has usurped that power.

The latest usurper is President Obama, who did so in Libya, and with drones, and now is prepared to do so in cyberspace.

According to The New York Times, the Obama Administration has concluded that the President has the authority to launch preemptive cyberattacks.

This is a very dangerous, and very undemocratic power grab.

There are no checks or balances when the President, alone, decides when to engage in an act of war.

And this new aggressive stance will lead to a cyber arms race. The United States has evidently already used cyber weapons against Iran, and so many other countries will assume that cyber warfare is an acceptable tool and will try to use it themselves.

Most troubling, U.S. cybersupremacy—and that is Pentagon doctrine—will also raise fears among nuclear powers like Russia, China, and North Korea that the United States may use a cyberattack as the opening move in a nuclear attack.

For if the United States can knock out the command and control structure of an enemy’s nuclear arsenal, it can then launch an all-out nuclear attack on that enemy with impunity. This would make such nuclear powers more ready to launch their nuclear weapons preemptively for fear that they would be rendered useless. So we’ve just moved a little closer to midnight.

Now, I don’t think Obama would use cyberwafare as a first strike in a nuclear war. But our adversaries may not be so sure, either about Obama or his successors. They, too, worry about the temptations of a President.

And, extinction

Guterl, executive editor – Scientific American, 11/28/’12

(Fred, “Armageddon 2.0,” Bulletin of the Atomic Scientists)

The world lived for half a century with the constant specter of nuclear war and its potentially devastating consequences. The end of the Cold War took the potency out of this Armageddon scenario, yet the existential dangers have only multiplied.Today the technologies that pose some of the biggest problems are not so much military as commercial. They come from biology, energy production, and the information sciences -- and are the very technologies that have fueled our prodigious growth as a species. **They are far more seductive than nuclear weapons**, and more difficult to extricate ourselves from. The technologies we worry about today form the basis of our global civilization and are essential to our survival.The mistake many of us make about the darker aspects of our high-tech civilization is in thinking that we have plenty of time to address them. We may, if we're lucky. But it's more likely that we have less time than we think. There may be a limited window of opportunity for preventing catastrophes such as pandemics, runaway climate change, and cyber attacks on national power grids. Emerging diseases. The influenza pandemic of 2009 is a case in point. Because of rising prosperity and travel, the world has grown more conducive to a destructive flu virus in recent years, many public health officials believe. Most people probably remember 2009 as a time when health officials overreacted. But in truth, the 2009 virus came from nowhere, and by the time it reached the radar screens of health officials, it was already well on its way to spreading far and wide. "H1N1 caught us all with our pants down," says flu expert Robert G. Webster of St. Jude Children's Research Hospital in Memphis, Tennessee. Before it became apparent that the virus was a mild one, health officials must have felt as if they were staring into the abyss. If the virus had been as deadly as, say, the 1918 flu virus or some more recent strains of bird flu, the result would have rivaled what the planners of the 1950s expected from a nuclear war. It would have been a "total disaster," Webster says. "You wouldn't get the gasoline for your car, you wouldn't get the electricity for your power, you wouldn't get the medicines you need. Society as we know it would fall apart." Climate change. Climate is another potentially urgent risk. It's easy to think about greenhouse gases as a long-term problem, but the current rate of change in the Arctic has alarmed more and more scientists in recent years. Tim Lenton, a climate scientist at the University of Exeter in England, has looked at climate from the standpoint of tipping points -- sudden changes that are not reflected in current climate models. We may already have reached a tipping point -- a transition to a new state in which the Arctic is ice-free during the summer months. Perhaps the most alarming of Lenton's tipping points is the Indian summer monsoon. Smoke from household fires, and soot from automobiles and buses in crowded cities, rises into the atmosphere and drifts out over the Indian Ocean, changing the atmospheric dynamics upon which the monsoon depends -- keeping much of the sun's energy from reaching the surface, and lessening the power of storms. At the same time, the buildup of greenhouse gases -- emitted mainly from developed countries in the northern hemisphere -- has a very different effect on the Indian summer monsoon: It makes it stronger. These two opposite influences make the fate of the monsoon difficult to predict and subject to instability. A small influence -- a bit more carbon dioxide in the atmosphere, and a bit more brown haze -- could have an outsize effect. The Indian monsoon, Lenton believes, could be teetering on a knife's edge, ready to change abruptly in ways that are hard to predict. What happens then? More than a billion people depend on the monsoon's rains. Other tipping points may be in play, says Lenton. The West African monsoon is potentially near a tipping point. So are Greenland's glaciers, which hold enough water to raise sea levels by more than 20 feet; and the West Antarctic Ice Sheet, which has enough ice to raise sea levels by at least 10 feet. Regional tipping points could hasten the ill effects of climate change more quickly than currently projected by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Computer hacking. The computer industry has already made it possible for computers to handle a variety of tasks without human intervention. Autonomous computers, using techniques formerly known as artificial intelligence, have begun to exert control in virtually every sphere of our lives. Cars, for instance, can now take action to avoid collisions. To do this, a car has to make decisions: When does it take control? How much braking power should be applied, and to which wheels? And when should the car allow its reflex-challenged driver to regain control? Cars that drive themselves, currently being field tested, could hit dealer showrooms in a few years. Autonomous computers can make our lives easier and safer, but they can also make them more dangerous. A case in point is **Stuxnet**, the computer worm designed by the US and Israel to attack Iran's nuclear fuel program. It **is a watershed** in the brief history of malware -- the Jason Bourne of computer code, designed for maximum autonomy and effectiveness. Stuxnet's creators gave their program the best training possible: they stocked it with detailed technical knowledge that would come in handy for whatever situation Stuxnet could conceivably encounter. Although the software included rendezvous procedures and communication codes for reporting back to headquarters, Stuxnet was built to survive and carry out its mission even if it found itself cut off. The uranium centrifuges that Stuxnet attacked are very similar in principle to the generators that power the US electrical grid. Both are monitored and controlled by programmable-logic computer chips. Stuxnet cleverly caused the uranium centrifuges to throw themselves off-balance, inflicting enough damage to set the Iranian nuclear industry back by 18 months or more. A similar piece of malware installed on the computers that control the generators at the base of the Grand Coulee Dam would likewise cause them to shake, rattle, and roll -- and eventually explode. If Stuxnet-like malware were to insinuate itself into a few hundred power generators in the United States and attack them all at once, the damage would be enough to cause blackouts on the East and West Coasts. With such widespread destruction, it could take many months to restore power to the grid. It seems incredible that this should be so, but the worldwide capacity to manufacture generator parts is limited. Generators generally last 30 years, sometimes 50, so normally there's little need for replacements. The main demand for generators is in China, India, and other parts of rapidly developing Asia. That's where the manufacturers are -- not in the United States. Even if the United States, in crisis mode, put full diplomatic pressure on supplier nations -- or launched a military invasion to take over manufacturing facilities -- **the capacity to ramp up production would be severely limited.** Worldwide production currently amounts to only a few hundred generators per year. The consequences of going without power for months, across a large swath of the United States, would be devastating. Backup electrical generators in hospitals and other vulnerable facilities would have to rely on fuel that would be in high demand. Diabetics would go without their insulin; heart attack victims would not have their defibrillators; and sick people would have no place to go. Businesses would run out of inventory and extra capacity. Grocery stores would run out of food, and deliveries of all sorts would virtually cease (no gasoline for trucks and airplanes, trains would be down). As we saw with the blackouts caused by Hurricane Sandy, gas stations couldn't pump gas from their tanks, and fuel-carrying trucks wouldn't be able to fill up at refueling stations. Without power, the economy would virtually cease, and if power failed over a large enough portion of the country, simply trucking in supplies from elsewhere would not be adequate to cover the needs of hundreds of millions of people. People would start to die by the thousands, then by the tens of thousands, and eventually the millions. The loss of the power grid would put nuclear plants on backup, but how many of those systems would fail, causing meltdowns, as we saw at Fukushima? The loss in human life would quickly reach, and perhaps exceed, the worst of the Cold War nuclear-exchange scenarios. After eight to 10 days, about 72 percent of all economic activity, as measured by GDP, would shut down, according to an analysis by Scott Borg, a cybersecurity expert.

Lack of norms fuel agression with China – spills over to kinetic hostilities

Moss 13 (Trefor, independent journalist based in Hong Kong covering Asian politics, defence and security, and was Asia-Pacific Editor at Jane’s Defence Weekly until 2009, “Is Cyber War the New Cold War?” April 19, 2013, The Diplomat)

Cyberspace matters. We know this because governments and militaries around the world are scrambling to control the digital space even as they slash defense spending in other areas, rapidly building up cyber forces with which to defend their own virtual territories and attack those of their rivals.

But we do not yet know how much cyberspace matters, at least in security terms. Is it merely warfare’s new periphery, the theatre for a 21st century Cold War that will be waged unseen, and with practically no real-world consequences? Or is it emerging as the most important battle-space of the information age, the critical domain in which future wars will be won and lost?

For the time being, some states appear quite content to err on the side of boldness when it comes to cyber. This brazen approach to cyber operations – repeated attacks followed by often flimsy denials – almost suggests a view of cyberspace as a parallel universe in which actions do not carry real-world consequences. This would be a risky assumption. The victims of cyber attacks are becoming increasingly sensitive about what they perceive as acts of aggression, and are growing more inclined to retaliate, either legally, virtually, or perhaps even kinetically.

The United States, in particular, appears to have run out of patience with the stream of cyber attacks targeting it from China – Google and The New York Times being just two of the most high-profile victims – and which President Obama has now insisted are at least partly state-sponsored.

Although setting up a cybersecurity working group with China, Washington has also signaled it intends to escalate. U.S. Cyber Command and NSA chief General Keith Alexander signaled this shift of policy gears earlier this month when he told Congress that of 40 new CYBERCOM teams currently being assembled, 13 would be focused on offensive operations. Gen Alexander also gave new insight into CYBERCOM’s operational structure. The command will consist of three groups, he said: one to protect critical infrastructure; a second to support the military’s regional commands; and a third to conduct national offensive operations.

As cyber competition intensifies between the U.S. and China in particular, the international community approaches a crossroads. States might begin to rein in their cyber operations before things get further out of hand, adopt a rules-based system governing cyberspace, and start respecting one another’s virtual sovereignty much as they do one another’s physical sovereignty. Or, if attacks and counter-attacks are left unchecked, cyberspace may become the venue for a new Cold War for the Internet generation. Much as the old Cold War was characterized by indirect conflict involving proxy forces in third-party states, its 21st century reboot might become a story of virtual conflict prosecuted by shadowy actors in the digital realm. And as this undeclared conflict poisons bilateral relations over time, the risk of it spilling over into kinetic hostilities will only grow.

Air-Sea Battle incentivzes Chinese pre-emptive cyber attack – makes conflict likely

Gompert & Kelly 13 (David, senior fellow at RAND and professor at the U.S. Naval Academy. His most recent government position was as President Obama's principal deputy director of national intelligence, Terrence Kelly is a senior operations researcher at RAND and the director of the RAND Arroyo Center's Strategy and Resources program. “Escalation Cause: How the Pentagon’s new strategy could trigger war with China” August 8, 2013, China-US Focus)

As the threat to forward-deployed U.S. forces grows, particularly in East Asia, the Pentagon has been pursuing a strategy known as Air-Sea Battle. As Chief of Naval Operations Admiral Greenert and Chief of Staff of the Air Force General Welsh have outlined here in FP, the goal is to neutralize the ability of enemies to keep U.S. forces at bay with so-called anti-access and area-denial defenses.

But while the proponents of Air-Sea Battle are careful to say that the strategy isn't focused on one specific adversary, we shouldn't kid ourselves: The Chinese see it as aimed at them. Then-Secretary of Defense Leon Panetta said as much in the 2012 defense strategic guidance: "States such as **China** and Iran **will continue to pursue asymmetric means to counter our power projection capabilities**.... Accordingly, the U.S. military will invest as required to ensure its ability to operate effectively in anti-access and area denial (A2/AD) environments."

To do that, according to Air-Sea Battle, U.S. forces would launch physical attacks and cyberattacks against the enemy's "kill-chain" of sensors and weaponry in order to disrupt its command-and-control systems, wreck its launch platforms (including aircraft, ships, and missile sites), and finally defeat the weapons they actually fire. The sooner the kill-chain is broken, the less damage U.S. forces will suffer -- and the more damage they will be able to inflict on the enemy. Therein lies both the military attractiveness and the strategic risk of Air-Sea Battle.

Air-Sea Battle proponents are right to highlight the growing vulnerability of forward-deployed U.S. forces and right to enhance inter-service collaboration. But civilian and military leaders alike need to understand that Air-Sea Battle suggests the United States would strike China before China strikes U.S. forces. That could precipitate a spiraling, costly, and destabilizing arms race and make a crisis more likely to lead to hostilities. The United States needs options to facilitate crisis management, deter aggression, and protect U.S. forces that do not require early attacks on Chinese territory.

Here we suggest two: Shift toward a more survivable force posture in East Asia and improve the means to prevent China -- or any state -- from projecting force in an act of international aggression.

Akin to the Air-Land Battle plan of the 1980s -- meant to thwart Soviet aggression against NATO -- Air-Sea Battle responds to the declining viability of forward defense, combined with an aversion to nuclear escalation. As then, Air-Sea Battle is a joint effort by two services to align their capabilities and war plans to defeat a serious threat from a powerful adversary. (Then it was the Army and Air Force, now the Navy and Air Force.) And like Air-Land Battle, there is more to Air-Sea Battle than inter-service collaboration: namely a focus on deep, early strikes against enemy forces, infrastructure, command and control, and territory -- then Soviet, now Chinese.

Disrupting or destroying China's kill-chain is alluring. China has the resources to threaten U.S. forces in the Pacific. Failure to develop countermeasures would leave the United States with a declining ability to operate militarily, deter Chinese use of force, reassure and defend allies, and exert influence in a vital region. Yet this simple idea could have dire consequences: Air-Sea Battle's targets would have to be struck before they could do significant damage to U.S. forces. With the exception of ships at sea and satellites in orbit, the targets that comprise China's kill-chain -- air and naval bases, missile launchers, land-based sensors, command-and-control centers -- are in China itself.

Attacking Chinese territory would have serious geopolitical consequences. China isn't the menacing, isolated Soviet Union. It's a huge and integral part of the world economy, as well as a potential U.S. partner in managing world affairs. While the United States must maintain a strong military presence to balance the growth of Chinese power and prevent instability in East Asia, where the potential for conflict is greatest, at the same time it is trying to engage China in security cooperation from Korea to the Persian Gulf. Moreover, 2013 is not 1980: Information technologies -- for targeting, networking, and cyberwar -- are advancing rapidly, and China is more capable of competing technologically than the Soviet Union ever was.

Given all these concerns, what does Air-Sea Battle contribute to U.S. security? It could indeed present China's military with serious problems. The kill-chain on which its A2/AD strategy depends is complex, fragile, and vulnerable to physical attacks and cyberattacks. By disabling this chain, Air-Sea Battle could buy space, time, and security for the use of existing U.S. strike forces. Or, as the Chinese see it, Air-Sea Battle could render China extremely vulnerable to U.S attack.

At the same time, Air-Sea Battle does not solve the underlying problem of U.S. forces' growing vulnerability in the Western Pacific. That is the result of military-technological trends, geographic realities, and the limitations and costs of defending overseas deployments. Each factor favors A2/AD. **Air-Sea Battle** could provide a stopgap countermeasure until the United States can address its vulnerability. But it also **has the potential to** deepen Chinese fears **of U.S. intentions, cause the Chinese to re-double their A2/AD effort** -- which they see as essential for national defense -- **and** even make conflict more likely. Importantly, the advent of Air-Sea Battle should not divert the United States from developing other capabilities that could serve the same ends without destabilizing Sino-U.S. relations.

Because China is so critical, and because war with China could be so dangerous, we must think through the circumstances in which potentially escalatory attacks would be warranted. We must not lose sight of the fact that the Chinese regard U.S. forces in the Western Pacific -- especially air- and sea-based strike forces -- as threatening. While some such forces are needed to deter Chinese use of force in the region, plans for their use should take into account the fact that the Chinese see things differently, and for the most part defensively.

Air-Sea Battle increases the odds that a crisis will turn violent. Already, the Chinese People's Liberation Army (PLA) leans toward early strikes on U.S. forces if hostilities have begun or appear imminent (this inclination is a first premise of the Air-Sea Battle concept). Given that, to be most effective, Air-Sea Battle would need to take down Chinese targeting and strike capabilities before they could cause significant damage to U.S. forces and bases. It follows, and the Chinese fear, that such U.S. capabilities are best used early and first -- if not preemptively, then in preparation for further U.S. offensive action. After all, such U.S. strikes have been used to initiate conflict twice in Iraq. This perception will, in turn, increase the incentive for the PLA to attack preemptively, before Air-Sea Battle has degraded its ability to neutralize the U.S. strike threat. It could give the Chinese cause to launch large-scale preemptive cyber- and anti-satellite attacks **on our Air-Sea Battle assets**. Indeed, they might feel a need, out of self-defense, to launch such attacks even if they had not planned to start a war. It is a dangerous situation when both sides put a premium on early action.

In addition, there is no reason to think that the Chinese will be resigned to the disadvantages created for them by Air-Sea Battle. Indeed, Chinese commentators are already calling for China to intensify its efforts to respond in space and cyberspace -- since Air-Sea Battle depends critically on the computer networks and satellites that connect U.S. sensors, platforms, weapons, and command-and-control systems. It is not clear that U.S. military networks can be hardened enough to withstand the sort of major cyberattacks the Chinese will be able to conduct in the coming years. True, such attacks could occur in the event of a Sino-U.S. conflict, Air-Sea Battle or not. But whether they occur preemptively or with ample warning could affect the ability of U.S. forces to withstand them. Just as Air-Sea Battle calls for the United States to initiate cyberattacks against China in the event of a conflict, it will reinforce Chinese motivations to develop the means and plans to initiate cyberwar against the United States. This could disadvantage the United States: Although Chinese reliance on computer networks for military operations and other functions is growing, the United States is and will remain for some time more network-reliant, and thus more exposed in the event of cyberwar. We simply do not understand well enough how cyberwar with China would unfold and whether it could be contained. Strategies that encourage mutual restraint rather than early offensive action in this unfamiliar strategic domain may ultimately be advantageous to the United States.

US-China opacity increases the risk

Segal 13 (Adam, Maurice R. Greenberg Senior Fellow for China Studies, “Three Thoughts on Cyber and the Defense Department’s Report on the Chinese Military” May 7, 2013 , Council on Foreign Relations; Asia Unbound)

The Defense Department released its annual report to Congress on Military and Security Developments Involving the People’s Republic of China 2013. Besides being delivered relatively early compared to past editions and being almost twice as long as the 2012 version, this year’s version has at least three interesting points about Chinese cyber activities.

First, as many have noted, the sharpest break from the past is that the report directly ascribes blame for cyberattacks to the Chinese government and military, saying, “numerous computer systems around the world, including those owned by the U.S. government, continued to be targeted for intrusions, some of which appear to be attributable directly to the Chinese government and military.” The 2012 report, by contrast, speaks of attacks “which originated within China” and active and persistent “Chinese actors.” The 2011 report describes cyber intrusions, “some of which appear to have originated within the People’s Republic of China (PRC).” The 2010 report seemed to split the difference, stating it was “unclear if these intrusions were conducted by, or with the endorsement of, the People’s Liberation Army (PLA) or other elements of the PRC government.”

Second, as David Sanger notes in the New York Times, the report tries to describe Chinese thinking about offensive cyber operations by citing two works of military doctrine, “Science of Strategy” and “Science of Campaigns.” This is not new—the 2011 report mentions them by name, while the 2010 report uses the same phrase “authoritative PLA military writings.” Sanger uses the report’s claim that neither Chinese document “identifies specific criteria for employing computer network attack against an adversary” to turn the mirror back on its authors, and note that the Defense Department has also been opaque about the conditions under which it would employ offensive capabilities. This lack of transparency is extremely destabilizing; the military doctrine of both countries emphasizes the importance of early attacks to gain information dominance, creating intense pressure to “use it or lose it,” but there is little knowledge of the other sides’ red lines and how they might escalate.

That conflict goes nuclear – extinction

Wittner 11 (Lawrence S. Wittner, Emeritus Professor of History at the State University of New York/Albany, Wittner is the author of eight books, the editor or co-editor of another four, and the author of over 250 published articles and book reviews. From 1984 to 1987, he edited Peace & Change, a journal of peace research., 11/28/2011, "Is a Nuclear War With China Possible?", [www.huntingtonnews.net/14446](http://www.huntingtonnews.net/14446))

While nuclear weapons exist, there remains a danger that they will be used. After all, for centuries national conflicts have led to wars, with nations employing their deadliest weapons. The current deterioration of U.S. relations with China might end up providing us with yet another example of this phenomenon. The gathering tension between the United States and China is clear enough. Disturbed by China’s growing economic and military strength, the U.S. government recently challenged China’s claims in the South China Sea, increased the U.S. military presence in Australia, and deepened U.S. military ties with other nations in the Pacific region. According to Secretary of State Hillary Clinton, the United States was “asserting our own position as a Pacific power.” But need this lead to nuclear war? Not necessarily. And yet, there are signs that it could. After all, both the United States and China possess large numbers of nuclear weapons. The U.S. government threatened to attack China with nuclear weapons during the Korean War and, later, during the conflict over the future of China’s offshore islands, Quemoy and Matsu. In the midst of the latter confrontation, President Dwight Eisenhower declared publicly, and chillingly, that U.S. nuclear weapons would “be used just exactly as you would use a bullet or anything else.” Of course, China didn’t have nuclear weapons then. Now that it does, perhaps the behavior of national leaders will be more temperate. But the loose nuclear threats of U.S. and Soviet government officials during the Cold War, when both nations had vast nuclear arsenals, should convince us that, even as the military ante is raised, nuclear saber-rattling persists. Some pundits argue that nuclear weapons prevent wars between nuclear-armed nations; and, admittedly, there haven’t been very many—at least not yet. But the Kargil War of 1999, between nuclear-armed India and nuclear-armed Pakistan, should convince us that such wars can occur. Indeed, in that case, the conflict almost slipped into a nuclear war. Pakistan’s foreign secretary threatened that, if the war escalated, his country felt free to use “any weapon” in its arsenal. During the conflict, Pakistan did move nuclear weapons toward its border, while India, it is claimed, readied its own nuclear missiles for an attack on Pakistan. At the least, though, don’t nuclear weapons deter a nuclear attack? Do they? Obviously, NATO leaders didn’t feel deterred, for, throughout the Cold War, NATO’s strategy was to respond to a Soviet conventional military attack on Western Europe by launching a Western nuclear attack on the nuclear-armed Soviet Union. Furthermore, if U.S. government officials really believed that nuclear deterrence worked, they would not have resorted to championing “Star Wars” and its modern variant, national missile defense. Why are these vastly expensive—and probably unworkable—military defense systems needed if other nuclear powers are deterred from attacking by U.S. nuclear might? Of course, the bottom line for those Americans convinced that nuclear weapons safeguard them from a Chinese nuclear attack might be that the U.S. nuclear arsenal is far greater than its Chinese counterpart. Today, it is estimated that the U.S. government possesses over five thousand nuclear warheads, while the Chinese government has a total inventory of roughly three hundred. Moreover, only about forty of these Chinese nuclear weapons can reach the United States. Surely the United States would “win” any nuclear war with China. But what would that “victory” entail? A nuclear attack by China would immediately slaughter at least 10 million Americans in a great storm of blast and fire, while leaving many more dying horribly of sickness and radiation poisoning. The Chinese death toll in a nuclear war would be far higher. Both nations would be reduced to smoldering, radioactive wastelands. Also, radioactive debris sent aloft by the nuclear explosions would blot out the sun and bring on a “nuclear winter” around the globe—destroying agriculture, creating worldwide famine, and generating chaos and destruction.

Biggest risk

**Campbell et al 8** (Kurt M, Assistant Secretary of State for East Asian and Pacific Affairs, Dr. Campbell served in several capacities in government, including as Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense for Asia and the Pacific, Director on theNational Security Council Staff, previously the Chief Executive Officer and co-founder of the Center for a New American Security (CNAS), served as Director of the Aspen Strategy Group and the Chairman of the Editorial Board of the Washington Quarterly, and was the founder and Principal of StratAsia, a strategic advisory company focused on Asia, rior to co-founding CNAS, he served as Senior Vice President, Director of the International Security Program, and the Henry A. Kissinger Chair in National Security Policy at the Center for Strategic and International Studies, doctorate in International Relation Theory from Oxford, former associate professor of public policy and international relations at the John F. Kennedy School of Government and Assistant Director of the Center for Science and International Affairs at Harvard University, member of Council on Foreign Relations and  International Institute for Strategic Studies, “The Power of Balance: America in iAsia” June 2008, <http://www.cnas.org/files/documents/publications/CampbellPatelSingh_iAsia_June08.pdf>)

Asian *investment* is also at record levels. Asian countries lead the world with unprecedented infra­structure projects. With over $3 trillion in foreign currency reserves, Asian nations and businesses are starting to shape global economic activity. Indian firms are purchasing industrial giants such as Arcelor Steel, as well as iconic brands of its once-colonial ruler, such as Jaguar and Range Rover. China’s Lenovo bought IBM’s personal computer

We call the transformations across the Asia-Pacific the emergence of “iAsia” to reflect the adoption by countries across Asia of fundamentally new stra­tegic approaches to their neighbors and the world. Asian nations are pursuing their interests with real power in a period of both tremendous potential and great uncertainty. iAsia is: *Integrating:* iAsia includes increasing economic interdependence and a flowering of multinational forums to deal with trade, cultural exchange, and, to some degree, security. *Innovating:* iAsia boasts the world’s most successful manufacturing and technology sectors and could start taking the lead in everything from finance to nanotech to green tech. *Investing:* Asian nations are developing infrastruc­ture and human capital at unprecedented rates. But the continent remains plagued by: Insecurity: Great-power rivalry is alive in Asia. Massive military investments along with historic suspicions and contemporary territorial and other conflicts make war in Asia plausible. Instability: From environmental degradation to violent extremism to trafficking in drugs, people, and weapons, Asian nations have much to worry about. *Inequality:* Within nations and between them, inequality in Asia is more stark than anywhere else in the world. Impoverished minorities in countries like India and China, and the gap in governance and capacity within countries, whether as back­ward as Burma or as advanced as Singapore, present unique challenges. A traditional approach to Asia will not suffice if the United States is to both protect American interests and help iAsia realize its potential and avoid pitfalls. business and the Chinese government, along with other Asian financial players, injected billions in capital to help steady U.S. investment banks such as Merrill Lynch as the American subprime mortgage collapse unfolded. Chinese investment funds regional industrialization, which in turn creates new markets for global products. Asia now accounts for over 40 percent of global consumption of steel 4 and China is consuming almost half of world’s available concrete. 5 Natural resources from soy to copper to oil are being used by China and India at astonishing rates, driving up commodity prices and setting off alarm bells in Washington and other Western capitals. Yet Asia is not a theater at peace. On average, between 15 and 50 people die every day from causes tied to conflict, and suspicions rooted in rivalry and nationalism run deep. The continent harbors every traditional and non-traditional challenge of our age: it is a cauldron of religious and ethnic tension; a source of terror and extrem­ism; an accelerating driver of the insatiable global appetite for energy; the place where the most people will suffer the adverse effects of global climate change; the primary source of nuclear proliferation; and the most likely theater on Earth for a major conventional confrontation and even a nuclear conflict. Coexisting with the optimism of iAsia are the ingredients for internal strife, non-traditional threats like terrorism, and traditional interstate conflict, which are all magnified by the risk of miscalculation or poor decision-making.

Plan provides legal clarity and strengthens cyber doctrine

Lorber 13 (Eric, J.D. Candidate, University of Pennsylvania Law School, Ph.D Candidate, Duke University Department of Political Science, “COMMENT: Executive Warmaking Authority and Offensive Cyber Operations: Can Existing Legislation Successfully Constrain Presidential Power?” January, 2013, 15 U. Pa. J. Const. L. 961)

While many in the public sphere have paid a great deal of attention to the legality of offensive cyber operations, far less attention has been devoted to how domestic law interacts with the United States' employment of these capabilities. Indeed, policymakers have repeatedly noted "the mismatch between our technical capabilities to conduct operations and the governing laws and policies." n71 Over the past few years, studies have suggested that the United States has not developed such a legal framework and that whether current U.S. law - such as the War Powers Resolution - can regulate OCOs remains under-analyzed. n72 While some argue that attempting to develop such a framework will severely hamper the United States' ability to effectively conduct offensive cyber operations in future conflicts, n73 most analysts agree that "today's policy and legal framework for guiding and regulating the U.S. use of cyberattack is ill-formed, undeveloped, and highly uncertain." n74 To this point, most of the debate as to the legality of these operations has remained behind government doors. n75 Indeed, until very recently, scholars [\*975] have not paid substantial attention to these issues. To date, only a few articles, n76 blog postings, n77 and a National Resource Council report n78 have delved into this issue in any detail.

This lack of attention creates a series of problems in determining whether and how to regulate these operations. Most notably, before even addressing whether a new framework should be developed, the question arises as to whether the current domestic legal framework can govern the employment of these capabilities. Although many policymakers have suggested the current framework cannot govern OCOs, this question remains to be closely examined and argued. Only if the existing framework is found inadequate should legal scholars and practitioners design a new legal framework. Indeed, if, as Matthew Waxman argues, "strategy is a ... driver of legal evolution," n79 then new legal mechanisms may be required to ensure proper limitations on the executive's war-making abilities.

Though a full accounting of the potential domestic legal mechanisms governing the use of offensive cyber weapons is beyond the scope of this Comment, a first step in determining whether the current legal framework can be effective, at least partially, in governing the uses of these new weapons is to examine whether an appropriate procedural system exists as to regulate when and how they are employed. Though not delving into specifics about the use of these weapons, an operative, procedural framework that allows other governmental branches to review, understand, and potentially check the uses of these weapons provides an initial move towards their effective regulation. Though it may not be sufficient to fully clarify when and how the use of offensive cyber weapons may be legal, such a system at least would allow for oversight and hold the promise of helping policymakers better understand the conditions under which they can lawfully use these tools.

[\*976] To this end, this Comment examines the two primary statutory tools through which Congress has tried to regulate executive military action: the War Powers Resolution and the Intelligence Authorization Act. There are two reasons to focus on these statutes. First, they apply to instances in which offensive cyber weapons will most likely be employed outside of surveillance and espionage actions: covert actions to disable and disrupt adversary systems and capabilities, and overt actions taken in conjunction with kinetic operations to degrade an adversary's ability to effectively conduct combat operations. Second, they are the primary means through which Congress has attempted to constrain the President's exercise of his constitutional Commander-in-Chief function. n80 Historically, and particularly since 1970, Congress has been reluctant to use its primary power, the power of the purse, to defund military activities, utilizing it only a handful of times. n81 As recent controversies over funding for wars in Iraq and Afghanistan, as well as the intervention in Libya illustrate, threatening to defund ongoing military operations is politically delicate and many legislators prefer to avoid taking such action. n82 Before proceeding to analyze OCOs through the prism of these two statutes, however, sharpening our understanding of the different types of OCOs is necessary.

II. Typologies, Employment, and Offensive Cyber Operations

Cyberattacks are "efforts to alter, disrupt, or destroy computer systems or networks or the information or programs on them ... [,] encompassing activities that range in target (military versus civilian, public versus private), consequences (minor versus major, direct versus indirect), and duration (temporary versus long-term)." n83 While this definition provides broad [\*977] guidance as to what may constitute a cyberattack, for the purposes of applying existing legal structures, the definition must be conceptualized in a way that usefully fits into those preexisting regimes. Because of the complexity and great number of potential means of cyberattack, this Comment groups such attacks based on employment, i.e., the way in which they are utilized and their intended purposes. Such an approach provides greater clarity as to which U.S. domestic legal regime will likely govern their employment. The following section proceeds by first discussing some of the technical details of cyberattacks and then moves into understanding how they have been - and likely will be - employed in future conflicts.

Before moving to a discussion of what cyberattacks are, it is important to note what they are not. They are not cyberexploitation, that is, "the use of actions and operations ... to obtain information that would otherwise be kept confidential ... . Cyberexploitations are usually clandestine and conducted with the smallest possible intervention that still allows extraction of the information sought." n84 The core difference between attack and exploitation is in the cyber operation's purpose; cyberattacks are meant to be destructive whereas cyberexploitation acquires information nondestructively. n85 While the term offensive cyber operations usually encompasses both attack and exploitative elements, here "OCO" refers only to attacks. n86

At the most basic level, a cyberattack requires three elements: vulnerability; access; and payload. n87 A vulnerability is "an aspect of the system that can be used by the attacker to compromise" an adversary's network. n88 Given the increase in the number of complex systems employed by countries in the past two decades, many cyber defense analysts and computer experts agree that it is increasingly difficult to foresee and prevent vulnerability exploitation before attacks. n89 Access refers to the ability to deliver the payload into the target system such that it exploits the vulnerability. In particular, access to a target depends on whether the attack can be launched via remote access (e.g., by hacking into a computer network via the internet) n90 or close access (e.g., attacking a system through [\*978] the "local installation of hardware" via covert operatives). n91 The payload describes "the things that can be done once a vulnerability has been exploited. For example, once a software agent (such as a virus) has entered a given computer, it can be programmed to do many things - reproducing and retransmitting itself, destroying files on the system, or altering files." n92 Cyberattacks generally target a system's integrity (i.e., the system's ability to operate normally), n93 ability to discern proper authenticity (i.e., the system's ability to determine whether it should accept incoming data), n94 or its availability (i.e., whether users can properly access the system). n95 The resulting effects can be wide-ranging, including destroying data on networks, generating bogus network traffic, covertly altering data on the network, and degrading or denying service on the network. n96

Depending on whether the systems being attacked are remote or close access, a number of assault avenues exist. In an attack on a remote access system, botnets are one of the prominent means of assault. n97 In a botnet attack, which usually aims to deny users access to the system (such as a government website in a denial of service or distributed denial of service attack), bots install themselves on internet-connected computers and then, responding to commands from a master computer, attack the target by overloading it with numerous requests for information, such as e-mails, sometimes numbering in the millions. n98 Because the target cannot sufficiently process the information, it becomes inoperative. n99 Other ways to attack remote access systems include worms and viruses, which are generally used to install "trojan horse" systems on many computers that will render those computers inoperable. n100

Attacking close access systems may generally be more difficult given their lower degree of accessibility. However, one attack approach involves inserting malicious software into the supply chain of a system that will eventually become close access. n101 Such a strategy allows a compromised [\*979] machine or piece of software to enter into the close access system and then to be activated at a later point based on a variety of triggering mechanisms. Other attack routes include inserting compromised universal serial buses ("USBs") into close systems. Such an approach can be accomplished either by willing or unwilling insiders. n102

Hypothetically, scholars and practitioners have postulated a number of ways in which states might use cyberattacks in future combat scenarios, depending on a wide range of factors. n103 This process of categorization is not novel, as U.S. military planners have attempted to produce useful typologies since the mid-1990s. n104 While many potential categorization schemas exist, and many involve different types of adversaries, vulnerabilities, technologies underpinning the attacks, etc., most seem to focus on a primary element: the relationship of the cyberattack to other operations. In particular, the schemas differentiate based on whether the attack is part of a larger, kinetic offensive, or simply an attack launched independently of such operations. For example, Gregory Rattray and Jason Healey, in their recent work, suggest multiple ways in which a state could launch such an attack, but underpinning each is a discussion of whether the attack is part of a larger military operation or conducted independently. n105 [\*980] Likewise, William Owens, Kenneth Dam, and Herbert Lin differentiate between types of cyberattacks that directly support or are in conjunction with military operations, n106 and those conducted independently as covert action. n107

Further, the distinction between cyberattacks launched independently as opposed to part of a larger operation properly characterizes most known cyber operations to date. On the one hand, states have launched a number of attacks in recent years independent of kinetic operations. n108 For example, the actions in Estonia in 2007 - though potentially linked to the Russian government - were independent of any larger military assault. n109 More notably, the Stuxnet virus, which inflicted tremendous damage on the Iranian nuclear energy program by destroying its centrifuge cascades and much of its Uranium enrichment capability, was launched independent of military action. n110 Though no nation has taken responsibility for the virus, most analysts suggest that Israel, with the United States' help, designed and deployed the virus to hinder Iran's nuclear development. n111 On the other hand, because cyberattacks may make kinetic operations more effective, states have recently employed the two in conjunction. n112 For example, the alleged Israeli attack on Syria in 2007 n113 - as well as the alleged Russian attack on Georgia in 2008 n114 - both employed cyberattacks in conjunction with larger operations. In addition, U.S. war planning for Libya also included a cyber component, but only as part of a larger intervention. n115

[\*981] Given the historical record of cyberattacks and that most of the theoretical literature categorizes such attacks based on their relationship to military actions, this Comment divides the attacks into binary categories: attacks waged independently of other military operations, and attacks waged as part of a larger military campaign. Though such a distinction may blur as states employ their capabilities in innovative ways, relying on that distinction now will aid both in understanding how different U.S. domestic laws apply to both general categories and in better preparing legal analysts in case of future cyber operations that do not neatly fit into them. Given this distinction, the analysis below examines whether current U.S. law effectively governs offensive cyber operations performed in conjunction with a military campaign or as a stand-alone operation.

III. The War Powers Resolution: Armed Forces, Hostilities, and Statutory Interpretation

Before proceeding to a discussion of either the War Powers Resolution or the Intelligence Authorization Act, one must acknowledge the inherent tension built into the relationship between Congress and the President over the power to wage war. Notably, the Constitution splits war-making authorities between the congressional and executive branches. n116 Proponents of executive power suggest that, because the President is the "Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States," n117 he is vested with the war-making power to determine when and how to deploy U.S. armed forces. n118 Conversely, Congress has the ability to "declare war," "raise and support Armies," "provide and maintain a Navy," and "provide for calling forth" and organizing and arming the militia. n119 Further, based on the Necessary and Proper Clause, some argue that Congress is empowered to pass legislation in accordance with its constitutional war-making authority specified above. n120 The debate over the extent of each branch's war-making [\*982] power has shadowed many conflicts in which the United States has been involved. n121

The intensity of this debate increased considerably during the Vietnam War, when Congress, uncomfortable with Presidents Johnson and Nixon's continuation of the conflict, attempted to rein in presidential power through a series of legislative acts. n122 The ineffectiveness of these early actions led a Senate committee to propose the War Powers Act in 1972. n123 After a period of extensive debates in which the language of the original Act was modified, n124 the House of Representatives concurred with the Senate bill and passed the Resolution on October 12, 1973. n125 On November 7, the House of Representatives overrode President Nixon's veto n126 of the War Powers Resolution. n127

Congress intended the War Powers Resolution ("WPR") n128 - passed in response to the Vietnam War when Presidents Kennedy, Johnson, and Nixon deployed large numbers of U.S. troops to Southeast Asia without a congressional declaration of war - to limit the President's power to send U.S. forces into combat without explicit congressional authorization. n129 However, given inherent questions about its constitutionality, n130 congressional unwillingness to invoke the authority granted to it under the [\*983] WPR under most circumstances, n131 and the likelihood that deploying offensive cyber activities does not constitute the introduction of armed forces into hostilities (if the hostilities threshold is even met), n132 the War Powers Resolution is a weak footing upon which to base congressional oversight of these activities.

The following section provides an overview of the provisions of the War Powers Resolution, paying particular attention to its reporting and withdrawal requirements. It then proceeds to discuss the debates over the Resolution's effectiveness and constitutionality, noting that while it has proven ineffective at times, it may not be fatally flawed or unconstitutional. Following, this section discusses the definitions of key terms, based both on how they have been interpreted in past historical instances of the Resolution's invocation and in the legislative history of the Act. Finally, this section argues that its terms likely do not cover offensive cyber operations launched independently or in conjunction with kinetic operations.

A. A Brief Overview of the War Powers Resolution

In the absence of congressional declaration of war, the WPR requires that:

The President shall submit within 48 hours to the Speaker of the House of Representatives and to the President pro tempore of the Senate a report, in writing, setting forth - (A) the circumstances necessitating the introduction of United States Armed Forces; (B) the constitutional and legislative authority under which such introduction took place; and (C) the estimated scope and duration of the hostilities or involvement. n133

Three circumstances trigger this reporting requirement. If United States armed forces are introduced: (1) "into hostilities or into situations where imminent involvement in hostilities is clearly indicated by the circumstances;" n134 (2) if such forces are introduced "into the territory, airspace, or waters of a foreign nation, while equipped for combat, except for deployments which relate solely to supply, replacement, repair, or training of such forces;" n135 and (3) "in numbers which substantially enlarge United States Armed Forces equipped for combat already located in a [\*984] foreign nation." n136 Beyond requiring the President to submit a report to Congress within forty-eight hours of these specific triggering events, the WPR also directs the President to withdraw armed forces within sixty days after the report is submitted or is required to be submitted, unless Congress has declared war, extended the sixty-day period by law, or is physically unable to meet because of an armed attack against the United States. n137 The President can unilaterally extend this period for an additional thirty days. n138 In another controversial provision of the Act, Congress, by concurrent resolution, can order the President to remove U.S. armed forces if they are engaged in hostilities outside of the United States without a declaration of war or statutory authorization. n139 As discussed below, the constitutionality of this section (as well as the mandatory sixty-day removal requirement) is debatable, as the Supreme Court has ruled that legislative vetoes invalidating executive actions - which these sections arguably constitute - are unconstitutional. n140

As becomes evident, based on the text of the Resolution, determining the definitions of "U.S. armed forces," "hostilities," "imminent," and "into the territory ... while equipped for combat," is crucial for concluding whether the President must report U.S. military activities and remove U.S. forces after sixty days. Before analyzing whether such definitions might encompass offensive cyber operations, it is helpful to understand the primary arguments against the Act, including the routine assertion by Presidents that it is unconstitutional. n141

B. The Alleged Weaknesses of the War Powers Resolution

Critics of the War Powers Resolution assert two broad critiques: that it is ineffective in practice and that it is unconstitutional. n142 Regarding the first [\*985] claim, analysts suggest that Presidents simply order operations that successfully evade WPR reporting and withdrawal requirements, despite the fact that U.S. soldiers are deployed in situations likely imagined by the statute's drafters. n143 In particular, administrations continually argue that situations into which U.S. troops are deployed do not constitute hostilities. n144 Likewise, some suggest that macro-scale operations of the kind triggering the War Powers Resolution - where lengthy troop deployments are followed by crises and subsequent war - are antiquated and unlikely to occur in contemporary times. n145 Other analysts simply claim that Presidents have ignored the reporting requirements n146 and that members of Congress have been unwilling to stand up to potentially popular presidential uses of force, even if they clearly violate the WPR. n147 As a result, some analysts believe that other congressional mechanisms, such as its funding powers, provide the body with stronger oversight ability over executive action. n148 While many have critiqued the War Powers Resolution for its apparent ineffectiveness, this does not necessarily suggest it is has been futile; Presidents have actively submitted reports pursuant to its requirements and therefore have at least provided Congress with information about their activities. n149

[\*986] In addition to critiquing its effectiveness, administrations and legal analysts have suggested that the WPR is unconstitutional or suffers from substantial legal problems. n150 These claims break down into four different assertions: that the War Powers Resolution infringes on the President's commander-in-chief function, based on an original understanding of these provisions by the Framers; n151 that the concurrent resolution constitutes a legislative veto of an executive action and is therefore unconstitutional under Immigration and Naturalization Services v. Chadha; n152 that members of Congress do not have standing to bring claims for presidential violations of the WPR; n153 and that enforcement of the WPR presents a non-justiciable claim. n154

While each of these claims has merit, none is sufficiently definitive as to whether the Resolution is constitutional or suffers from other fatal legal flaws. First, good evidence exists to support arguments that the Framers would have found the Resolution to be consistent with congressional war powers, n155 or conversely, that it infringes upon the Executive's commander-in-chief function. n156

Second, the War Powers Resolution may not constitute a "legislative veto" for the purposes of Chadha. n157 According to legal scholars, "the [\*987] Chadha decision is generally believed to have struck down section 5(c) of the War Powers Resolution, which permits the Congress to direct the President to remove the armed from a hostile situation by passage of a concurrent resolution." n158 In addition, some argue that Section 5(b) (requiring the removal of troops after the mandatory sixty-day period without congressional action, i.e., if only one chamber of Congress does not act) also represents a legislative veto. n159 In Chadha, the Supreme Court ruled that § 244(c)(2) of the Immigration and Nationality Act, which allowed Congress to pass a joint resolution forcing the Attorney General to cancel a deportation, was unconstitutional because it was a legislative veto of executive action. n160 Basing its decision on Article I, Section 7, Clauses 2 and 3 of the Constitution, the Supreme Court concluded that congressional action meant to have the effect of law must be approved by both houses of Congress and presented to the President for his approval (or disapproval). n161 In Chadha, "the Court held that § 244(c)(2) [was] unconstitutional because it authorized one house of Congress to change the legal status quo by action less than that required by the Constitution for a valid law." n162 As noted by Professor Sidney Buchanan however, substantial distinctions exist between § 244(c)(2) and the War Powers Resolution. For example, § 244(c)(2) allowed Congress to change the legal status quo by adjusting the legal status of the immigrant. n163 If, as some scholars argue, the War Powers Resolution is a codification of legally existing congressional war-making authority, then the War Powers Resolution does not change the legal status quo but merely fleshes out these powers. n164 Further, though scholars note that the War Powers Resolution may be unconstitutional because the action (of forcing the removal of troops) is not presented to the President for his approval, such presentment may not be required. n165 In Hollingsworth v. Virginia, the Supreme Court suggested that the presentment requirement applies only to [\*988] "ordinary" cases of legislation. n166 This assertion implies that there may exist cases where legislation does not require presentment before the President and it is likely that a concurrent resolution in the War Powers Resolution would be extraordinary enough to fall into such a category. n167 As a result, it is unclear whether the War Powers Resolution represents an impermissible legislative veto.

Third, courts have suggested that members of Congress may have standing to bring suit based on violations of the War Powers Resolution. n168 Federal courts have suggested that, if Congress were to pass a resolution requiring a particular presidential report under the War Powers Resolution, for example, non-compliance with this resolution would constitute a cognizable claim. n169 As a result, Congress could potentially use the courts to bring a successful claim for violation of the War Powers Resolution.

Fourth and finally, some federal courts have asserted that the issue of whether the President refuses to abide by the War Powers Resolution is a political, non-justiciable question, and therefore the courts cannot rule on the matter. n170 At the same time, however, courts have also asserted that if a majority of Congress agreed that the President must abide by the requirements of the War Powers Resolution in a given circumstance, such consensus would present a justiciable claim to the courts. n171

As this discussion illustrates, the War Powers Resolution is certainly flawed. However, it is not necessarily unconstitutional and may serve some [\*989] positive function by alerting Congress to activities undertaken by the President and giving them the potential opportunity to weigh in, albeit not likely force the removal of U.S. forces. Thus, it still may prove useful in helping Congress regulate the use of offensive cyber operations, if it applies to them.

C. The War Powers Resolution as Applied to Offensive Cyber Operations

As discussed above, critical to the application of the War Powers Resolution - especially in the context of an offensive cyber operation - are the definitions of key terms, particularly "armed forces," as the relevant provisions of the Act are only triggered if the President "introduc[es armed forces] into hostilities or into situations [of] imminent ... hostilities," n172 or if such forces are introduced "into the territory, airspace, or waters of a foreign nation, while equipped for combat, except for deployments which relate solely to supply, replacement, repair, or training of such forces." n173 The requirements may also be triggered if the United States deploys armed forces "in numbers which substantially enlarge United States Armed Forces equipped for combat already located in a foreign nation." n174 As is evident, the definition of "armed forces" is crucial to deciphering whether the WPR applies in a particular circumstance to provide congressional leverage over executive actions. The definition of "hostilities," which has garnered the majority of scholarly and political attention, n175 particularly in the recent Libyan conflict, n176 will be dealt with secondarily here because it only becomes important if "armed forces" exist in the situation.

As is evident from a textual analysis, n177 an examination of the legislative history, n178 and the broad policy purposes behind the creation of the Act, n179 [\*990] "armed forces" refers to U.S. soldiers and members of the armed forces, not weapon systems or capabilities such as offensive cyber weapons. Section 1547 does not specifically define "armed forces," but it states that "the term "introduction of United States Armed Forces' includes the assignment of members of such armed forces to command, coordinate, participate in the movement of, or accompany the regular or irregular military forces of any foreign country or government." n180 While this definition pertains to the broader phrase "introduction of armed forces," the clear implication is that only members of the armed forces count for the purposes of the definition under the WPR. Though not dispositive, the term "member" connotes a human individual who is part of an organization. n181 Thus, it appears that the term "armed forces" means human members of the United States armed forces. However, there exist two potential complications with this reading. First, the language of the statute states that "the term "introduction of United States Armed Forces' includes the assignment of members of such armed forces." n182 By using inclusionary - as opposed to exclusionary - language, one might argue that the term "armed forces" could include more than members. This argument is unconvincing however, given that a core principle of statutory interpretation, expressio unius, suggests that expression of one thing (i.e., members) implies the exclusion of others (such as non-members constituting armed forces). n183 Second, the term "member" does not explicitly reference "humans," and so could arguably refer to individual units and beings that are part of a larger whole (e.g., wolves can be members of a pack). As a result, though a textual analysis suggests that "armed forces" refers to human members of the armed forces, such a conclusion is not determinative.

An examination of the legislative history also suggests that Congress clearly conceptualized "armed forces" as human members of the armed forces. For example, disputes over the term "armed forces" revolved around who could be considered members of the armed forces, not what constituted a member. Senator Thomas Eagleton, one of the Resolution's architects, proposed an amendment during the process providing that the Resolution cover military officers on loan to a civilian agency (such as the Central [\*991] Intelligence Agency). n184 This amendment was dropped after encountering pushback, n185 but the debate revolved around whether those military individuals on loan to the civilian agency were still members of the armed forces for the purposes of the WPR, suggesting that Congress considered the term to apply only to soldiers in the armed forces. Further, during the congressional hearings, the question of deployment of "armed forces" centered primarily on past U.S. deployment of troops to combat zones, n186 suggesting that Congress conceptualized "armed forces" to mean U.S. combat troops.

The broad purpose of the Resolution aimed to prevent the large-scale but unauthorized deployments of U.S. troops into hostilities. n187 While examining the broad purpose of a legislative act is increasingly relied upon only after examining the text and legislative history, here it provides further support for those two alternate interpretive sources. n188 As one scholar has noted, "the War Powers Resolution, for example, is concerned with sending U.S. troops into harm's way." n189 The historical context of the War Powers Resolution is also important in determining its broad purpose; as the resolutions submitted during the Vietnam War and in the lead-up to the passage of the WPR suggest, Congress was concerned about its ability to effectively regulate the President's deployments of large numbers of U.S. troops to Southeast Asia, n190 as well as prevent the President from authorizing troop incursions into countries in that region. n191 The WPR was a reaction to the President's continued deployments of these troops into combat zones, and as such suggests that Congress's broad purpose was to prevent the unconstrained deployment of U.S. personnel, not weapons, into hostilities.

This analysis suggests that, when defining the term "armed forces," Congress meant members of the armed forces who would be placed in [\*992] harm's way (i.e., into hostilities or imminent hostilities). Applied to offensive cyber operations, such a definition leads to the conclusion that the War Powers Resolution likely does not cover such activities. Worms, viruses, and kill switches are clearly not U.S. troops. Therefore, the key question regarding whether the WPR can govern cyber operations is not whether the operation is conducted independently or as part of a kinetic military operation. Rather, the key question is the delivery mechanism. For example, if military forces were deployed to launch the cyberattack, such an activity, if it were related to imminent hostilities with a foreign country, could trigger the WPR. This seems unlikely, however, for two reasons. First, it is unclear whether small-scale deployments where the soldiers are not participating or under threat of harm constitute the introduction of armed forces into hostilities under the War Powers Resolution. n192 Thus, individual operators deployed to plant viruses in particular enemy systems may not constitute armed forces introduced into hostilities or imminent hostilities. Second, such a tactical approach seems unlikely. If the target system is remote access, the military can attack it without placing personnel in harm's way. n193 If it is close access, there exist many other effective ways to target such systems. n194 As a result, unless U.S. troops are introduced into hostilities or imminent hostilities while deploying offensive cyber capabilities - which is highly unlikely - such operations will not trigger the War Powers Resolution.

IV. The Intelligence Authorization Act: Covert Actions and the Traditional Military Activities Exemption

Stemming from similar tension noted in the constitutional division of war-making authority noted above, congressional oversight of covert actions beyond intelligence collection has often proved a point of contention between the executive and legislative branches. n195 Presidents have "inferred authority [to conduct covert actions] from such places as the Vesting Clause, the Commander-in-Chief Clause, the Treaty Clause, and from an implied executive privilege." n196

[\*993] Likewise, Congress attempted to rein in the President's ability to conduct covert operations without oversight by implementing a series of laws that required the President to get approval before undertaking such activities. n197 If the President did not provide such notification, Congress could decline to fund that particular covert activity. n198 Following the revelation that widespread, unreported covert actions were undertaken during the Vietnam War, Congress moved for stricter control of executive power, both by forcing the executive to account for the money it was spending as part of annual authorization bills n199 and by streamlining its own oversight capability by tasking two primary committees, the House Permanent Select Committee on Intelligence and the Senate Select Committee on Intelligence, with oversight. n200

While Congress designed this legislation to rein in the President's power to conduct covert activities without oversight, events in the 1980s clearly showed that its efforts had been ineffective. n201 In particular, the Iran-Contra affair illustrated that Congress needed to substantially reform oversight legislation to ensure that it could properly monitor executive covert action. n202 As a result, in 1990, Congress began drafting a new oversight bill, [\*994] the Intelligence Authorization Act of 1991, which grants Congress oversight of covert activities. n203 Section 413b of the Intelligence Authorization Act provides,

To the extent consistent with due regard for the protection from unauthorized disclosure of classified information relating to sensitive intelligence sources and methods or other exceptionally sensitive matters, the Director of Central Intelligence and the heads of all departments, agencies, and entities of the United States Government involved in a covert action ... shall keep the [congressional] intelligence committees fully and currently informed of all covert actions ... . n204

The Act further provides that the President must ensure that any covert action that falls under the scope of the Act is reported to Congress "as soon as possible after such approval and before the initiation of the covert action" n205 unless "the President determines that it is essential to limit access to the finding to meet extraordinary circumstances affecting vital interests of the United States." n206 Moreover, if the President does not fully inform the intelligence committees prior to the action, he or she "shall fully inform the [congressional] intelligence committees in a timely fashion and shall provide a statement of the reasons for not giving prior notice." n207

Congress, recognizing that the power of the statute turned - to a substantial degree - on the definition of covert action, provided guidance both in the legislation and the committee reports as to what the term meant. According to the statute, "the term "covert action' means an activity or activities of the United States Government to influence political, economic, or military conditions abroad, where it is intended that the role of the United States Government will not be apparent or acknowledged publicly." n208 Congress also provided a list of exceptions to the term, however, specifically noting that, inter alia, "activities the primary purpose of [\*995] which is to acquire intelligence, traditional counterintelligence activities, traditional activities to improve or maintain the operational security of United States Government programs, or administrative activities," as well as "traditional diplomatic or military activities or routine support to such activities," do not constitute covert action. n209

While an initial textual reading of these exceptions - especially traditional military activities ("TMAs") - suggests that they are extremely broad, an examination of the Act's legislative history suggests that they are narrower than they first appear. In particular, as University of Texas law professor Robert Chesney notes, the Senate Select Committee on Intelligence's ("SSCI") committee report associated with the legislation,

went on to make clear that the SSCI assumed that U.S. government responsibility "would be apparent or acknowledged at the time of the military operation.' When that was not the case - i.e. when "military elements not identifiable to the United States [are] used to carry out an operation abroad without ever being acknowledged by the United States" - the operation would not constitute TMA. n210

This original understanding led to an odd result, whereby "the TMA exemption did no work, as the definition of covert action already excluded operations in which the U.S. role was intended to be acknowledged." n211 To remedy this issue, the committees proposed, and President Bush ultimately accepted, n212 a compromise whereby an unacknowledged operation could fall under the traditional military activities exemption by meeting two requirements: n213 first, the TMA must be commanded and executed by military personnel; and second, the TMA must take place in a context in which overt hostilities are either ongoing or anticipated, meaning approval has been given by the National Command Authority (which consists of the President and the Secretary of Defense) for the activities and for the operational planning for hostilities. n214 Further, according to Chesney, "operational planning can and normally will begin far earlier than the eve of conflict or even the eve of a deployment in anticipation of combat... . The "operational planning' standard ... is not nearly as restrictive ... as the casual reader might assume." n215

[\*996]

A. The Intelligence Authorization Act as Applied to Offensive Cyber Operations

Given the language of the statute and the elaboration on its language provided by the legislative history, would offensive cyber operations - either used independently or in conjunction with a military campaign - trigger the notification requirements of the Intelligence Authorization Act? Looking first at cyber operations used prior to - or in conjunction with - military campaigns, the President would not need to report these to Congress under § 413b. Interestingly, depending on how the United States decides to conduct its offensive cyber operations, they may not even constitute covert actions under 413b, before even reaching the question of whether they fall under the exemptions. The statute's definition of covert actions requires that the United States not intend its role be "apparent or acknowledged publicly." n216 If, for example, the United States were to launch an attack using proxy forces - similar to the alleged Russian attack against Georgia in the 2008 war - it would likely constitute a covert action because the United States would be attempting to hide its role. Conversely, in the Israeli case, Israel likely did not intend for its computer attack against Syrian air defenses to remain hidden; indeed, by the overall attack's public nature, it seemed likely that information about the cyberattack preceding the military strike would be revealed. Likewise, if the United States in the lead-up to the Libya intervention had launched a cyberattack against the Libyan air defense network, it might also have failed to constitute covert action because of the likelihood that the third party observers would understand that a cyberattack occurred. Further, in the Israeli case and the Libya hypothetical, Israel and the United States clearly did not intend to hide their roles, as they followed the cyberattacks (or considered attacks) by openly striking targets within those countries.

If the United States did intend to hide a cyberattack, even though it was part of a larger military operation, such an attack would likely fall into the "traditional diplomatic or military activities or routine support to such activities" exception provided in the statute. n217 To qualify as a traditional military activity, the TMA must be commanded and executed by military personnel and take place in a context in which overt hostilities are either ongoing or anticipated, meaning approval has been given by the National Command Authority for the activities and for the operational planning for hostilities. n218 Given that the National Security Agency, responsible for the development and deployment of U.S. cyber capabilities, is co-housed and [\*997] extensively shares personnel with U.S. Cyber Command, the military command tasked with launching cyberattacks against adversaries, it seems likely that any such attack will satisfy the first prong of the test. n219

Regarding the second prong, cyber operations conducted prior to, or in conjunction with, military operations may also take place in a context in which overt hostilities are either ongoing or anticipated. First, using the Russian activities in the 2008 war with Georgia as the basis for a factual hypothetical, if the United States were to conduct similar operations parallel to kinetic operations, such activity would be taking place in the context of overt hostilities. Though the level of hostilities is important in determining whether "overt hostilities" exist, n220 a Georgian-style conflict would likely trigger this exception. n221 Though one might argue, as the Obama administration did in the 2011 Libyan intervention, that its actions did not constitute hostilities (and therefore did not trigger the War Powers Resolution's reporting requirement), that argument does not hold force here because the Obama Administration was referring to the period after United States airmen were engaging in direct strikes against Libyan ground forces (and after all of Libya's air defenses were effectively destroyed). n222 By inference, the period in which U.S. forces were striking Libyan targets did constitute hostilities. Therefore, these cyber operations, used in conjunction with military operations, would likely fall under the TMA exception.

If the cyberattacks were used prior to the commencement of hostilities (for example if the United States launched OCOs to disable Libya's air defense network), they would also likely fall under the language of the exception because the National Command Authority would have given approval both for the activities and operational planning for the hostilities. While this might seem like a high burden, National Command Authority consists only of the President and the Secretary of Defense. n223 Thus the [\*998] President and the Secretary of Defense must only approve the activities in anticipation of overt hostilities. Further, because operational planning can simply constitute planning for a "situation that likely would involve military forces in response to natural and man-made disasters, terrorists, subversives, military operations by foreign powers, or other situations as directed by the President or SecDef," n224 National Command Authority for operational planning does not require the President and the Secretary of Defense to prepare to commence overt hostilities, but rather they can simply conduct contingency planning for a wide range of scenarios. Further, in a circumstance where the United States is prepared to actively intervene in another country, such as Libya, it would be clear that overt hostilities are anticipated, even in circumstances where overt hostilities are not imminent. In such a scenario, the President is merely considering future action and planning accordingly, and thus such offensive cyber operations would likely fall under the Traditional Military Activities exception.

Offensive cyber operations might also be exempt under the routine support exception. If the activity is "routine support" to "traditional diplomatic or military activities," it does not constitute covert action. n225 Though the legislation does not define "routine," the Senate committee suggested it involved a subjective element and that providing pertinent examples might be useful. n226 According to the committee, the term "would include various forms of logistical support that might be useful in placing personnel inside a denied area and enabling them to act without detection, including false documents, communications gear, safe houses, transportation, and information." n227 Interestingly, these examples seem to reference support to covert activities, not necessarily traditional military activities (i.e. helping to facilitate individuals to act without detection). However, if these activities are meant to support traditional military activities, then the language seems likely to encompass cyberattacks in preparation for military attacks against a target. For example, if the United States had launched OCOs against Libya to disable its air defense network in preparation of an allied air attack, this might be similar to aiding personnel in gaining access to a denied area (in this case, the personnel would be U.S. aircraft and the associated crewmen and the denied area would be airspace denied because of the defenses protecting it). While ambiguity certainly exists as to whether such a cyber operation would constitute routine support, [\*999] offensive cyber operations conducted prior to - or in conjunction with - kinetic operations likely do fall under the covert action exemption.

Likewise, offensive cyber operations conducted independently of military operations, though likely constituting covert action, are also likely exempt under the Traditional Military Activities exception. Imagine, for example, that the United States launched the Stuxnet worm that attacked Iran's nuclear enrichment capabilities without Israeli involvement. Further imagine that all other facts in the case were the same as they are in reality (i.e. the United States denied its involvement in the attack). In such a case, the attack seems to constitute a covert action that requires reporting to the congressional intelligence committees because it was an activity to influence political conditions (i.e. the Iranian ability or decision to develop its nuclear program) or military conditions (i.e. preventing the Iranians from moving forward with the development of a nuclear weapon, which could substantially bolster their military capability) abroad. n228 Further, the United States did not intend for its role to be apparent or publicly acknowledged. n229

Despite falling into this category, however, such an offensive operation, for the reasons discussed above, likely satisfies the congressional test for a traditional military activity. First, because General Alexander is the commander of both CYBERCOM and the head of the National Security Agency and because many of the personnel are dual-hatted at the respective organizations, any offensive cyber operation conducted independently of a kinetic assault will be commanded and executed by military personnel. n230 Second, because the President can launch offensive cyber operations without congressional notification if they are in anticipation of hostilities, n231 he also has great flexibility in deciding whether to report his activities. For example, if the President were to order the launch of a Stuxnet-style attack against Iran to degrade its nuclear enrichment capability, such an activity would - assuming it was done with the Secretary of Defense's consent - necessarily constitute approval by the National Command Authority. In addition, because the definition of operational planning - another element required in fulfilling the TMA exception to the definition of covert action - is so broad, such an attack would likely fall within its purview. The President would simply argue that approval has been given for operational planning of future combat operations with Iran (which it almost certainly has in the U.S. military) n232 and therefore the activity was taking place in the context where [\*1000] overt hostilities are anticipated. Indeed, only in a situation where no contingency planning has occurred - such as with an ally or a country that the United States takes little interest - would this exception not apply.

As a result, it becomes evident that even a Stuxnet-type of attack likely will not trigger the requirements set forth in the Intelligence Authorization Act. Given the dual-hatted nature of many NSA and CYBERCOM personnel, as well as the fact that action approved by the President and the Secretary of Defense necessarily constitutes approval by the National Command Authority, all the executive branch must realistically show is that it undertook the operation in a context where operational planning had occurred for potential hostilities at some undefined point in the future. This hurdle is very low and the executive should have little problem clearing it.

These limited requirements suggest that the executive can easily argue that offensive cyber operations conducted both as independent actions and in conjunction with kinetic operations likely fall under the Traditional Military Activity exception to the definition of covert action as provided by the Intelligence Authorization Act. As a result, the President is likely not statutorily required to report any offensive cyberattacks under the Act.

V. A Middle Ground of Legal Oversight

This analysis suggests that, given inherent weaknesses in the underlying statutory schemes, excluding offensive cyber operations from their scope does not substantially shift the balance of war-making authority between the President and Congress. This exclusion does, however, provide the President additional, powerful means by which to conduct military action without congressional oversight.

Based on analysis of the War Powers Resolution, the lack of oversight for OCOs does not radically shift the balance between the legislative and executive branches' war-making authority. Most notably, because the War Powers Resolution itself has proven ineffective in providing Congress with a powerful tool to govern presidential use of force, bringing OCOs under the War Powers Resolution's statutory umbrella likely would not provide the possibility of such oversight. However, insofar as the President has increasingly turned to covert action since the passage of the War Powers Resolution to avoid its reporting requirements, n233 offensive cyber operations [\*1001] provide the President another means by which to continue this trend. OCOs therefore may give the President substantially more flexibility than he already has under the War Powers Resolution by adding what will become an increasingly frequent tool of warfare to his option-set.

The lack of congressional oversight of offensive cyber operations under the Intelligence Authorization Act also likely does not seriously shift the balance between congressional and executive war-making powers. The reason is inherent in the limitations of the legislation itself: the Intelligence Authorization Act specifies reporting requirements, but does not require the non-use or withdrawal of forces. n234 Further, these reports must be made in a "timely" fashion (the definition of which is undefined) and only to a small number of Congressmen (at most eight). n235 Thus even if the President had to report offensive cyber operations to Congress, it is unclear he would have to do so in a way that gave Congress an effective check, as these reports would be made only to a small group of Congressmen (who would not be able to share the information, because of its classified nature, with other members of the legislature) and could be done well after the employment of these capabilities. The resulting picture is one of increased presidential flexibility; the War Powers Resolution and the Intelligence Authorization Act - while arguably ineffective in many circumstances - provide increased congressional oversight of presidential war-making actions such as troop deployments and covert actions. Yet these statutes do not cover offensive cyber operations, giving the President an increasingly powerful foreign policy tool outside congressional reach.

Should these statutes be adjusted (or new ones created) that give Congress additional oversight in this area? Two competing desiderata suggest that oversight should be increased, but only to a limited extent. On the one hand, policymakers have suggested that developing strict rules and limitations on the use of offensive cyber operations will handicap the military's ability to quickly and effectively employ these tools in critical situations, such as cyber warfare against adversarial states. n236 According to these arguments, developing red lines that proscribe the use of these capabilities will create reluctance and trepidation among strategists and will lead to disadvantages in combat situations. n237 On the other hand, developing some legal rules is necessary to ensure that, as these cyber [\*1002] capabilities continue to develop, the President does not gain sufficient leverage to substantially tilt the balance between the President and Congress. Moreover, because these capabilities are still developing at a fast rate, understanding how they should and should not be employed is an important goal and having senior members of Congress and their staffs - professional staff members on the intelligence committees, who likely have substantial experience in these areas - provide input would be useful in developing this understanding.

These **competing arguments** - one for limiting any oversight and one for increasing it - **suggest a** middle ground **that will avoid drawing red lines but will still provide useful** congressional insight into the doctrinal and legal development **of offensive cyber operations**. Such an approach would include new legislation, similar to the Intelligence Authorization Act, explicitly requiring the President to report its use of covert cyber activities to the heads of Senate and House intelligence committees (i.e. the Gang of Eight). n238 Congress would not have the ability to veto such actions, however it would be able to raise potential legal issues with the executive branch, as well as provide policy advice as to the wisdom of employing these capabilities in such circumstances. As a result, while the heads of these committees would not have the ability to draw red lines themselves, they would be able to consult with the executive branch - as the branch employs these capabilities - to determine their likely legality and wisdom. While the President could ignore this advice, such an approach would at the very least keep Congress informed of the developing capabilities and their employment. With such an approach, Congress could play a meaningful role in the shifting and uncertain legal and policy realms of offensive cyber operations, which will undoubtedly become increasingly important as the United States and other nations develop and employ these capabilities with ever-greater frequency.

That builds deterrence regimes – promotes international attention to implement norms

Lieberthal & Singer 12 (Kenneth G. Lieberthal - Director @ John L. Thornton China Center & Senior Fellow of Foreign Policy and Global Economy and Development @ Brookings Peter W. Singer -- Director @ 21st Century Defense Initiative & Senior Fellow of Foreign Policy @ Brookings, “ Cybersecurity and U.S.-China Relations” February 23, 2012, Brookings Institution)

Cyber war, like cyber crime, is a realm in which there may be real gains for all players to come to agreement on what actions might risk gen erating a wider conflict. This is useful not only for each side to know, so as to avoid investing in and using capabilities that would unintentionally escalate a crisis, but also to try to generate certain norms and implementing mechanisms to take such risky actions “off the table.” Any such agreements—and even the process of negotiating them— can increase mutual understanding, decrease distrust, and make each country less inclined to react precipitously to any indication of danger.

The Cold War provides examples of the problem of lack of clarity in such “red lines” of behavior. In 1962, the U.S. and USSR had not effectively communicated to each other their red lines on where nuclear weapons might be located and what behavior would trigger escalation. That is, neither side was happy about the other developing such capabilities, but each side unintentionally deployed them in a manner (the U.S. putting missiles into Turkey and the Soviets into Cuba) that raised the level of tension and provoked a reaction well past what they expected. The outcome was the Cuban Missile Crisis, where competition moved into destabilization and near thermonuclear war.

Today, the U.S. and Chinese doctrines in cyber space are quite similar in their deliberate vagueness and, indeed, quite parallel to the situation in the late 1950s and 60s. For example, the U.S. Defense Department cyber strategy published in 2011 announced a new doctrine, arguing that harmful action within the cyber domain can be met with a parallel response in another domain. 73 This has come to be known as “equiva lence.” 74 Aiming for such flexibility is certainly sensible from one angle, but problems emerge when it is weighed through the lens of a competition between two states. Substitute the words “conventional” and “nuclear” for “cyber” and “kinetic” and the new doctrine is fundamentally similar to the 1960s nuclear deterrence doctrine of “flexible response” that possibly helped lead to the Cuban crisis. The Chinese cyber strategy is even more opaque, much like the Soviet nuclear strategy was to U.S. leaders at the time.

Coming to such agreements on red lines of behavior is surprisingly possible even in the most contentious realms. For example, much of the pernicious state-sponsored activity in the cyber realm today is related in some way to espionage. But even at the height of the Cold War, the CIA and KGB were able to come to an informal set of agreements to avoid certain types of behavior. Neither side liked the other stealing secrets from it, but the two agencies were able to communicate a set of activities and targets that were to be avoided by both in order to keep their competition in the espionage realm from escalating into some thing more serious. 75

In short, no one should expect all disagreements to be easily resolved or the two sides to give up their core interests or values, nor that certain codes of conduct won’t change as situations evolve. Rather, the goal is to communicate one’s interests and values effectively. Many believe that this will actually be in each party’s own interest, as it will aid their respective deterrence strategies. As General James Cartwright (ret.), former Vice Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, and one of the key figures in the development of U.S. cybersecurity strategy, notes, “You can’t have something that’s a secret be a deterrent. Because if you don’t know it’s there, it doesn’t scare you.” 76

Most importantly, it will clarify to each side the paths of behavior that will be viewed as egregious and provoke serious tension and responses that neither side wishes to see happen. That is, even if no formal agreement is possible, there is great value in having serious discussion to start the process of communicating each side’s “red lines,” what they would view as unacceptable behavior in the cyber realm that could lead rapidly to a crisis. This discussion is important in that it will inform the policymakers that there are legitimate concerns on each side and potentially provide some clarity on prospective escalation paths that can then be avoided.

There is also a critical potential side benefit of such a discussion about red lines and escalation paths. It can also promote healthy attention to the issue within each government. It will allow leaders to better under stand not just what the other side is thinking but also what their own agencies and related non-state entities might be doing and the potential consequences. This is something that most senior policymakers on both sides are not sufficiently focused on at present.

Plans consistent legal standards ensure successful norms while retaining policy flexibility

Bradbury 11 (Stephen, Partner, Dechert, LLP, “KEYNOTE ADDRESS: The Developing Legal Framework for Defensive and Offensive Cyber Operations” 2011, Harvard National Security Journal Symposium, Cybersecurity: Law, Privacy, and Warfare in a Digital World, 2 Harv. Nat'l Sec. J. 591)

Evolving customary law. This approach also accommodates the reality that how the U.S. chooses to use its armed forces will significantly influence the development of customary international law.

As the label implies, customary law can evolve depending on the accepted conduct of major nations like the United States. **The real-world practice of the U**nited **S**tates **in adapting the use of its military to** the new challenges raised by **computer warfare will** (and should) help **clarify the accepted customs of war in areas where the limits are not clearly established today.**

And if you just review the literature on cyber war, you quickly see that that's where we are: precisely how the laws and customs of war should apply to offensive cyber operations is not yet crystallized in key respects.

For example, there aren't always bright lines to tell us when a cyber attack on computer systems constitutes an "armed attack" or a "use of force" that justifies a nation in launching a responsive military strike under Article 51 of the U.N. Charter.

Some questions are easy: Hacking into a sensitive government computer system to steal information is an act of espionage, not an armed attack. It's clearly not prohibited by the laws and customs of war.

On the other hand, if the cyber intrusion inflicts significant physical destruction or loss of life by causing the failure of critical infrastructure, like a dam or water supply system, then it obviously would constitute an armed attack under the law of war and would justify a full military response if it could be attributed to a foreign power. Where committed as an offensive act of aggression, such an attack may violate international law.

[\*608] If significant enough, the effect of the attack will determine its treatment, not necessarily whether the attack is delivered through computer lines as opposed to conventional weapons systems. In these cases, the laws and customs of war provide a clear rule to apply.

But there will be gray areas in the middle. Thus, it's far less clear that a computer assault that's limited to deleting or corrupting data or temporarily disabling or disrupting a computer network or some specific equipment associated with the network in a way that's not life threatening or widely destructive should be considered a use of force justifying military retaliation, even if the network belongs to the military or another government agency.

This was the case with the "distributed denial of service" attacks experienced by Estonia in 2007, which severely disrupted the country's banking and communications systems. Suspecting that Russia was behind it, Estonia suggested that NATO declare that Estonia's sovereignty had been attacked, which would have triggered the collective self-defense article of the NATO Treaty, but that suggestion was rebuffed on the ground that a cyber attack is not a clear military action. n12

There's an echo of that reasoning in Article 41 of the U.N. Charter, which says that a "complete or partial interruption of economic relations and of rail, sea, air, postal, telegraphic, radio, and other means of communications" is not a "measure . . . involving armed force."

And what about Stuxnet? As I understand it from public reports, Stuxnet was a computer worm that found its way into the systems controlling Iran's nuclear program and gave faulty commands causing the destruction of the centrifuges used for enriching uranium. Suppose President Ahmadinejad claimed that Israel was behind the Stuxnet worm and claimed that Stuxnet constituted an armed attack on Iran that justified a military response against Israel. I suspect the United States would disagree.

At the same time, when it comes to a cyber attack directed against U.S. computer systems, I certainly want the President to have leeway in determining whether or not to treat the attack as a use of force that supports [\*609] military retaliation. Making such judgments is a traditional power exercised by the President, and I think he retains that leeway.

Similarly, I submit, it's not clearly established that a cyber attack aimed at disrupting a server or Web site located in a neutral country or in a country outside a theater of open hostilities would be a violation of that country's neutrality.

The server might be a valid military target because it's being used for the communications or command and control of the enemy fighters in the area of hostilities (after all, al Qaeda regularly uses the Internet in planning and ordering operations). The server might have no connection to the host country's military, government, or critical infrastructure, and it might be readily targeted for a computer attack without inflicting widespread damage on unrelated systems used for civilian purposes.

Such a focused cyber operation -- with little physical impact beyond the destruction of data or the crippling of a server -- is very different from the kind of physical violation of territory -- such as a conventional troop incursion or a kinetic bombing raid -- that we ordinarily think of as constituting an affront to neutrality. n13

Although every server has a physical location, the Internet is not segmented along national borders, and the enemy may gain greater tactical advantage from a server hosted half way around the world than from one located right in the middle of hostilities.

The targeting of a server in a third country may well raise significant diplomatic difficulties (and I wouldn't minimize those), **but I don't think the law-of-war principle of neutrality** categorically **precludes the President from authorizing such an operation by an execute order to Cyber Command**.

Conclusion. So here's my thesis: To my view, the lack of clarity on certain of these issues under international law means that with respect to those issues, the President is free to decide, as a policy matter, where and [\*610] how the lines should be drawn on the limits of traditional military power in the sphere of cyberspace. For example, that means that within certain parameters, the President could decide when and to what extent military cyber operations may target computers located outside areas of hot fighting that the enemy is using for military advantage. And when a cyber attack is directed at us, the President can decide, as a matter of national policy, whether and when to treat it as an act of war.

The corollary to all this is that in situations where the customs of war, in fact, are not crystallized, the lawyers at the State Department and the Justice Department shouldn't make up new red lines -- out of some aspirational sense of what they think international law ought to be -- that end up putting dangerous limitations on the options available to the United States. Certainly, the advice of lawyers is always important, especially so where the legal lines are established or firmly suggested. No one would contend that the laws of war have no application to cyber operations or that cyberspace is a law-free zone. But it's not the role of the lawyers to make up new lines that don't yet exist in a way that preempts the development of policy. n14

In the face of this lack of clarity on key questions, some advocate for the negotiation of a new international convention on cyberwarfare -- perhaps a kind of arms control agreement for cyber weapons. I believe there is no foreseeable prospect that that will happen. Instead, the outlines of [\*611] accepted norms and limitations in this area will develop through the practice of leading nations. And **the policy decisions made by the U**nited **S**tates in response to particular events will have great influence in shaping those international norms. I think that's the way we should want it to work.

One final admonition I'll offer on the topic of offensive cyber operations: In cases where the President shapes new policy by choosing military action over covert action for a cyber operation, or vice versa, I would strongly urge that the President fully brief both sets of committees in Congress -- the Intelligence Committees and the Armed Services Committees -- and explain the basis for the choice. It's inevitable the committees will find out anyway when a jurisdictional marker is crossed, and it will help smooth the development of consistent policies and standards for the committee members and staff to understand and appreciate the choices made on both sides of the question.

## convergence adv

Advantage two is convergence

Congressional oversight gaps cause confusion and executive fights --- hampers cyber counterterror

Brennan 12 (Lt Colonel John – US Army, “United States Counter Terrorism Cyber Law and Policy, Enabling or Disabling?” 15 March 2012, Civilian Research Project; U.S. Army War College)

Although indentifying international terrorists in cyberspace is critical to successful counterterrorism operations, it is only half of the battle in bringing them to justice. Monitoring terrorists’ electronic communications is extremely important, but further work is required by the CT community to isolate, and eventually kill or capture the terrorists overseas. Manipulation or disruption of a terrorist organization’s computer networks is a potential means to this end, and it is also a possible tactic that is employed to preempt a cyber or kinetic terrorist attack.37 The laws that govern the actual manipulation of terrorists’ electronic accounts and devices in order to make them more targetable, are not explicit or simply do not exist. The primary document that gives the President of the United States the authority to conduct offensive CT cyber operations overseas is the 2001 Authorization of the Use of Military Force, which gives the president the authority to “use all necessary and appropriate force” to protect the country for further attacks.38 The extrapolation of this authority which permits the targeting of al-Qa’ida and its adherents, was employed in order to legally kill Anwar al Awlaki (an American citizen) in Yemen, and was invoked in permitting the planned (but not executed) computer network attack against his online magazine, Inspire.39

Regardless of these authorities, General Keith B. Alexander, the Commander of U. S. Cyber Command, has expressed similar misgivings as Mr. O’Connell in response to Congressional inquiries concerning the efficacy of cyber laws. During his confirmation hearings that resulted in his appointment to the post of the commander of U. S. Cyber Command in 2010, General Alexander stated that there is a, “mismatch between our technical capabilities to conduct operations and the governing laws and policies.”40

When he assumed the mantle of command of this first-ever joint and interagency cyber unit, General Alexander retained his title and position as the Director of the National Security Agency (DIRNSA). This dual command role placed him in the unique position to not only locate and intercept enemy internet communications, but to also conduct computer network attacks on the terrorists’ networks as well.41 The essence of this new command permits a more efficient cyber warfare capability which can theoretically operate seamlessly under both Titles 10 and 50 of the U. S. Code.42

With over 1.8 billion Internet users and 4.6 billion cellular phone subscribers who generate approximately 90 trillion emails per annum, the establishment of U. S. Cyber Command from within the NSA was an extremely useful beginning.43 A subordinate command to the United States Strategic Command (USSTRATCOM), Cyber Command was delegated Title 10 authority over military operations in cyberspace.44 On the other hand, Cyber Command also possesses the ability to conduct covert actions within cyber space under Title 50.45 This duplicitous legal framework is a result of current cyber policies and can create confusion over who is permitted to actually authorize a cyber operation.46 In the end, this policy friction can translate into delays while the required approvals are garnered, and could result in missing a fleeting opportunity to kill or capture a terrorist.

U. S. Computer Network Operations Policy

As a matter of current U. S. policy, the decision to label a computer network operation (CNO) as a traditional military activity (TMA), thereby falling under the purview of Title 10 of the United States Code (USC), or as a covert action under Title 50 of the USC, has spurred a great deal of discussion at the highest levels of the U. S. Government.47 Although cyber warfare is only one aspect of the overall current Title 10/50 debate that is raging within Congress and the various departments within the executive branch, one cannot legitimately discuss the policies that govern the approvals to conduct CNOs without touching upon this current source of friction.48 Much of the policy concerning the details of computer network operations is classified, but is gaining in importance such that many policy experts are speaking about it, some albeit from under the cloak of anonymity.49 As Andru E. Wall suggests, the confusion over Title 10 and Title 50 authorities appears to have, “…more to do with congressional oversight and its attendant internecine power struggles than with operational or statutory authorities,” despite the fact that by design, Title 10 and 50 authorities are mutually supporting and were not intended to be competing.50 Retired Admiral Dennis C. Blair (former ODNI) proclaimed that, “This infuriating business about who’s in charge and who gets to call the shots is just making us look muscle-bound.” ADM Blair went on to bemoan the “over-legalistic” approach to CT cyber--despite the fact that current cyber laws are woefully inadequate to address the, …”complexity of the global information network.”51(Wall 2011101)

Current media reports indicate that the use of specially-designed cyber tools in order to target states or non-state actors requires presidential approval. An example of this approval policy was seen last year when media reports indicated that the Stuxnet cyber-worm was allegedly implanted in an Iranian nuclear facility, an act that American military cyber warriors will not publicly confirm.52 This computer virus subtly attacked the computers that controlled the enormous Iranian nuclear centrifuges and caused them to self-destruct. Although the Stuxnet infestation in Natanz was a major attack with immense international political consequences, media reporting suggests that less contentious operations against terrorists’ computer networks have taken on a similarly hierarchical approval process, even though these computer network operations support the local war fighters in Afghanistan or Iraq.53 For instance, in the early years of the Iraq war, numerous attempts to hack into terrorists’ email accounts and send erroneous information from them, in order to expose other members of AQI or cause potential organizational rifts was strictly forbidden without the approval of the CENTCOM Commander.54

The reasoning behind this elevated approval policy centers upon the fact that terrorists frequently use American or allied internet service providers (ISPs) to access and manipulate the internet during the conduct of their own cyber operations.55 The consequences of this arrangement, which could ultimately involve the U. S. Government manipulating an American or allied server network in order affect a terrorist organization, makes many national leaders leery of employing the capability in the first place.56

The ongoing debate between elements of the DoD, who feel that certain cyber operations are a traditional military activity and should be governed by the laws of armed conflict and Title 10 of the U.S. Code, and leaders within the Intelligence Community (IC) who contend that any and all cyber operations are inherently covert and should be under the purview of Title 50, shows no signs of abating. An example of this conundrum occurred in June, 2010 when the U. S. was allegedly contemplating a cyber attack on Insipire Magazine.57 The U. K.’s GCHQ Intelligence Service actually conducted an attack, dubbed “Operation Cupcake” while the CIA and Cyber Command were reportedly still haggling over whether attacking the site was a traditional military activity (TMA), thereby considered a Title 10 action, or a covert action under Title 50.58 Although this operation had little kinetic effect, it was disruptive as GCHQ managed to effectively replace the bomb-making recipes on the Inspire site with actual cupcake baking recipes.59 The delay caused by the policy debate within the executive branch ultimately led to a missed opportunity. The effect of a potential delay could have been much more significant had the stakes been higher, particularly if the purpose of the proposed CT cyber operation was to thwart an impending attack.60

Another potential genesis for the policy debate is the inconsistent verbiage used between the Military and the IC when categorizing operations in cyberspace. For example, if any data within an enemy computer network is modified, then the operation is labeled a Computer Network Attack (CNA) by the military.61 The IC considers data manipulation as an Offensive Cyber Operation (OCO), a title which is much more palatable to CT lawyers than the term Computer Network Attack, even though the intent and outcome of the operations are identical.62 The differences between these labels are frequently referenced in policy debates, which ultimately slow down the process of finding and interdicting terrorists.

Effective cyber CT key to prevent multiple scenarios for terrorism

Brennan 12 (Lt Colonel John – US Army, “United States Counter Terrorism Cyber Law and Policy, Enabling or Disabling?” 15 March 2012, Civilian Research Project; U.S. Army War College)

As Al-Qa’ida and its affiliates and adherents have evolved into much more technically savvy terrorist organizations, their ability to threaten to U. S. National Security has likewise increased. The divergence between American national strategies, laws, and policies that govern counterterrorism (CT) operations within cyberspace has hampered the efforts of U. S. CT professionals to keep pace with the transformation of transnational terrorist organizations into more cyber-enabled threats.

Counterterrorism is defined as, “Actions taken directly against terrorist networks and indirectly to influence and render global and regional environments inhospitable to terrorist networks.”2 Due to terrorists’ heavy reliance on cyberspace, it is an operational environment which CT professionals must simultaneously dominate, and effectively deny to these shadowy groups in order to defeat them. CT cyber strategies, law, and policies provide the framework through which CT cyber professionals execute their assigned operations.

Of considerable concern is the fact that current U. S. CT cyber policies are not necessarily completely sourced in domestic or international law, and they inhibit American CT professionals from efficiently implementing the very strategies which they are charged to execute. **These restrictive and hierarchical CT cyber policies clearly hinder the ability of** strategic and operational-level military **commanders who are deployed** in support of Overseas Contingency Operations (OCO) **to manipulate cyberspace to their greatest advantage**.

In 2010 General David Petraeus, then Commander of United States Central Command (USCENTCOM) accurately described the degree to which al-Qa’ida was operating with impunity in cyberspace to finance, command, and recruit its forces.3 The tactical and operational commanders subordinate to General Petraeus in Iraq and Afghanistan often lamented that they were permitted to drop two-thousand pound bombs on terrorists’ homes, but were forced to request from USCENTCOM Headquarters, or even the Secretary of Defense, the approval to attack or manipulate terrorists’ computer networks.4 This dichotomous situation flies in the face of logic and is caused by a trifurcated divergence between: what is expected of military CT professionals in order kill or capture terrorists; what is permissible under current CT cyber law; and the current policies that actually govern offensive CT operations in cyberspace.

This work will analyze the current threat posed by international terrorist organizations from within cyberspace, as well as the inconsistencies between current national security, CT and cyber strategies, and the laws, and policies that permit CT professionals to disrupt and degrade international terrorist organizations through the use of the internet. The results of this analysis reveal that current cyber-related counterterrorism policies constrain military CT professionals, and that before CT cyber strategies can be effectively implemented, they must be in holistic alignment with cyber policies and existing statutes. Furthermore, this work proffers several recommendations concerning adjustments to current CT cyber policies that are intended to better enable more efficient CT operations, and ultimately prevent future attacks on America and its interests.

The Nature of the Cyber-terror Threat

There is conclusive and irrefutable evidence that terrorist organizations such as al-Qa’ida in Iraq (AQI) not only recruit, propagandize, coordinate attacks, and finance their activities, but these terror organizations are actively seeking the means to initiate casualty-producing kinetic events using the worldwide web as well.5 Groups such as the Muslim Hackers Club have developed their own software and tutorials in order to sabotage not only U. S. computer networks, but to also seek to cause the physical destruction of key American infrastructure.6 ADM Michael Mullen, then Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff described cyber terrorism as one of two existential threats to U. S. national security, the other being the Russian nuclear threat.7 Additionally, the intelligence community (IC) writ large considers cyber attacks as the most prominent, long-term threat to the country.8 Deputy Secretary of Defense William J. Lynn III similarly suggests that terrorists are seeking to effectively weaponize cyberspace in order to achieve kinetic effects against key U. S. infrastructure.9

Speed matters in stopping potentially calamitous events, and it is of seminal importance as al-Qa’ida and its ilk continue to develop more efficient and effective methods of attack.10 Current trends indicate that terrorist organizations such as Lashkar e-Tayyibah (LeT) and al-Qa’ida in Iraq (AQI) are investing heavily in the education of select members in the fields of computer and electrical engineering.11 Ayman al Zawahiri counseled deceased AQI leader Abu Musab al Zarqawi that half of the battle for Islam should be waged on the internet and he constantly stressed to Zarqawi the importance of digital information operations.12

In order to pay for their operations, terrorist groups have begun to resort to various forms of computer-assisted robbery and identity theft. Cybercrime has become so important to financing their operations, that it now surpasses drug trafficking as a source of income to fund their operations.13 During their investigation into the 2002 Bali bombing by Jemaah Islamiyah, the Indonesian police discovered that the attack was financed through computer credit card fraud.14

More disturbing than terror financing, is the implementation of a worldwide recruiting drive, launched by al-Qa’ida in order to co-opt computer and electrical engineers who already possess advanced degrees from elite universities. Before their demise, Al-Qa’ida in the Arabian Peninsula (AQAP) leaders Anwar al Awlaki and Inspire Magazine editor-in-chief Samir Kahn were posting high-tech want ads in their jihadi circular on the internet in order to elicit acts of terror by homegrown western Muslims. The two also posted numerous want-ads to recruit individuals who possessed high-tech degrees.15 As we shall learn, **the lack of an effective U. S. CT Cyber policy prevented the timely interdiction and/or manipulation of the data on this website--action that could have been used to not only thwart AQAP’s cyber efforts, but could have been used to create physical vulnerabilities within the organization as well.**

The plots that could be hatched by heavily recruited techno-savvy terrorists are especially horrifying. Imagine if you will, the mayhem that could be unleashed by a terrorist, who using the internet, pilots multiple unmanned aircraft armed with explosive, chemical, or biological payloads. A hint of this frightening scenario came to pass when FBI foiled a plot by Rezwan Ferdaus, a young Bangladeshi-American physicist, who was arrested while in the process of developing the means to fly remote-controlled aircraft packed with explosives into the U. S. Capitol and the Pentagon.(Valencia, Milton J. and Ballou, Brian R. 2011, A1) Another terrifying possibility consists of dozens, if not hundreds of improvised explosive devices igniting simultaneously through the instantaneity of the internet. The process of perfecting this method of terrorist attack was proven to be well on its way to fruition, as was evident after the capture of numerous Al-Qa’ida in Iraq (AQI) improvised explosive device (IED) cell members. These individuals were detained while in the possession of hundreds of digital tone multi-frequency (DTMF) boards that were purported to be used to simultaneously initiate multiple IEDs to destroy U. S. and Iraqi security forces.16

Today these potential threats may seem far-fetched to some, but so did the concept of crashing jet airliners into the World Trade Center and the Pentagon prior to September 11th, 2001. These and other cyber-enabled terror plots are unfortunately far from fiction, as their perpetrators were caught in the acts of planning or executing them. The cyber terror threats which emanate from the various international terrorist organizations around the globe are of a seminal concern to U. S. national decision-makers. Though significant, the task of countering these terrorists’ threats within cyberspace is anything but insurmountable, provided that those who are charged with exposing and attacking these networks are given the latitude to act effectively. The concerns of national leaders and their desires to exploit terrorist organizations in cyberspace are clearly evident in the content of numerous past, and current national security strategy documents.

Bioterror causes extinction

Mhyrvold ‘13

Nathan, Began college at age 14, BS and Masters from UCLA, Masters and PhD, Princeton “Strategic Terrorism: A Call to Action,” Working Draft, The Lawfare Research Paper Series

Research paper NO . 2 – 2013

As horrible as this would be, such a pandemic is by no means the worst attack one can imagine, for several reasons. First, most of the classic bioweapons are based on 1960s and 1970s technology because the 1972 treaty halted bioweapons development efforts in the United States and most other Western countries. Second, the Russians, although solidly committed to biological weapons long after the treaty deadline, were never on the cutting edge of biological research. Third and most important, the science and technology of molecular biology have made enormous advances, utterly transforming the field in the last few decades. High school biology students routinely perform molecular-biology manipulations that would have been impossible even for the best superpower-funded program back in the heyday of biological-weapons research. The biowarfare methods of the 1960s and 1970s are now as antiquated as the lumbering mainframe computers of that era. Tomorrow’s terrorists will have vastly more deadly bugs to choose from. Consider this sobering development: in 2001, Australian researchers working on mousepox, a nonlethal virus that infects mice (as chickenpox does in humans), accidentally discovered that a simple genetic modification transformed the virus.10, 11 Instead of producing mild symptoms, the new virus killed 60% of even those mice already immune to the naturally occurring strains of mousepox. The new virus, moreover, was unaffected by any existing vaccine or antiviral drug. A team of researchers at Saint Louis University led by Mark Buller picked up on that work and, by late 2003, found a way to improve on it: Buller’s variation on mousepox was 100% lethal, although his team of investigators also devised combination vaccine and antiviral therapies that were partially effective in protecting animals from the engineered strain.12, 13 Another saving grace is that the genetically altered virus is no longer contagious. Of course, it is quite possible that future tinkering with the virus will change that property, too. Strong reasons exist to believe that the genetic modifications Buller made to mousepox would work for other poxviruses and possibly for other classes of viruses as well. Might the same techniques allow chickenpox or another poxvirus that infects humans to be turned into a 100% lethal bioweapon, perhaps one that is resistant to any known antiviral therapy? I’ve asked this question of experts many times, and no one has yet replied that such a manipulation couldn’t be done. This case is just one example. Many more are pouring out of scientific journals and conferences every year. Just last year, the journal Nature published a controversial study done at the University of Wisconsin–Madison in which virologists enumerated the changes one would need to make to a highly lethal strain of bird flu to make it easily transmitted from one mammal to another.14 Biotechnology is advancing so rapidly that it is hard to keep track of all the new potential threats. Nor is it clear that anyone is even trying. In addition to lethality and drug resistance, many other parameters can be played with, given that the infectious power of an epidemic depends on many properties, including the length of the latency period during which a person is contagious but asymptomatic. Delaying the onset of serious symptoms allows each new case to spread to more people and thus makes the virus harder to stop. This dynamic is perhaps best illustrated by HIV , which is very difficult to transmit compared with smallpox and many other viruses. Intimate contact is needed, and even then, the infection rate is low. The balancing factor is that HIV can take years to progress to AIDS , which can then take many more years to kill the victim. What makes HIV so dangerous is that infected people have lots of opportunities to infect others. This property has allowed HIV to claim more than 30 million lives so far, and approximately 34 million people are now living with this virus and facing a highly uncertain future.15 A virus genetically engineered to infect its host quickly, to generate symptoms slowly—say, only after weeks or months—and to spread easily through the air or by casual contact would be vastly more devastating than HIV . It could silently penetrate the population to unleash its deadly effects suddenly. This type of epidemic would be almost impossible to combat because most of the infections would occur before the epidemic became obvious. A technologically sophisticated terrorist group could develop such a virus and kill a large part of humanity with it. Indeed, terrorists may not have to develop it themselves: some scientist may do so first and publish the details. Given the rate at which biologists are making discoveries about viruses and the immune system, at some point in the near future, someone may create artificial pathogens that could drive the human race to extinction. Indeed, a detailed species-elimination plan of this nature was openly proposed in a scientific journal. The ostensible purpose of that particular research was to suggest a way to extirpate the malaria mosquito, but similar techniques could be directed toward humans.16 When I’ve talked to molecular biologists about this method, they are quick to point out that it is slow and easily detectable and could be fought with biotech remedies. If you challenge them to come up with improvements to the suggested attack plan, however, they have plenty of ideas. Modern biotechnology will soon be capable, if it is not already, of bringing about the demise of the human race— or at least of killing a sufficient number of people to end high-tech civilization and set humanity back 1,000 years or more. That terrorist groups could achieve this level of technological sophistication may seem far-fetched, but keep in mind that it takes only a handful of individuals to accomplish these tasks. Never has lethal power of this potency been accessible to so few, so easily. Even more dramatically than nuclear proliferation, modern biological science has frighteningly undermined the correlation between the lethality of a weapon and its cost, a fundamentally stabilizing mechanism throughout history. Access to extremely lethal agents—lethal enough to exterminate Homo sapiens—will be available to anybody with a solid background in biology, terrorists included.

And nuke terror

Hellman 8 (Martin E. Hellman, emeritus prof of engineering @ Stanford, “Risk Analysis of Nuclear Deterrence” SPRING 2008 THE BENT OF TAU BETA PI, <http://www.nuclearrisk.org/paper.pdf>)

The threat of nuclear terrorism looms much larger in the public’s mind than the threat of a full-scale nuclear war, yet this article focuses primarily on the latter. An explanation is therefore in order before proceeding. A terrorist attack involving a nuclear weapon would be a catastrophe of immense proportions: “A 10-kiloton bomb detonated at Grand Central Station on a typical work day would likely kill some half a million people, and inflict over a trillion dollars in direct economic damage. America and its way of life would be changed forever.” [Bunn 2003, pages viii-ix]. The likelihood of such an attack is also significant. Former Secretary of Defense William Perry has estimated the chance of a nuclear terrorist incident within the next decade to be roughly 50 percent [Bunn 2007, page 15]. David Albright, a former weapons inspector in Iraq, estimates those odds at less than one percent, but notes, “We would never accept a situation where the chance of a major nuclear accident like Chernobyl would be anywhere near 1% .... A nuclear terrorism attack is a low-probability event, but we can’t live in a world where it’s anything but extremely low-probability.” [Hegland 2005]. In a survey of 85 national security experts, Senator Richard Lugar found a median estimate of 20 percent for the “probability of an attack involving a nuclear explosion occurring somewhere in the world in the next 10 years,” with 79 percent of the respondents believing “it more likely to be carried out by terrorists” than by a government [Lugar 2005, pp. 14-15]. I support increased efforts to reduce the threat of nuclear terrorism, but that is not inconsistent with the approach of this article. Because terrorism is one of the potential trigger mechanisms for a full-scale nuclear war, the risk analyses proposed herein will include estimating the risk of nuclear terrorism as one component of the overall risk. If that risk, the overall risk, or both are found to be unacceptable, then the proposed remedies would be directed to reduce which- ever risk(s) warrant attention. Similar remarks apply to a number of other threats (e.g., nuclear war between the U.S. and China over Taiwan). his article would be incomplete if it only dealt with the threat of nuclear terrorism and neglected the threat of full- scale nuclear war. If both risks are unacceptable, an effort to reduce only the terrorist component would leave humanity in great peril. In fact, society’s almost total neglect of the threat of full-scale nuclear war makes studying that risk all the more important. The cosT of World War iii The danger associated with nuclear deterrence depends on both the cost of a failure and the failure rate.3 This section explores the cost of a failure of nuclear deterrence, and the next section is concerned with the failure rate. While other definitions are possible, this article defines a failure of deterrence to mean a full-scale exchange of all nuclear weapons available to the U.S. and Russia, an event that will be termed World War III. Approximately 20 million people died as a result of the first World War. World War II’s fatalities were double or triple that number—chaos prevented a more precise deter- mination. In both cases humanity recovered, and the world today bears few scars that attest to the horror of those two wars. Many people therefore implicitly believe that a third World War would be horrible but survivable, an extrapola- tion of the effects of the first two global wars. In that view, World War III, while horrible, is something that humanity may just have to face and from which it will then have to recover. In contrast, some of those most qualified to assess the situation hold a very different view. In a 1961 speech to a joint session of the Philippine Con- gress, General Douglas MacArthur, stated, “Global war has become a Frankenstein to destroy both sides. … If you lose, you are annihilated. If you win, you stand only to lose. No longer does it possess even the chance of the winner of a duel. It contains now only the germs of double suicide.” Former Secretary of Defense Robert McNamara ex- pressed a similar view: “If deterrence fails and conflict develops, the present U.S. and NATO strategy carries with it a high risk that Western civilization will be destroyed” [McNamara 1986, page 6]. More recently, George Shultz, William Perry, Henry Kissinger, and Sam Nunn4 echoed those concerns when they quoted President Reagan’s belief that nuclear weapons were “totally irrational, totally inhu- mane, good for nothing but killing, possibly destructive of life on earth and civilization.” [Shultz 2007] Official studies, while couched in less emotional terms, still convey the horrendous toll that World War III would exact: “The resulting deaths would be far beyond any precedent. Executive branch calculations show a range of U.S. deaths from 35 to 77 percent (i.e., 79-160 million dead) … a change in targeting could kill somewhere between 20 million and 30 million additional people on each side .... These calculations reflect only deaths during the first 30 days. Additional millions would be injured, and many would eventually die from lack of adequate medical care … millions of people might starve or freeze during the follow- ing winter, but it is not possible to estimate how many. … further millions … might eventually die of latent radiation effects.” [OTA 1979, page 8] This OTA report also noted the possibility of serious ecological damage [OTA 1979, page 9], a concern that as- sumed a new potentiality when the TTAPS report [TTAPS 1983] proposed that the ash and dust from so many nearly simultaneous nuclear explosions and their resultant fire- storms could usher in a nuclear winter that might erase homo sapiens from the face of the earth, much as many scientists now believe the K-T Extinction that wiped out the dinosaurs resulted from an impact winter caused by ash and dust from a large asteroid or comet striking Earth. The TTAPS report produced a heated debate, and there is still no scientific consensus on whether a nuclear winter would follow a full-scale nuclear war. Recent work [Robock 2007, Toon 2007] suggests that even a limited nuclear exchange or one between newer nuclear-weapon states, such as India and Pakistan, could have devastating long-lasting climatic consequences due to the large volumes of smoke that would be generated by fires in modern megacities. While it is uncertain how destructive World War III would be, prudence dictates that we apply the same engi- neering conservatism that saved the Golden Gate Bridge from collapsing on its 50th anniversary and assume that preventing World War III is a necessity—not an option.

Plan bridges the gap in congressional oversight --- resolves confusion

Stevenson 13 (Charles, PhD in Government from Harvard, Professor of American foreign policy at the Nitze School of Advanced International Studies @ Johns Hopkins, former professor at the National War College --- director of the core course on the interagency process for national security policy, worked in the executive branch including service on the Secretary of State’s Policy Planning Staff, and served for 22 years as a Senate staffer on defense and foreign policy, and member of the Project on National Security Reform and headed its working group on Congress, “Overseeing the New Ways of War” March 6, 2013, Roll Call)

There’s a lot of confusion and disagreement over how the government should manage two increasingly important techniques of waging war: drones and cyber-activities.

President Barack Obama’s current counter-terrorism adviser and nominee to head the CIA, John Brennan, says the drone operations should be largely shifted from the CIA to the Pentagon. Some lawmakers want to create a special new court to review targeted killing operations. Meanwhile, Congress has repeatedly failed to agree on how to build cybersecurity domestically, and there is no consensus on what laws should control offensive cyber-operations.

Let me suggest one overarching principle that could help us bring these new ways of war under better control.

**Congress should write a new law putting** both drone operations and **offensive cyber-operations under the** same **rules that now govern covert operations by the CIA**. That law has two key features: a formal decision by the President, called a “finding,” and notification of a small group of members of Congress.

That law has worked pretty well since it was first enacted in 1974. Presidents have to be persuaded that the operation is well-designed and important to carry out, and Congress is informed so that it can exercise oversight on behalf of the American people. On occasion, covert actions have been modified or cancelled in response to congressional concerns. This kind of oversight is better than what a court could do, because courts judge only issues like due process, not the strategic and political factors that routinely confront the executive and legislative branches.

Right now, drone operations are conducted in a crazy bifurcated system. Those done by the CIA are regularly reviewed by the intelligence committees. Those done by the Pentagon are reportedly eventually briefed to the congressional defense committees, but there is no regular and required process as there is for the CIA operations.

The situation becomes especially murky when both the CIA and the Pentagon are conducting drone operations in the same area, as in Yemen, or when the CIA and the Joint Special Operations Command work together, as in the bin Laden raid. The Pentagon operates under laws called Title 10 of the U.S. Code, while the CIA is controlled by the **war powers provisions** of Title 50. What **we need** is a “Title 60” **to bridge the gaps**.

**Otherwise, a devious executive could assign tasks to the Pentagon** precisely **to escape notification and oversight**. Or the compartmentalization that necessarily surrounds sensitive operations could lead to conflicts in the field.

There are always risks of leaks when the circle of knowledgeable officials widens. But even in the case of the bin Laden raid, where the secrecy held, CIA Director Leon E. Panetta notified the intelligence committees in a general way months in advance.

The case for a “Title 60” process for drone operations is even stronger if the administration adopts Mr. Brennan’s suggestion to move most CIA drone operations to Pentagon control.

Offensive cyber-operations would also be best handled under a similar legal process. CIA-run operations are already covered, but the Pentagon has created a new Cyber Command that could carry out large-scale cyber operations. And the administration has reportedly concluded that the President has broad power even to launch a pre-emptive cyber-strike to thwart an impending digital attack from abroad.

If the circumstances are that dire, I suppose most Americans would support such an action. But the way to limit abuses, and be sure that there is careful consideration **beforehand and** accountability **afterward**, is for the President himself to make the final decision and for a designated group in Congress to be notified as soon as possible.

If Congress ever resolves its disagreements over domestic cybersecurity and passes some kind of law, I hope it also would include a provision requiring congressional notification and oversight if the President ever chooses to use special authorities to compel compliance with security directives.

Do drone and cyber-operations have to be reported to Congress every time? **Will a reporting requirement prevent timely action?**

**The** concerns are overblown because the experience with CIA covert operations has worked in practice, despite occasional complaints.

And the frequency issue can easily be solved by a simple rule: if the President has to decide under the executive branch’s own rules, then the matter is important enough that the Congress should be notified.

Only the plans committee resolves perceived and actual convergence issues

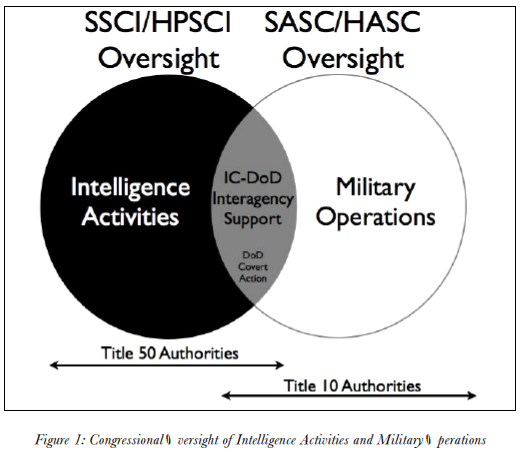
Wall 11 (Andru, Senior Associate with Alston & Bird LLP; former senior legal advisor for U.S. Special Operations Command Central from 2007 to 2009, “Demystifying the Title 10-Title 50 Debate: Distinguishing Military Operations, Intelligence Activities & Covert Action” 2011, Harvard National Security Journal, Vol. 3, p. 85 – 142)

8 . Congressional Oversight

Confusion over Title 10 and Title 50 authorities has more to do with congressional oversight and its attendant internecine power struggles than with operational or statutory authorities. Operators, be they special operations forces (SOF) operating under Title 10, CIA agents operating under Title 50, or NSA personnel operating under both Title 10 and Title 50, know from whence their authorities are derived. The operators recognize dual lines of authority and are primarily concerned with coordination and deconfliction. To outsiders looking in. such as a Senator in Washington. DC, the activities performed by SOF and CIA operatives, especially during periods preceding possible or anticipated conflict, may appear virtually indistinguishable. Yet similarity in no way vitiates their dual lines of authority, nor does it create great challenges for operators.

A former general counsel of the CIA. Jeffrey H. Smith, spoke of what he perceived as a "dichotomy between Title 10 and Title 50" that gives "executive branch lawyers and members of Congress . . . headaches."54 These headaches arise, Smith stated, during debates over military activities called "preparation of the battlefield." which are activities typically carried out by military personnel "in close collaboration with the U.S. intelligence community."55 We will examine these activities more closely in Parts III and IV. Smith, however, summarizes the issue as such: if the activity is defined as a military activity "Title 10") there is no requirement to notify Congress, while intelligence community activities ("Title 50"; require presidential findings and notice to Congress.56 The natural inclination for executive branch lawyers, according to Smith, is to prefer the Title 10 paradigm to obviate congressional notification requirements.57

This perception—that the Executive Branch is deliberately Irving to avoid congressional oversight—naturally riles the intelligence committees. In its report accompanying the Intelligence Authorization Act for Fiscal Year 2010, the House Permanent Select Committee on Intelligence noted "with concern the blurred distinction between the intelligence-gathering activities carried out by the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) and the clandestine operations of the Department of Defense."58 The Committee accused DoD of labeling its clandestine activities as operational preparation of the environment OPE in order to justify them under Title 10 and avoid oversight by the intelligence committees "and the congressional defense committees cannot be expected to exercise oversight ovitside of their jurisdiction."59 The Intelligence Committee apparently perceives an oversight lacuna, yet no such lacuna exists. Rather, all activities condvicted under Title 10 authorities are subject to oversight by the armed services committees and. for example, commanders of special operations forces regularly brief the armed services committees on their clandestine activities.



As illustrated by Figure 1, the congressional intelligence committees exercise oversight of intelligence activities, while the armed services committees exercise oversight jurisdiction over military operations.60 The congressional oversight is not coterminous with statutory authorities, as Title 10 includes authority for the Secretary of Defense to engage in both intelligence activities and military operations. Congressional oversight overlaps when non-DoD elements of the intelligence community provide support to military operations and in the unlikely or at least rare instance where the President directs elements of DoD to conduct covert action.61

Oversight would also overlap with respect to intelligence activities carried out by an element of the intelligence community in support of a military operation authorized under Title 10.

Congressional oversight of the military is straightforward: both the Senate and House Armed Services Committees exercise jurisdiction over all aspects of DoD and matters relating to “the common defense.”62 Defense authorization bills originate in the armed services committees, where they must be approved before consideration by the full Senate or House. Problems arose in the wake of 9/11 as DoD expanded its intelligence capabilities in order to support ongoing military operations, and the intelligence committees correspondingly sought to expand their jurisdiction in an attempt to bring all military intelligence collection efforts within their purview, which created clashes with the armed services committees and the Executive Branch and generated debates over appropriate congressional oversight.

Congressional oversight of intelligence activities is considerably more complex. The National Security Act of 1947, which created the CIA, did not include statutory congressional oversight provisions. For nearly thirty years, Congress exercised little oversight of intelligence activities. This changed dramatically, however, following revelations in 1974 by then New York Times reporter Seymour Hersh that U.S. intelligence agencies engaged in domestic spying.63 The Church Committee’s subsequent investigation “did nothing less than revolutionize America’s attitudes toward intelligence supervision.”64

The Senate established its Select Committee on Intelligence (SSCI) in 1976 and the House followed suit a year later with its Permanent Select Committee on Intelligence (HPSCI). The era of benign neglect was over, replaced instead by dynamic if often dysfunctional congressional oversight. In 1980 Congress mandated for the first time that the Director of Central Intelligence and the heads of all other U.S. departments and agencies “involved in intelligence activities” keep the intelligence committees “fully and currently informed of all intelligence activities.”65 This provision was repealed in 1991 and responsibility for informing the congressional intelligence committees of all intelligence activities, including anticipated activities, was placed directly on the President.66

The intelligence committees exercise broad oversight of the intelligence community. They exercise exclusive authorizing powers for the CIA, the Director of National Intelligence, and the National Intelligence Program.67 They share jurisdiction of DoD intelligence components with the Senate and House armed services committees.

While the jurisdictions of the Senate and House intelligence committees are nearly identical, HPSCI exercises broader jurisdiction in two significant respects: HPSCI uses a much broader definition of intelligence activities and adds oversight of “sources and methods.”68 SSCI exercises jurisdiction over “intelligence activities,” while HPSCI exercises jurisdiction more broadly over “intelligence and intelligence-related activities . . . including the tactical intelligence and intelligence-related activities of the Department of Defense.”69 The House gives “intelligence and intelligence-related activities” this all-encompassing definition:

[The] collection, analysis, production, dissemination, or use of information that relates to a foreign country', or a government, political group, party, military force, movement, or other association in a foreign country, and that relates to the defense, foreign policy, national security, or related policies of the United States and other activity in support of the collection, analysis, production, dissemination, or use of svich information.70

Thus, the House of Representatives via a rule change gave HPSCI oversight of "intelligence-related activities" including "tactical intelligence" and other military information collection activities for which congressional notification is not statutorily mandated. This would be understandable if HPSCI controlled authorizations for those military activities, but it does not. All authorizations for these military activities originate in the House Armed Services Committee and House rules do not provide for their review by the intelligence committee. In fact, just the opposite occurs as all intelligence authorization bills passed by the intelligence committees must then clear the armed services committees before being considered by the full House.

Intelligence committee oversight is weakened by the bifurcated authorization and appropriations processes. Because most appropriations for intelligence activities are included as a classified section of the annual defense appropriations bill, "the real control over the intelligence purse lies with the defense subcommittees of the House and Senate Appropriations Committees."71 The 9/11 Commission recognized how "dysfunctional" this arrangement is in practice and recommended the establishment of a single joint intelligence committee with authorizing and appropriating authorities.72 Congress, to its detriment, has not adopted this recommendation.

Intelligence committee oversight is further weakened by the failure to enact an intelligence authorization bill for five of the past six years. Title 50 prohibits the expenditure or obligation of appropriated funds on intelligence or intelligence-related activities unless "these funds were specifically authorized by Congress for such activities."71 Congress meets this "specifically authorized" provision through the vise of a catch-all provision inserted into the defense appropriations acts.74 Over the past 30 years. Congress enacted an intelligence authorization bill prior to the start of the fiscal year on just two occasions—1983 and 1989.

Congress could end the Title 10-Title 50 debate by simply reforming its oversight of military and intelligence activities and align oversight with the statutory authorities. Rather than focus on what the activity in question looks like what is being done). Congress should simply ask who is funding the activity and who is exercising direction and control; oversight should be aligned in the House and Senate and should correspond to funding. direction and control. Congress should adopt the recommendations of the 9/11 Commission—align congressional oversight with statutory avithorities and reform its bifurcated intelligence authorization and appropriations functions—and thereby eliminate most real and perceived Title 10-Title 50 issues. With the crux **of the Title 10-Title 50 debate exposed as dysfunctional congressional oversight**, this article now turns to explaining why some military and intelligence activities look alike, yet remain distinguishable.

## plan

The United States federal government should restrict executive authority for offensive cyber operations to those authorized by a Joint Congressional Consultation Committee.

## solvency

AFF creates Joint Congressional Consultation Committee to authorize OCOs

Chen 12 (Julia – JD Candidate @ Boston College (2013) specializing in National Security, MEM in Engineering Management from Old Dominion, BA – Rice University, “NOTE: RESTORING CONSTITUTIONAL BALANCE: ACCOMMODATING THE EVOLUTION OF WAR” November, 2012, 53 B.C. L. Rev 1767)

The War Powers Resolution was an attempt to check unbounded executive war power, but it was clearly written for a 1973-era war. n327 Technological innovation and the changing face of warfare have evolved to put modern military actions outside the scope of the Resoltion. n328 [\*1800] The result of this evolution is nearly unbounded war powers for the executive branch. n329 Nonetheless, modern military actions should be subject to the system of checks and balances established in the Constitution. n330 Without this political dialogue, the executive could spend millions of dollars, endanger American lives, and embroil the nation in international disputes more easily. n331 As stated by George Mason, the constitutional check should "clog" rather than facilitate war, and guarantee that decisions are made in the best interests of the nation. n332 To ensure a broader congressional role and achieve the appropriate balance of war powers, a new statutory framework is needed. n333

B. Proposed Amendment to the War Powers Resolution

Congress should draft framework legislation to formalize its role in the decision to enter a war, thereby restoring the balance of powers contemplated by the Framers. n334 As noted above, when the President makes war powers decisions in the absence of congressional action, the decisions are in Justice Robert Jackson's "zone of twilight" and are of dubious constitutionality. n335 Passing new legislation mandating that the President consult with Congress--and obtain approval or disapproval--would solidify the constitutionality of war-making decisions. n336 The President's decision would thus fall within either Justice Jackson's first or third categories, which would clarify or strengthen the constitutionality of the executive action. n337

In 2008, the National War Powers Commission proposed new legislation, the War Powers Consultation Act of 2009. n338 This proposed legislation would clarify some of the issues that limit the effectiveness of the [\*1801] War Powers Resolution of 1973, and would require Congress to act affirmatively in response to presidential war powers decisions. n339 Although this proposal was a step in the right direction, the proposal requires further modification to encompass the full reality of modern warfare. n340 The modifications proposed below will ensure that the new law has sufficient breadth to encompass all conflicts regardless of the actors. n341 Furthermore, the modifications incorporate a bifurcated process to accommodate the realities of fighting modern wars, which rely on covert actions. n342 These proposed reforms bring the balance of power between the executive and legislative branches more closely in line with the Framers' intent and more thoroughly accommodate the realities of modern warfare. n343

1. Revise the Scope of War Powers Legislation

The scope of actors that fall within the War Powers Consultation proposal should be broadened. n344 The proposal currently is limited to "combat operation[s] by U.S. armed forces." n345 The legislation should be more expansive, and closer to the reality of modern war fighting, which is conducted by many actors in addition to the military. n346 This change could be accomplished by omitting the words "armed forces." n347 Therefore, the scope of the legislation should be modified to encompass "any combat operation by the United States." n348 This change to the proposed legislation would encompass military, government civilians, contractors, UAVs, and other technological innovations that act on behalf of the nation. n349

[\*1802] The scope of conflicts that fall within the War Powers Consultation proposal should also be broadened. n350 The proposed legislation currently applies to "any conflict expressly authorized by Congress, or . . . combat operations lasting more than a week or expected by the President to last more than a week." n351 On the one hand, this proposal would encompass the 2011 action in Libya. n352 On the other hand, it would not encompass short-duration, high-impact strikes, such as the cyber-attack launched against Estonia in 2007. n353 Although an action may be of short duration, it may have long-term effects, and it may have sufficient force to profoundly affect the United States in the form of money, personnel, or foreign relations. n354 Thus, language should be added to the proposed legislation to make it applicable to all offensive strikes. n355 This expansion would add scenarios that are likely to instigate reprisal against America. n356 Therefore, this modification would force the President to explain to Congress why a fight is worth starting and why it is in the national interest. n357 Furthermore, this change would still allow the executive to act unilaterally to defend the country against attacks, and would ensure the balance between the political branches intended by the Framers. n358

2. Bifurcation of the Oversight Process

To check effectively the President's war power, Congress should divide the process of congressional oversight so it is tailored to address both open and covert warfare. n359 The War Powers Consultation proposal specifically exempts "covert operations" from its scope. n360 Nonetheless, "covert operations" are a significant element of modern warfare. n361 Covert actions should therefore not be exempt from legislation [\*1803] that governs war powers, because the Constitution envisions a role for both the Congress and the President in the decision to enter a war. n362

The Commission's proposed legislation calls for creation of a Joint Congressional Consultation Committee. n363 This Committee would be composed of the minority leaders of the House and Senate, the majority leader of the Senate, the Speaker of the House, and the chairs and ranking members of the Senate and House committees on foreign affairs, armed services, intelligence, and appropriations. n364 Thus, the Committee closely mirrors the requirements of the existing congressional oversight committees on intelligence. n365 The proposed legislation should be amended so that all intended acts of war by the executive, including open and covert actions, are initially referred to this Committee. n366

For non-covert operations, the War Powers Consultation proposal outlines a process for congressional oversight. n367 The President is required to have meaningful consultation with the Committee, rather than just notification. n368 This consultation must occur prior to the conflict, or in emergent circumstances, within three calendar days after operations begin. n369 The proposal also requires that Congress act to approve or disapprove of the action. n370 If Congress has not acted on its own accord, the Committee is required to "introduce an identical concurrent resolution in the Senate and House." n371 This process would result in meaningful consultation between the President and Congress, and would mandate that Congress act to check the President's power when appropriate. n372

This proposed legislation should be modified so that in situations that require covert operations, the process would be modeled on the [\*1804] Intelligence Oversight Act of 1991. n373 In these situations, the Joint Congressional Consultation Committee would assume an analogous role to the existing Senate and House intelligence committees. n374 Thus, the members of the Committee could engage in fully informed consultation with the President, rather than being limited to the discussion of only non-covert actions. n375 Following the model of the Intelligence Oversight Act of 1991, the process for covert operations should require the President to make a finding in writing within forty-eight hours of making the decision to conduct the action. n376 In addition, the action could commence prior to notification, but notification must follow soon afterward. n377 Furthermore, in a written finding the President should specify "each department, agency, or entity of the United States Government authorized to fund or otherwise participate in any significant way in such action." n378 The finding must also identify any third parties that are not employed by the government that are to be involved with the action. n379 This statement will give members of Congress the full picture of what forces are involved in the activity. n380

Upon receipt of this finding from the President, the Committee must have an affirmative requirement to balance the power of the executive. n381 It should first be required to make a finding as to whether the action truly requires secrecy or should be discussed with the full Congress. n382 If the Committee finds that the action is of a nature that requires secrecy, it should remain in the Committee for debate. n383 Conversely, if the Committee finds that there is no need for secrecy, it should consult accordingly with the executive and, if appropriate, treat the information as an open conflict. n384

Once the Committee makes a finding that the conflict is covert and should be kept secret, it must be further debated within the Committee. n385 [\*1805] Furthermore, the executive should be required to keep the Committee apprised of the conflict and provide periodic written updates. n386 This exchange would give Congress the opportunity to check the power of the President, and prevent the tyranny that the Framers so feared. n387 Additionally, it would enable Congress to balance the power of the executive and make informed decisions on defense appropriations. n388

These recommended modifications to the proposed War Powers Consultation Act of 2009 would make it match the realities of modern warfare. n389 Expanding its scope to include all of the actors that contribute to modern warfare, and all of the actions with the effects of warfare, would strike the appropriate balance of war powers between the executive and legislative branches. n390 This balance is necessary to ensure not only that the executive can adequately defend the nation, but also that both the executive and legislative branches are accountable to the people who pay the price of governmental decisions. n391

CONCLUSION

The Constitution's system of checks and balances gave both the President and Congress powers over war. The War Powers Resolution of 1973 was an attempt by Congress to reassert its constitutional prerogative and implement a formal structure for the division of power with the President. Forty years later, modern warfare has evolved sufficiently to render the War Powers Resolution ineffective. Thus, Congress should replace the War Powers Resolution with a new, more pragmatic [\*1806] statute aligned with the realities of modern warfare. The new statute should incorporate elements of the proposed War Powers Consultation Act of 2009 and the existing Intelligence Oversight Act of 1991. Moreover, its scope should be expansive, to encompass all actors and all actions of modern warfare. Such an approach will ensure real checks and balances and political accountability in the realm of war powers.

Plans statutory clarity develops cyber doctrine --- congressional signal is key

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A second argument, this one advanced by some congressionalists, is that stronger legislative checks on presidential uses of force would **improve deterrent and coercive strategies** by making them more selective and credible. The most credible U.S. threats, this argument holds, are those that carry **formal approval by Congress**, which reflects strong public support and willingness to bear the costs of war; requiring express legislative backing to make good on threats might therefore be thought to enhance the potency of threats by encouraging the President to seek congressional authorization before acting. 181 A frequently cited instance is President Eisenhower’s request (soon granted) for standing congressional authorization to use force in the Taiwan Straits crises of the mid- and late-1950s – an authorization he claimed at the time was important to bolstering the credibility of U.S. threats to protect Formosa from Chinese aggression. 182 (Eisenhower did not go so far as to suggest that congressional authorization ought to be legally required, however.) “It was [Eisenhower’s] seasoned judgment … that a commitment the United States would have much greater impact on allies and enemies alike because it would represent the collective judgment of the President and Congress,” concludes Louis Fisher. “Single-handed actions taken by a President, without the support of Congress and the people, can threaten national prestige and undermine the presidency. Eisenhower’s position was sound then. It is sound now.” 183 A critical assumption here is that legal requirements of congressional participation in decisions to use force **filters out unpopular uses of force**, the threats of which are unlikely to be credible and which, if unsuccessful, undermine the credibility of future U.S. threats.

A third view is that legal clarity is important to U.S. coercive and deterrent strategies; that ambiguity as to the President’s powers to use force undermines the credibility of threats. Michael Reisman observed, for example, in 1989: “Lack of clarity in the allocation of competence and the uncertain congressional role **will sow uncertainty among those who depend on U.S. effectiveness for security and the maintenance of world order**. Some reduction in U.S. credibility and diplomatic effectiveness may result.” 184 Such stress on legal clarity is common among lawyers, who usually regard it as important to planning, whereas strategists tend to see possible value in “constructive ambiguity”, or deliberate fudging of drawn lines as a negotiating tactic or for domestic political purposes. 185 A critical assumption here is that clarity of constitutional or statutory design **with respect to decisions about force exerts significant effects on** foreign perceptions of U.S. resolve **to make good on threats, if not by** affecting the substance of U.S. policy **commitments with regard to force then by pointing foreign actors to the appropriate institution or process for reading them.**

Political scientists almost never engage directly on these questions of constitutional design and reform (it is difficult, in fact, to find even passing references to questions of legal doctrine or reform in political science scholarship on threats of force). Partly this may reflect a general scholarly disposition favoring descriptive over normative or prescriptive analysis - the opposite of most American legal scholarship. Partly, though, it also reflects a difference in emphasis between legal scholars and political scientists with respect to democratic institutions. Whereas legal scholars tend to focus on formal legal powers and checks - such as binding legislative control and judicial review -political scientists focus on the political interactions that these institutions facilitate rather than the specific allocations of power among different institutions themselves.186 In other words, they tend to concentrate on the allocation of powers between branches of government only to the extent that such arrangements formalize or provide a forum for political contestation and competition among domestic political opponents. As a result, political scientists rarely examine how the sorts of constitutional and legislative reforms so often put forward by legal thinkers would affect the credibility of threats.

That said, political science contributions in this area suggest that all three views that have appeared in legal debates probably have some truth in some cases, but all three are also exaggerated. They are exaggerated to the extent that they fail to account for the political checks imposed by Congress that presidents already internalize and that foreign actors already perceive; they tend to consider formal legal checks in absolute terms rather than their marginal effects relative to baseline politics, which operate quite robustly as constraints.

Furthermore, anv reading of signals b> foreign audiences would have to take account of the possibility that a President might act outside the law. especially in a grave national security crisis. On balance and in general, though, the political science scholarship surveyed above suggests that a result of stronger formal congressional cheeks on force would probably be restricted reliance on threatened force, but the ensuing would in turn be more credible.

Even if Congress already wields informal political influence over threatened force, more potent and formal requirements of legislative force authorization or stricter enforcement of existing ones would still probably push U.S. policy a narrower set of commitments and more reserved use of threats - a more selective coercive and deterrent strategy - in several ways. For a President, knowing that he requires legally authorization from Congress to carry through on threats raises the expected political costs of making them (even very popular ones would require spending some political capital to obtain formal legislative backing). A more formal and substantial role for Congress in authorizing the carrying out of threats would also probably amplify some of the informational effects of executive-legislative dialogue and congressional debate described in the previous section: these processes - which could become more robust and attract greater attention - make it difficult to conceal or misrepresent preferences about war and peace, and therefore reduce opportunities for bluffing. If stronger legislative checks on war and force likely mean a more narrowly selective policy of threatened force, then the previous sections' analysis also suggests that the credibility of those select threats will probably be enhanced Returning to the Iran example with which this Article began, for example, a Presidents decision to draw a red-line threat would likely send an even more potent signal of resolve if legislation were required ultimately required to carry it out. because it would more clearly communicate likely inter-branch unity behind the threat. As the next Part will explain, whether more narrowly selective - but perhaps more credible - threats would result in an overall improvement from a policy standpoint depends on shifting geopolitical context and other balances in U.S. strategy.

The general point here is that the ultimate effects of any legal reform on war and peace will depend not just on the internal effects on U.S. government decision-making but the external perceptions of actors reading U.S. signals. An agenda for constitutional scholars and political scientists alike would more thoroughly link different internal legal arrangements within democracies to different strategies for using military power, some aspects of which arc outlined in the next Part. One question for future study of interest to both political scientists and legal scholars, for example, is whether Congress is as institutionally suited or inclined as the executive branch to consider the credibility effects of threatened or actual military actions in one case on other or future cases - that is. To take account of and give substantial weight to the signals it sends to other international actors with grants or denials of authorization to use force. A related question critical to considering possible legal reform is whether Congress's inclinations in that regard would shift were it to assume a more significant and sustained formal role in decision-making about war and force - that is. whether any such congressional policy biases are structurally inherent or a function of reigning legal doctrine

III. Constitutional War Powers and American Grand Strategy

One broad implication of this analysis is that the true allocation of constitutional war powers is - in anything but a formalistic sense - geopolitically and strategically contingent. It is often believed that the power to go to war is one of the most important constitutional powers because wars put American blood and treasure at risk.187 But even assuming as a normative matter that this means that our Constitution should be structured to be war-averse, as some constitutional scholars have argued,188 this principle does not provide as much guidance about legal doctrine as often supposed unless integrated with ideas about how the United States can and should pursue that agenda in relation to other actors pursuing theirs and amid a changing international context.

A. Threats of War and Presidential Powers in Historical and Strategic Context

Thinking generally about the "powers of war and peace/" the power to decide to go to war was a much more significant one relative to the power to threaten war - as well as other foreign relations powers - when the United States was a small, militarily-weak power and when our strategy was avowedly to stay out of foreign disputes, or when coercive diplomacy and deterrence that extended to protecting distant allies abroad was not a serious strategic option.189 If a major component of grand strategy is hiding behind geographical barriers and avoiding conflict by not taking sides in disputes among other powers - as it was during the infancy of the Republic and as it was again in the interwar years - then the power to threaten war is not often very consequential and an allocation of powers that makes it difficult to engage in military conflicts or even threaten to do so is consistent with that strategic vision.' Note. too. that the lack of a very potent standing military force during these periods limited options for coercive and deterrent strategies and made the President heavily dependent on Congress to furnish the means to initiate

Because the importance for the United States of threatened force - to coerce or deter adversaries, and to reassure allies - in affecting war and peace grew so substantially after World War II. the constitutional decision-making about using force has been relegated in large degree to a mechanism for implementing grand strategy rather than setting it.192 As a superpower that plays a major role in sustaining global security, threatening war is in some respects a much more policy-significant constitutional power than the power to actually make war.

Moreover, assessing the functional benefits or dangers attendant to unilateral presidential discretion to use force or to formulas for ensuring congressional involvement cannot be separated from the means by which the United States pursues its desired geopolitical ends. Of course those merits are inextricably linked to substantive policy ends associated with its military capacity, such as whether the United States is pursuing an aggressively expansionist agenda, a territorially-defensive one. or something else But it also depends on how it seeks to wield its military power - as much its potential for armed force as its engagement of the enemy with it - toward those ends.

B. Re framing "War Powers" Scholarship

One might object to the main point of this Article - that constitutional allocations of power to use force cannot meaningfully be assessed either descriptively or normatively in other than very formalistic ways without accounting for the way U.S. military power is used - that it falls victim to its own critique: if the American condition of war and peace is determined by more than just decisions to commence hostilities or resist actual force with force, why stop at threats of war and force'' Why not extend the analysis even further, to include the many other presidential powers - like diplomatic communication and recognition, intelligence activities, negotiation, and so on - that could lead also to or affect the course of events in crises?193

This Article has focused on the way presidents wield U.S. military might not because analysis of those powers can be neatly separated from other ones but to show how even widening the lens a little bit reveals a much more complex interaction of law and strategy then often assumed and opens up new avenues for analysis and possible reform Military force is also an important place to start because it has always carried special political and diplomatic salience.194 Moreover, many types of non-military moves a President might take to communicate threats, such as imposing economic sanctions or freezing financial assets.195 rest on express statutory delegations from Congress.196 Military threats, by contrast, often rest primarily on the President's independent constitutional powers, perhaps buttressed by implicit congressional assent, and therefore pose the most fundamental questions of constitutional structure and power allocation in relation to strategy

A next step, though, would incorporate into this analysis other instruments of statecraft, such as covert intervention or economic and financial actions, recognizing that their legal regulation could similarly affect perceptions about U.S. power abroad as well as the political and institutional incentives a President has to rely on one tool versus another. Moreover, sometimes coercive strategies involve both carrots and sticks -threats as well as positive inducements197 - and Congress's powers may be dominant with regard to the latter elements of that formula, perhaps in the form of spending on offered benefits or lifting of economic sanctions.198 Further study might focus on such strategies and the way they necessarily require inter-branch coordination, not only in carrying out those elements but in signaling credibly an intention to do so.

At this point, many legal scholars reading this (yet another) Article on constitutional war powers are bound to be disappointed that it proposes neither a specific doctrinal reformulation nor offers an account of optimal legal-power allocation to achieve desired results One reason for that is that evidence surveyed in Part II is inconclusive with respect to some key questions. Another, however, is that the very quest for optimal allocation of these powers is generally mis-framed, because "optimal" only makes sense in reference to some assumptions about strategy, which are not themselves fixed By tying notions of optimal legal allocations to strategy I do not simply mean the basic point that we need prior agreement on desired ends (in the same sense that economists talk about optimality by assuming goals of maximizing social welfare), but the linking of means to ends. As the Article tries to show throughout, even if one agrees that the desired ends are peace and security. there are many strategies to achieve it - isolation, preventive war. deterrence, and others - and variations among them, depending on prevailing geopolitical conditions.

A more productive mode of study, then, recognizes the interdependence of the allocation of war-related powers and the setting of grand strategy. Legal powers and institutions enable or constrain strategies, and they also provide the various actors in our constitutional system w ith levers for shaping those strategies. At the same time, some strategies either reinforce or destabilize legal designs.

C. Threats, Grand Strategy, and Future Executive-Congressional Balances

Having homed in here on threatened war or force, one might take from this analysis yet another observation about the expanding or constitutionally "imperial" power of the U.S. President. That is, beyond the President's wide latitude to use military force abroad, he can take threatening steps that could provoke or prevent war and even alter unilateral the national interests at stake in a crisis by placing U.S. credibility on the line -the President's powers of war and peace are therefore even more expansive than generally supposed

It is also important to see this analysis, however, as showing more complex dependency of presidential powers on Congress with respect to setting and sustaining American grand strategy. In that respect, Philip Bobbitt was quite correct when he decried lawyers' undue emphasis on the Declare War clause and the commencement of armed hostilities as the critical legal events in thinking about constitutional allocations and U.S. security policy:

Wars rarely start as unexpected ambushes; they are usually the culmination of a long period of policy decisions. & If we think of the declaration of war as a commencing act - which it almost never is and which the Framers did not expect it to be - we will not scrutinize those steps that bring us to war, steps that are in the main statutory in nature. Moreover, we will be inclined to pretend & that Congress really has played no role in formulating and funding very specific foreign and security policies.199

Those foreign and security policies to which Bobbitt refers include coercive and deterrent strategies.

Indeed- it is important to remember that the heavy reliance on threatened force especially after World War II has itself been a strategic choice by the United States - not a predestined one - and one that could only be made and continued with sustained congressional support. Since the beginning of the Cold War period, the reliance on deterrence and coercive diplomacy became so deeply engrained in U.S. foreign policy that it is easy to forget that the United States had other strategic options open to it. One option was war: some senior policy-makers during the early phases of the Cold War believed that conflict with the Soviet Union was inevitable, so better to seize the initiative and strike while the United States held some advantages in the balance of strength. Another option was isolation: the United States could have retracted it security commitments to its own borders or hemisphere, as it did after World War I, ceding influence to the Soviet bloc or other political forces/01 These may have been very bad alternatives, but they were real ones and they were rejected in favor of a combination of standing threats of force and discrete threats of force - sometimes followed up with demonstrative uses of force - that was only possible with congressional buy-in. That buy-in came in the form of military funding for the standing forces and foreign deployments needed to maintain the credibility of U.S. threats, as well as in Senate support for defense pacts with allies. While a strategy of deterrent and coercive force has involved significant unilateral discretion as to how and when specifically to threaten military action in specific crises and incidents, the overall strategy rested on a foundation of executive-congressional collaboration and dialogue that played out over decades.

Looking to the future, the importance of threatened force relative to other foreign policy instruments will shift - and so, therefore, will the balance of powers between the President and Congress. United States grand strategy for the coming decades will be shaped by conditions of fiscal austerity, for example, which may mean cutting back on some security commitments or reorienting doctrine for defending them toward greater reliance on less-expensive means (perhaps such as a shift from large-scale military forces to smaller ones, or **greater reliance on high-technology**, or even revised doctrines of nuclear deterrence).

One possible geostrategic outlook is that the United States will retain its singular military dominance, and that it will continue to play a global policing role. Another outlook, though, is that U.S. military dominance will be eclipsed by other rising powers and diminished U.S. resources and influence." The latter scenario might mean that international relations will be less influenced by credible threats of U.S. intervention, and perhaps more so by the actions of regional powers and political bodies, or by institutions of global governance like the UN Security Council." These possibilities could entail a practical rebalancing of powers wielded by each branch, including the pow er to threaten force and other foreign policy tools.

Were the United States to retreat from underw riting its allies' security and some elements of global order with strong coercive and deterrent threats, one should expect different patterns of executive-congressional behavior with respect to threatening and using force, because wars and threats of wars will come about in different ways: less often as a breakdown of U.S. hegemonic commitments, for example. Reduced requirements of maintaining credible U.S. threats, and therefore reduced linkage between U.S. actions in one crisis and others, would also likely reduce pressure on the President to protect prerogatives to threaten force and to make good on those threats. A foreign policy strategy of more selective and reserved military engagement would likely be one more accommodating to case-by-case, joint executive-legislative deliberation as to the threat or use of U.S. military might, insofar as U.S. strategy would self-consciously avoid cultivating foreign reliance on U.S. power.

Besides shifting geostrategic visions, ranging from a global policing role to receding commitments, the set of tools available to Presidents for projecting power will evolve, too, as will the nature of security threats, and this will produce readjustments among the relative importance of constitutional powers and inter-branch relations.

Transnational terrorist threats, for example, are sometimes thought to be impervious to deterrent threats, whether because they may hold nihilistic agendas or lack tangible assets that can be held at risk. 06 Technologies like unmanned drones may make possible the application of military violence with fewer risks and less public visibility than in the past/ While discussion of these developments as revolutionary is in vogue, they are more evolutionary and incremental; their purported effects are matters of degree. Such developments will, however, retune strategies for brandishing and exercising military capabilities and the politics of using them.

Whatever the future of U.S. power and strategies for wielding it, the analysis above points toward **a revised war powers reform agenda**. If legal discourse of war powers is too narrowly focused on actual wars and forceful military engagements to the exclusion of threats of them, then so too is discussion of reforms too narrowly focused on congressional involvement at the end stages of coercive diplomacy - often long after threats have been issued and responded to, positively or negatively - rather than at earlier ones.

A more productive agenda (and by no means a mutually exclusive one) would focus on strengthening Congress's role in the shaping of U.S. grand strategy more broadly - that rather than devoting its institutional energy to reasserting it control over decisions to engage the enemy with military force in particular circumstances, it would work to engage the executive branch more seriously and continually on the general policy circumstances under which force might be contemplated. This would mean Congress doing something it is not disposed toward, which is using its other powers - such as hearings, control of funds,statutory delegations of bounded policy discretion - to engage the executive branch on strategic questions inadvance of or at the earliest stages of crises about the way force may be wielded**. Proposals to restructure congressional national security committees - such as creating more** consolidated, joint House-Senate national security committee, to give them more leverage, expertise, and oversight responsibility that ties together the elements of U.S. power **213 213 See KOH, supra note , at 167-68; NATIONAL WAR POWERS COMMISSION REPORT 36-37 (2008). -** should be viewed not simply as a means for consulting with the Executive once large-scale military intervention is imminent, but for consulting on the matching of foreign policy means and ends well in advance of crises.

Congress signals strong legal foundation – key to international acceptance

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Imagine the following scenario. The United States learns that a particular foreign government has regularly allowed several terrorist groups that target U.S. citizens and interests to deposit money in banks within its borders. Furthermore, this government sometimes provides money to these accounts through third parties. After weighing the options, the President agrees to an attack using information technologies, such as launching a new virus, on the networks serving this country's financial institutions. A significant disruption of banking and other transactions occurs, and the country's government, convinced that the U.S. is behind this "cyber-attack," supports a terrorist attack on a U.S. installation a few weeks later. Through intelligence channels, the U.S. learns of this direct involvement and sends air strikes against select targets in the country. The "White House informs the congressional leadership of the decision only a few hours before the planned air strikes.

The last part of this scenario, involving a Presidential order to use limited military force and an ensuing disagreement with Congress over prior consultation and authorization to use force, is fairly predictable. Congress has been trying to protect its war powers—the power of declaration of war or an authorization to use force—since the 1970s through the War Powers Resolution of 1973 and other measures. But the first half of the scenario, involving "information war-fare," as it is now being called, places law and U.S. lawmakers on terra incognita. Perhaps consultation with Congress would occur with the senior Senate and House leadership, the Senate Foreign Relations Committee or the International Relations Committee in the House, as well as the intelligence committees, but it is just as likely that no consultation would take place. The role of Congress in information warfare operations is unclear because the status of such operations remains undefined in national law, international law, or the laws of warfare. Yet, if Congress is to protect its constitutional powers in war-making and the use of military force, the time has come when it must study the subject of information warfare and amend or create legislation to address this issue.

As Congress does so, it will have to bear in mind that even the experts do not agree on a definition of information warfare. Consider as a start the definition offered by the Joint Chiefs of Staff. Information warfare is composed of "[information operations conducted during time of crisis or conflict to achieve or promote specific objectives over a specific adversary or conflict." A key term in that definition is "information operations," which are "[a]ctions taken to affect adversary information and information systems while defending ones own information and information systems."1 On first reading, this definition seems fairly limited to measures that are taken via computers, other information technologies, and information systems and networks. This definition of information warfare could generate congressional concerns about the efficiency and protection of U.S. information networks and systems, but it would not seemingly provoke any efforts to protect congressional war powers.

However, another definition greatly expands the scope of information warfare and raises significant questions about the relationship among information warfare, the conduct of war, and the role of congressional war powers. In What Is Information Warfare, Martin Libicki defines it as "conflicts that involve the protection, manipulation, degradation, and denial of information."2 Libicki then adds that it can occur in seven different forms: strikes at command and control capabilities, intelligence-based warfare related to acquiring or protecting information that can help one dominate a battlefield, electronic warfare, psychological warfare, "hacker" warfare, economic information warfare, and various scenarios in cyber warfare.3 This definition presents an open-ended meaning that can embrace elements of traditional means of warfare as well as recent or future ones. The inclusions of such traditional measures, which are the foundations of Congress's understanding of war, make this definition something that Congress should study closely.

An opposite approach argues that war should be removed from the term "information warfare." The focus of such operations should be on nonviolent means or stimuli. Taking the argument possibly to an extreme conclusion, advocates of this view argue that war will not occur if the information part is done cor-recdy. In short, these are acts that will prevent or pre-empt the resort to violence. It is also a concept of Information warfare that implies that a number of such measures can be performed by the civilian sector rather than the military, the traditional home of war-fighting capabilities.4 Here, it would seem Congress has little reason or basis to be concerned about the use of information or information technology as an instrument of war, since the goal is to avoid a use of traditional military force.

Regardless of the difficulty in defining it, information warfare is increasingly being examined by policy-makers because it offers a number of advantages not provided by traditional warfare. Information operations are arguably lower risk because they may accomplish their objective without resort to armed force. Furthermore, they may cost less: consider the cost of an information operation versus the deployment of almost any military unit. Finally, in a climate where both the nation's political and military leadership wish to avoid casualties, the prospect of being able to act forcefully while avoiding any socially and politically unacceptable loss of life holds a powerful attraction. In Operation Allied Force in 1999, the use of information technologies in precision-guided munitions as well as in other combat and command-and-control systems contributed significandy to the lack of fatalities for the U.S. and its NATO allies. The low casualty rate in Afghanistan seems to reinforce the appeal of this capability. On the other hand, some informa-tion warfare operations are not linked at all with the use of weaponry, and, in fact, may be a desirable alternative to it. As information warfare capabilities improve, the nations political and military leaders will want to rely more on a choice that may offer worthwhile results at lower budgetary and human costs.

The technologies and means of information warfare offer the President major advantages in the conduct of war chat come at the expense of Congress. There are a number of reasons for this. Because troops and weaponry may not be involved, it is unclear whether operations in information warfare would be regarded as a use of force or a hostile act. If not judged as a use of force, what would be the constitutional basis for congressional action? Historically, Congress has been reluctant to assert its war powers against the actions of a President, even when traditional military means are used. Will the use of information technologies in weaponry and the accompanying promise (and hope) of fewer casualties invite Congress to give the President more leeway over the authorization of military force? Taking this idea one step further, could the use of information technology rather than traditional weaponry and troops be regarded as an acceptable course that requires no congressional oversight and action? A decision to use military force and to risk lives is a difficult one—a choice leaders righdy prefer not to make not to make if they can avoid it. Legislators do not want to stare into the abyss of military action where outcomes and political consequences can be uncertain. If a new type of warfare at a lower threshold is available to the President and Congress, the need for congressional review and action may not seem as compelling. Yet, if that is the conclusion that emerges, any imbalance that already favors the President in using military force will become greater.

NEW FORMS OF LIMITED FORCE AND THE CONSTITUTION

To define its responsibilities in an information warfare environment, Congress must wrestle with a number of questions. Foremost is the question of whether information warfare and cyber attacks fall within the definition of military force used by Congress. Consider the foundation of congressional powers in this area: the power to declare war. Aside from the fact that a declaration of war is a rare event in U.S. history, another fundamental question is the definition of war itself. Throughout history there has been a common understanding that war involves the use of armed force.

Thus, one can see why a debate continues among specialists in law and information warfare over the question of whether or not such operations are an act of war. Sensing the confusion within the U.S. defense community, the Office of General Counsel in the Department of Defense presented an analysis of this question in June 1999.5 The counsel argues that an act of war is a concept rarely heard in modern diplomatic discourse. It goes on to state:

"An act of war is a violation of another nations rights under international law that is so egregious that the victim would be justified in declaring war. Declarations of war have fallen into disuse, and the act of war concept plays no role in the modern international legal system."6

There are those who would strongly disagree with this position, but the argument reflects the calculated efforts of the U.S. for over half a century to avoid a declaration of war.7

Much of the current discussion about what constitutes war rests on the UN Charter and other UN declarations. For example, in 1974 the UN General Assembly passed the Definition of Aggression Resolution, which, although not regarded by the U.S. as the absolute and final word, posited that the resolution provided "useful guidance." The important thread throughout the definition was the use of actual, or "kinetic," force, as one group of writers described it.8 Thus, the emphasis in the resolution falls on land, air, or sea actions, such as invasions, forceful annexation, bombardment, the use of weapons by one state against another, blockade, or sending armed bands, mercenaries, irregulars or other groups against another state. There is little here to suggest that information warfare could ever fall under the definition of war as understood by the writers of the Constitution or by subsequent generations of U.S. presidents and legislators.

To cloud the issue further, an ongoing debate continues over whether or not the technologies used in information warfare, such as computers, are really weapons. An Air Force instruction document in 1994 suggested that "computer systems would probably not be considered weapons." "Weapons are devices designed to kill, injure, or disable people, or to damage or destroy' property. Weapons do not include...electronic warfare devices." This definition places full emphasis on the consequences. A weapon has to destroy something; if it does not, it is not a weapon.

A different approach to defining a weapon places emphasis on its intended use. This definition suggests that the computer relaying the information to the actual destructive device could be regarded as a weapon on its own. This very question is one of the major disagreements about the Outer Space Treaty. Some argue satellites are not weapons, since they merely relay information. Obviously, a personal computer on its own is hardly a traditional or kinetic weapon (unless perhaps heaved by a frustrated employee at a supervisor), but when linked to an actual weapon on the ground, sea, or in the air is it not essentially the same?9 It does provide the information, such as guidance, that enables the device to destroy the target.

The above question pertains to information technology linked through a system or network to a real weapon. A harder question to answer is posed, however, when a computer, not linked to any weapon, is used to provide commands or to install a virus that causes disorder or even destruction elsewhere. Stand-alone com-puters would have played an important part in the introductory scenario—the attacks on the foreign country's banking network. It may seem a stretch of the imagination to equate a collection of digital signals to bombs and bullets, but cyber-attacks can produce very destructive consequences such as downed power grids that shut off power in hospitals or the disruption of flood control systems at dams. Such impacts are not significandy different from the results of a bomb dropped on a power station or on a dam. Consequendy, as the Department of Defenses own legal counsel points out, one may have to answer the question about a computer as weaponry not in terms of the technology but in terms of the consequences. If the results are comparable to what might be produced by traditional weapons in an act of aggression, a government may well be justified in responding not with another cyber operation but with direct military force.10

In such circumstances, Congress is poorly equipped to act and to review, much less challenge, the actions of a President who has ordered an information operation against another state. Current laws simply provide no effective means for doing so.

Consider the War Powers Resolution of 1973, in which Congress tried to strengthen its powers to control Presidential actions in instances where military force was being used without a declaration of war. The key words are at the beginning of Section 4(a): "In the absence of a declaration of war, in any case in which United States Armed Forces are introduced..." and with the pivotal words being "United States Armed Forces." Section 4(a) (1) concerns introducing forces "into hostilities or into situations where imminent involvement in hostilities is clearly indicated by the circumstances."11 This is the most vague of the three provisions in the law requiring a presidential report to Congress. One may argue that the use of U.S. military resources (such as employing troops at computers) to commence an information warfare operation against a foreign actor might be a form of introducing armed forces into hostilities or situations where they are imminent. However, that is a very sweeping interpretation that seemingly exceeds the intent of the law. The provision clearly implies movement of personnel.

If Congress was preparing to use the War Powers Resolution in this context, it should revisit the entire statute and determine after close scrutiny what types of information operations may amount to mea-. sures that could bring the United States into hostilities. Presidents have consistendy challenged the constitutionality of the War Powers Resolution, and it is certain any President would do so if Congress tried to expand its definition to information warfare scenarios. A President would likely argue that these are pre-hostile measures and that Congress's authority in war powers does not commence until the decision to move U.S. forces occurs. However, it is the prospect of consequences comparable to an actual use of force offered by some information warfare scenarios that justifies congressional study of this question.

It is also possible that some information operations could fall under the jurisdiction of the intelligence committees. The Intelligence Oversight Act of 1991 requires the President to keep the two committees "fully and currendy informed of the intelligence activities of the United States, including any significant anticipated intelligence activity [covert action] as required by this tide." This act defines covert acdon as "an activity or activities of the United States Government to influence political, economic, or military conditions abroad, where it is intended that the role of the United States Government will not be apparent or acknowledged publicly/' Certainly, the need to conceal the origins of the action requires any information warfare measures to be covert. However, the provision specifically excludes from the definition "traditional diplomatic or military activities or routine support to such activities."12 Information warfare activities are not traditional, but they are becoming another option in the military's arsenal alongside the personnel and weapons that a President can use. To the extent that the intelligence committees can provide oversight of information warfare, they are not in the best position to protect Congress's role in war powers. That fells primarily in the jurisdiction of the Senate Foreign Relations Committee, the House International Relations. Committee, and the two armed services committees.

A CHALLENGE FOR CONGRESS

It is unfair to suggest that Congress has ignored information warfare or cyber warfare. Like the executive branch, it has paid much attention to measures to protect the United States against such attacks. However, the prospect of an attack on America using information technologies invites another prospect—that of retaliation by the United States.13 This question, and the question of whether the measures selected amount to or are equivalent to a use of force by the United States, should also concern Congress. Four years ago, Congress received just such a warning from the President's Commission on Critical Infrastructure Protection, when it urged Congress to examine this very issue in light of the War Powers Resolution.14 Nothing has happened, however. Meanwhile, U.S. strategic thinking is evolving in a way that increasingly foresees information operations as a dimension of war fighting.

As with any major policy development, Congress needs first to educate itself about information operations and cyber warfare before it considers any legislation. Doing so through hearings and study will provide a major service not only to itself, but also to the nation at large. One of the most difficult aspects of information warfare is clearly defining it. Hearings will help the strategic community clarify its own thinking as it tries to explain concepts and applications to Congress. Information warfare is a subject discussed mainly in a small, specialized community. In spite of some coverage in the press, it still carries too many science fiction connotations to be quickly understood and comfortably discussed in the larger policy community.

More importantly, as in any debate and vote on the use of traditional military force, Congress's placement of information warfare within the context of the Constitution guarantees that the Presidents policy towards it will have a stronger legal foundation and public support. This is critical not only for sustained acceptance of the policy at home but also for international recognition of the justification of the Presidents decisions abroad. Ultimately, information warfare, cyber-attacks, or cyber warfare must come under the same requirements for accountability in the Constitution as traditional military force. The President cannot be given an instrument of warfare over which Congress has no power.