

CHAPTER 1

NAVAL SEA POWER

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

Learning objectives are stated at the beginning of each chapter. These learning objectives serve as a preview of the information you are expected to learn in the chapter. By successfully completing the nonresident training course (NRTC), you indicate you have met the objectives and have learned the information. The learning objectives for chapter 1 are listed below.

Upon completion of this chapter, you should be able to do the following:

1. Define sea power.
 2. Define the establishment of the Continental navy.
 3. Portray naval operations of the Civil War.
 4. Describe naval operations of World War I.
 5. Identify naval operations of World War II.
 6. Describe naval operations of the Korean conflict and the Vietnam conflict.
 7. Describe naval operations in the Persian Gulf.
 8. State the reasons why a strong Navy is needed to support our national objectives.
 9. Identify the mission of the U.S. Navy.
 10. State the four mission areas in which the Navy carries out its function.
 11. Analyze the Soviet military threat.
 12. Analyze the Soviet political threat.
 13. Describe Soviet naval capabilities.
 14. Outline the Soviet naval personnel structure.
 15. Identify treaties and pacts of which the United States is a member.
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Sea power as a concept means more than military power at sea. The Navy's definition of sea power is explained in the following paragraph:

Sea power is the sum of a nation's capabilities to implement its interests in the ocean, by using the ocean areas for political, economic, and military activities in peace or war in order to attain national objectives—with principal components of sea power being naval power, ocean science, ocean industry, and ocean commerce.

The first use of the term *sea power* was by Captain Alfred Thayer Mahan, USN, in his principal work, *The Influence of Sea Power Upon History, 1660-1783*, published in 1890. Mahan explained six conditions required for a nation to have sea power: (1) an advantageous geographical position; (2) serviceable coastlines, abundant natural resources, and a favorable climate; (3) extent of territory; (4) a population large enough to defend its territory; (5) a society with an aptitude for the sea and commercial enterprise; and (6) a government with the influence to dominate the sea.

HISTORY OF SEA POWER

Geographical position was described as the most significant condition in the rise of English sea power to world dominance. England was ideally situated astride the major sea lanes of European trade. Therefore, in times of peace England would prosper commercially and in times of war would deny the use of these vital sea lanes to its enemies. In addition, England's insular position protected it from invasion by enemies and prevented the necessity of a large army.

Although geographical position is important, Mahan observed that other conditions are also important for a nation to become a strong sea power. An advantageous geographical position is of little benefit to a nation that lacks a suitable coast line for harbors, natural resources, and a favorable climate. A nation that possesses such benefits will seldom look seaward. England, lacking these natural advantages, was compelled to turn to the sea.

Mahan's third and fourth conditions, extent of territory and a population large enough to defend its territory, are interdependent. A nation's coastlines and harbors are not only commercial outlets, but also a means of penetration by its enemies.

A nation must have a strong navy and engage in profitable trade with other nations to become a sea power. Therefore, as Mahan states in the fifth requirement, the society of that nation must have an aptitude for the sea and commercial enterprise.

Finally, the government of a nation must have enough influence over other nations to dominate the sea.

In the decades immediately following the Civil War, the primary role of the U.S. Navy was as coastal defender and commerce raider. The United States did not exercise the concept of sea power, but believed in the concept of national isolation. In effect, the nation stressed naval expansion within its own country. By 1890, however, the nation began naval expansion toward other countries, and its concept of national isolation began to ebb.

Those groups in the Navy and in the government who believed in the concept of sea power endorsed Mahan's doctrine. They based their endorsement on the belief that history provides clues to achieving maritime supremacy. Mahan's concept, therefore, became the intellectual force behind the United States' development of its Navy into a sea power.

Sea power as an important influence in history dates back to 2000 B.C. The ancient Cretans are credited with being the first nation to possess a navy and a merchant marine. Because of their strong naval forces, the Cretans dominated the people on the shores of the Aegean Sea. This land area became known as Greece and Turkey.

The age of exploration and colonization was the age of sea power in its broadest application. Nations employing sea power during this age became rich and powerful. They prospered from the goods brought in by their ships, and the world prospered from the goods sent forth by their ships.

Inevitably, power struggles erupted between the maritime rivals, and many wars were fought between opposing sea powers. When sea powers clashed, the one with the soundest knowledge of the sea and the most effective use of its ships determined the victor.

Spain, Portugal, and France, the three great maritime powers, made great and enduring contributions to discovery, exploration, and colonization. Portugal, a country with only 1 million inhabitants at the time, discovered and explored almost two-thirds of the unknown world. Eventually the sea power of these countries dwindled because their knowledge of the sea was either lacking or inferior to that of their opponents.

In one of the most decisive battles of maritime history, the battle of Diu in 1509, the Portuguese fleet crushed the Egyptian-Gujerati fleet. This victory turned Portugal into a major sea power with an empire stretching from Brazil to China. It also marked the beginning of four centuries of undisputed European sea supremacy in the Indian Ocean. This battle was the first proof of the importance of artillery mounted aboard ships to destroy enemy vessels.

In 1511 the Portuguese fleet moved northward to China and then eastward through the heart of the Spice Islands to Malacca. This voyage established one of the first routes to Europe's commercial-colonial empires, which were maintained by superiority of firearms and sea power.

In the Indian ocean, the Portuguese navy was the first to understand the concept of sea power and to develop a naval strategy to suit its individual needs. Countries later achieving naval power used the same strategy introduced by the Portuguese.

The decline of the Portuguese empire as a strong sea power began in 1580 when it united with Spain in disputes with other European countries.

DEFEAT OF THE SPANISH ARMADA

From 1492 to 1588 Spain stood in the forefront of sea power among the nations of Europe. But Spain was a classic example of sea power based on quantity rather than quality, as evidenced by the defeat of the Spanish Armada by the English in 1588. At this time, the king of Spain, Philip II, determined to end successful English raids on Spanish ships and ports. To accomplish this, he launched an attack of overpowering military force against England.

The Spanish Grand Invincible Armada, made up of 124 ships, manned by 8,000 sailors, and carrying 19,000 soldiers, entered the English Channel. To oppose it, the English had only 90 ships, plus a mosquito fleet that had never seen action. However, they also had the know-how of Sir Francis Drake and his men. Drake, a master mariner, knew how to use the wind and tide as allies.

As a general rule, most naval battles were virtually infantry fights on floating platforms. If ramming did not sink an enemy ship, soldiers swarmed over its side to engage in hand-to-hand combat. The British, however, used the same tactics the Portuguese had used at the battle of Diu. Instead of engaging in close-range battle, English ships maneuvered to the windward side of the Spaniards and pounded them with artillery from a distance. The big, lumbering Spanish ships, with their towering upper works, were easy targets.

Ignoring a chance to attack the English off Plymouth, the Spanish sailed on up the Channel while the English pecked away at them. Although these attacks did little damage, they induced the Spaniards to fire all their heavy shot with no telling effects on the English. When the Spaniards anchored in Calais, the English forced them out by floating several burning hulks down on them during the night. The next day the combined English and Dutch fleets attacked the Armada and might have crushed it had they possessed ample powder and shot. After this upsetting blow, the demoralized Spaniards fled north and rounded the British Isles to the Atlantic. There, storms nearly succeeded in finishing what the English had started. The defeat of the Armada ushered in the

decline of Spain's world dominance, while England went on to become mistress of the sea.

While not achieving any great destruction of the enemy, the English demonstrated the superiority of tactics over an abundance of weapons. From that time on, the use of gunnery that could be fired from a distance gradually replaced the shock action of close-range battles at sea. The cries of "boarders away" and "stand by to repel boarders" gradually became less frequent.

THE CONTINENTAL NAVY

SIGNIFICANT DATES

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| 13 Oct. 1775 | Second Continental Congress establishes the Continental navy. |
| 4 Apr. 1776 | Brig <i>Lexington</i> takes first enemy warship. |
| 4 May 1780 | Navy adopts its first official seal. |
| 19 Apr. 1783 | General George Washington proclaims American Revolution ended. At the end of the war, British naval strength included 469 vessels, with 174 of them mounting 60 to 150 guns. The American naval strength during the war reached a peak of 27 ships averaging 20 guns. |

Navies are born out of a spirit of independence and under the threat of war. They are nurtured into maturity by the urgent demands of defense and sharpened by the encounters of conflict. The Continental navy, which was the first American navy, was born for such reasons during the American Revolution.

Before the American Revolution, the American Colonies were heavily dependent on the sea for their livelihood. Harbors and shipbuilding docks all along the coast offered livelihood to many colonists and provided income to thousands more. These ports also harbored the tiny, hastily organized American naval forces that were sent to harass the mightiest sea power in the world. Therefore, when the conflict between the Americans and the British began, these ports were naturally the first ports the British struck.

The navy of the American Revolution was fragmented into many parts, each often acting independently of the others. For instance, several naval engagements between the Americans and the British actually occurred before the Continental Congress authorized a navy. Congress finally authorized a naval committee and ordered the purchase and fitting out of a number of ships in October 1775. Thus, the American navy had officially begun; but some time would elapse before it would have any great effect on the mighty British navy.

The first warships of the Continental navy, built during the revolutionary war and into the 19th century, were classified into three types of naval vessels:

Ships-of-the-line—The battleships of the sailing days, these ships were the largest of all sailing warships. These battleships carried 64 to over 100 guns of various sizes. While the British maintained several of these ships during the revolutionary war, America did not build any until long after the war's end.

Frigates—These vessels were the cruisers of the 18th century. They were smaller and usually faster than the average ships-of-the-line and carried 28 to 44 guns.

Sloops-of-war—These were small, sailing warships that carried 10 to 20 guns.

In addition, the Continental Congress and individual states commissioned independent fleets of privateers to capture enemy merchant ships as prizes of war.

A typical vessel of the fleet of privateers was the schooner. The schooner was a small, fast, maneuverable ship that carried smoothbore cannons. The size and flexibility of such ships proved to be an advantage that eventually helped the colonists break the British stronghold on New England harbors. Being small and maneuverable, these ships allowed the colonists to slip past the Royal Navy's men-of-war by hiding in inlets. They also allowed the colonists to deliver small but effective blows to the large British ships by out-maneuvering them instead of meeting them head on.

THE CIVIL WAR

SIGNIFICANT DATES

27 Apr. 1861	President Lincoln orders blockade of entire Confederate coast.
3 Aug. 1861	Navy ends daily rum rations for enlisted.
17 Feb. 1864	Steam sloop <i>Housatonic</i> torpedoed and sunk by first submarine, Confederate submarine Hunley.
22 Jun. 1865	Confederate raider <i>Shenandoah</i> fires last shot of Civil War while in Bering Sea.

During the Civil War, control of the sea was overwhelmingly in the hands of the North. For 4 years the Union navy was constantly occupied with the task of blockading more than 3,000 miles of coastline. It was also kept busy running down Southern commerce raiders and opening the Mississippi and other waterways leading into the South. In addition, it worked in cooperation with the army in capturing coastal strongholds.

The South countered with commerce raiders, but the strangling effect of the Union blockade eventually took its toll. It crippled the finances of the Confederacy, shut out foodstuffs and munitions, and proved to be a major influence in the outcome of the war. The country learned from this war that a navy could not be quickly and readily improvised in an emergency. Even then, the days were past when merchant vessels could be converted rapidly into efficient men-of-war.

Both Union and Confederate navies were engaged in frantic shipbuilding programs, which brought the era of ironclads into full swing. In 1862 the Union launched the *New Ironsides*. Equipped with the finest armor of any American ship in history, this powerful ironclad once survived 50 hits.

The Civil War also gave us two new types of ironclads, the famed *Merrimack*, renamed the *Virginia* by the Confederacy, and the Union's *Monitor* (which sported a turret). Although the ungainly *Monitor* was called a "cheese box on a raft," it and its Confederate counterpart began a new era of ironclads. When the two engaged in battle, the outcome was indecisive, with both sides claiming victory.

The period also introduced the use of riverboats, rams, and gunboats. More changes and advances were made in ship designs during the

Civil War (1861 to 1865) than during any other period since our Navy began in 1775.

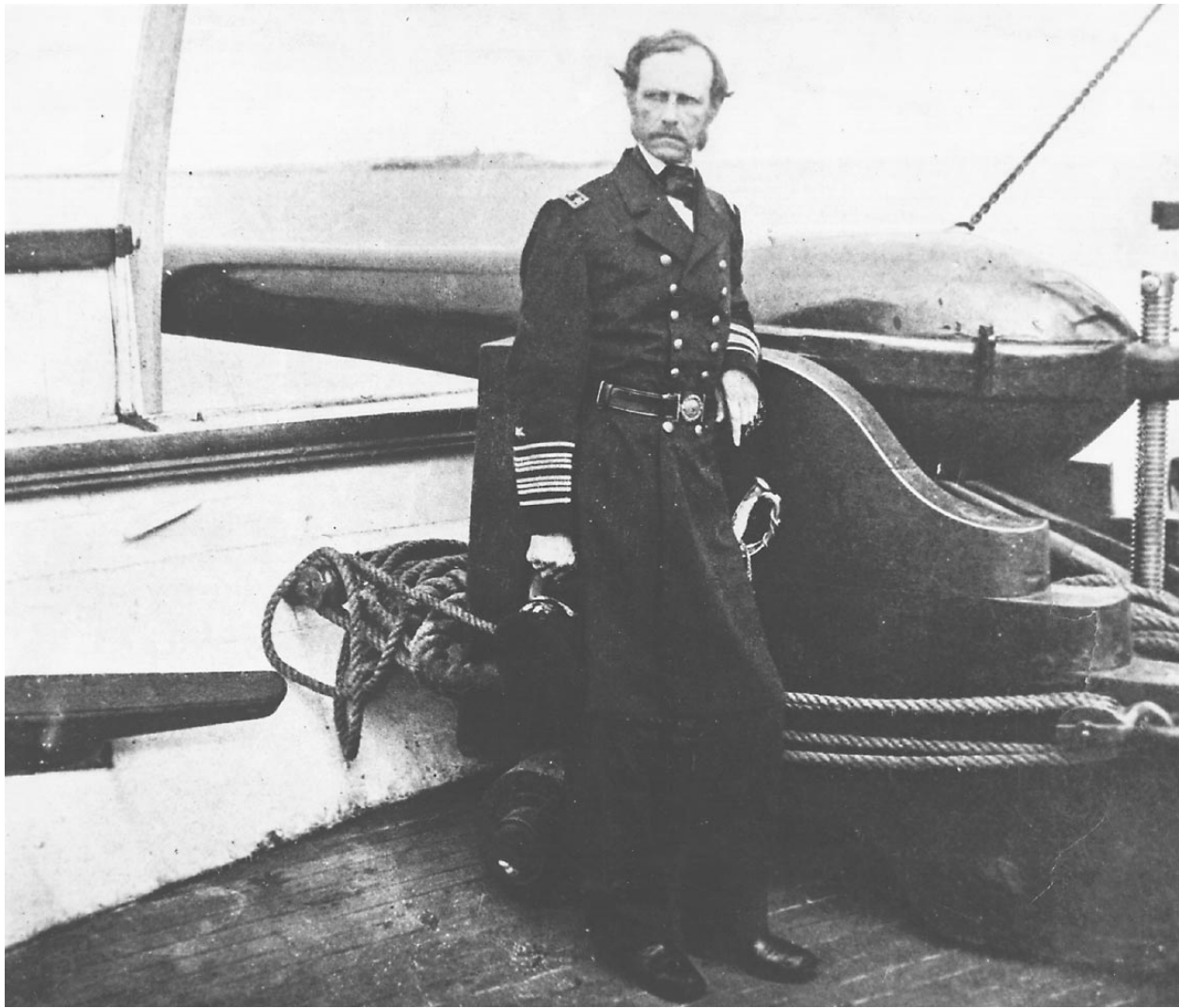
SEA POWER IN MODERN TIMES

SIGNIFICANT DATES

- 28 Dec. 1867 United States claims Midway Islands, first territory annexed outside continental limits.
- 31 Jul. 1874 USS *Intrepid*, first warship equipped with torpedoes, is commissioned.
- 9 Nov. 1880 USS *Ticonderoga*, first steam-powered ship to circle globe, ends cruise begun on 7 Dec. 1878.
- 5 Aug. 1882 Congress authorizes first steel warship.

- 1 Jul. 1897 First use of International Rules of the Road.
- 16 Dec. 1907 The Great White Fleet, the first fleet of warships to circle globe, leaves Hampton Roads, Virginia.
- 15 Apr. 1912 Navy dispatches USS *Chester* from President Roads, Massachusetts, to aid survivors of SS *Titanic* sunk by collision with iceberg in North Atlantic.

The span of years between the Civil War and World War I brought many changes to the U.S. Navy. The ironclads from the Civil War inspired vast improvements to shipbuilding technology. These technological advances led to the development of an all-steel Navy. Rear Admiral John A. Dahlgren (fig. 1-1), the father of modern



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Figure 1-1.—Rear Admiral Dahlgren, standing next to one of the guns he designed, was the leading pioneer in modern naval ordnance and gunnery. The Dahlgren Gun was the forerunner of today's modern naval gun.

ordnance and gunnery, was instrumental in equipping the all-steel Navy with improved weapons systems. Against strong protests from the Navy, Dahlgren demanded improved weapons. He designed a new, reinforced gun breech; advocated the first real sights; and urged the rifling of cannons.

One of the reasons the Navy expanded during this period was President Theodore Roosevelt's enthusiasm for a strong Navy. A large Navy gave Roosevelt the opportunity to carry out his policy of "speak softly and carry a big stick."

WORLD WAR I

SIGNIFICANT DATES

- 1 May 1915 SS *Gulflight* torpedoed by German submarine. First American merchantman sunk by submarine in World War I.
- 6 Apr. 1917 United States declares war against Germany. Navy strength at 4,376 officer and 69,680 enlisted. United States seizes and interns German ships in American ports.
- 11 Nov. 1918 World War I ends.

World War I involved a struggle between the predominance of land power versus naval power. Germany's leaders should have recognized that the British navy, rather than the French army, was Germany's principal barrier to success. A correct appraisal of this situation as early as 1905, when Germany began an earnest buildup of naval strength, might have resulted in a reallocation of Germany's war-making resources. Such action could have provided Germany with a navy strong enough to defeat the British navy. As it was, Germany's leaders believed in land power. Therefore, the Imperial army was the favored service—a fact that caused Admiral von Tirpitz to lament, "We Germans do not understand the sea!" Too late, Germany recognized the U-boat force, a powerful flotilla of submarines, as its deadliest offensive weapon. Although the measures taken by von Trpitz to expand the naval arm of the German navy were extensive, his efforts were never quite enough.

WORLD WAR II

SIGNIFICANT DATES

- 1 Sep. 1939 World War II begins as German troops invade Poland.
- 31 Oct. 1941 USS *Reuben James* is torpedoed and sunk by German submarine off Iceland; about 100 sailors killed. This is the first U.S. naval vessel to be lost by enemy action in World War II.
- 7 Dec. 1941 Japanese attack Pearl Harbor; President orders mobilization of U.S. forces.
- 8 Dec. 1941 United States declares war on Japan.
- 4 May 1942 Battle of Coral Sea takes place; this is the first carrier-versus-carrier engagement and the first battle in modern history in which opposing ships do not exchange shots; all damage is inflicted by aircraft.
- 4 Jun. 1942 Battle of Midway (4-6 June) begins; this battle is turning point of war.
- 6 Jun. 1944 Allied Expeditionary Force invades Western Europe. Landings are made on the beaches of Normandy.
- 23 Oct. 1944 Battle of Leyte Gulf takes place.
- 9 May 1945 V-E Day occurs as Germany surrenders unconditionally to Western Allies and the Soviet Union.
- 6 Aug. 1945 First atomic bomb is dropped on Hiroshima, Japan.
- 2 Sep. 1945 World War II ends.

During World War II the Germans once again demonstrated shortsightedness and the incapacity to make the best use of their resources in sea power. Again, they failed to plan for control of the sea by building an adequate number of ships.

Even so, had the Axis power correctly estimated the strategic importance of the Mediterranean early in the war, it could have concentrated all possible naval resources in that area. Then with the Italian fleet as the main striking force and with other military forces operating in support, the Mediterranean might well have fallen under Axis power. Under such circumstances the Allies' African campaign would have faced almost insurmountable difficulties.

England held an uncertain tenure in the Mediterranean while U.S. forces were being assembled. Later, with combined strength, the United States and England conducted the great amphibious campaigns against North Africa, Sicily, Italy, Normandy, and the Mediterranean coast of France. The success of each of these campaigns was a stepping-stone to final victory.

In the first years of the war, the United States' range of operation was limited. As the Americans reduced Japan's navy, the U.S. Navy grew, especially in the area of naval air superiority. The United States was then able to operate more freely, to bypass enemy strongholds, and to omit many grueling campaigns.

Sea power means more than controlling the sea for one's own use; it also means denying its use to the enemy. Therefore, the United States also used naval blockades to deny Japan the use of the sea and eventually starve its economy.

With local control of the Pacific, Japan had been able to capture Singapore, the western Aleutians, the East Indies, the Solomons, and to threaten Australia. When Japan lost this control, it was unable to send men, supplies, and ships to the aid of Okinawa, the threshold of its homeland.

Because of the effects of sea power, United States landings in Leyte and Lingayen were ahead of schedule. In addition, the blockades prevented Japan from exploiting its strength in the Philippines and from satisfactorily reinforcing its troops at the point of attack. Control of the sea enabled United States forces to bypass many islands and avoid water controlled by the enemy.

Sea power permits multiple use of the same force; a small army becomes in effect many

armies. This proved to be true as only a handful of U.S. forces in the Pacific drove steadily toward the Japanese home islands. In much of the central and western Pacific, the Japanese had a strong numerical superiority; but a large portion of its troops never entered into combat. Without adequate shipping and naval air power, the Japanese legions were helpless against the superiority of the few U.S. divisions that opposed them.

As demonstrated against Germany and Japan during World War II, naval blockades have a major impact on the outcome of war. Further understanding of a blockade's numbing grip can be gained from figures released in a report from General MacArthur's headquarters in Japan following World War II. (General MacArthur was Commander in Chief, Far East Command.)

This report showed a peak wartime production of approximately 9,600,000 tons of steel ingots in the Japanese Empire in 1943. By 1945 Japan's steel industry was producing at the rate of only 120,000 tons a year. The report indicated that 1,800,000 tons of the annual capacity was erased by bombing. The remaining 7,680,000-ton loss in production was the result of naval blockades.

Another part of this report showed further evidence of how naval blockades helped break down Japan's economy. In 1941 a total of 4,000,000 tons of iron ore was required by the Japanese steel industry. Of this, some 3,000,000 tons had to be imported from the Asiatic mainland and from the Philippines. As the naval blockade tightened, imports dropped off; by 1944 the iron content of imported ore was less than 30 percent of the tonnage imported in 1941.

In common with those of other nations, Japan's sea and air fleets were entirely dependent on petroleum for fuel. Japan imported nearly all of its petroleum supply. When the blockade applied by American submarines cut this vital supply line in 1944, Japanese naval and air forces were doomed to eventual paralysis. The industrial deterioration induced in Japan by the blockade was somewhat slower to take effect, but it was equally fatal to the nation's war effort. Industrial potential is essential in developing sea power; therefore, the destruction of an enemy's industrial



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The sun sets in Tokyo Bay on the Allied naval might gathered there on the eve of world peace, 27 August 1945.

potential is equally important in weakening its sea power.

Admiral Ernest J. King, former Chief of Naval Operations, summarized the part sea power played in World War II:

In the European war, seapower was an essential factor because of the necessity of transmitting our entire military effort across the Atlantic and supporting it there. Without command of the sea, this could not have been done. Nevertheless, the surrender of land, sea, and air forces of the German Reich on 8 May 1945 was the direct result of the application of airpower over land and the power of the allied ground forces.

In the Pacific war, the power of our ground and strategic air forces, like seapower in the Atlantic, was an essential factor. By contrast with

Germany, however, Japan's armies were intact and undefeated and her air forces only weakened when she surrendered, but her navy had been destroyed and her merchant fleet had been fatally crippled. Dependent upon imported food and raw materials and relying upon sea transport to supply her armies at home and overseas, Japan lost the war because she lost command of the sea and, in doing so, lost—to the United States—the island bases from which her war-making potential could be destroyed by air.

KOREAN CONFLICT

On 26 June 1950 the United Nations made a joint decision to give the Republic of Korea air and naval assistance. Three days later, the cruiser USS *Juneau* and the destroyer USS *Dehaven* fired the first bombardment of the conflict.

When North Korea attacked south of the 38th parallel, the U.S. Navy was called on for close air support to destroy bridges and block enemy supply routes. Navy jets flew from carriers for the first time in a war situation. Unlike the enemy in World War II, North Korea didn't have the capability of striking our carriers; so pilots launched their Corsairs and Banshees on the first sustained group-support missions in history.

The helicopter was originally developed during World War II but came of age during the Korean conflict. The Navy received four Sikorsky helicopters in the earlier years of the conflict. In comparison with today's helicopter, these were primitive, awkward-looking aircraft. The Navy used these ugly duckling choppers as spotters for artillery fire, to fly emergency supply runs, and in direct combat duties. Later, the helicopter was used as a cargo transport between ships during underway replenishment, for search and rescue missions, and in antisubmarine warfare (ASW) exercises,

The Korean conflict also introduced the first use of helicopters for medical evacuation. They were used to transport wounded soldiers from the battlefield to Mobile Army Surgical Hospital (MASH) units and from these units to Navy hospital ships. In addition to the helicopter, many other innovations currently used by the Navy were tested during this conflict. Some of these innovations included the introduction of Navy jets for air combat and the first use of air-to-air missiles. The first surface-to-air Terrier missile was also tested. In June of 1952 the keel of the world's first nuclear-powered submarine was laid.

One of the most notable events of the Korean conflict came on 15 September 1950 when U.S. amphibious landings at Inchon began. Besides the protection U.S. Navy ships provided for these landings with massive shore bombardment, the battleship *Missouri* successfully shelled inland supply roads far ashore. This successful operation cut the enemy's communications, split its forces, and dissolved resistance in the area. The operation demonstrated a new concept of sea power—the Navy's ability to intervene successfully in a ground operation.

The Korean conflict ended in July 1953.

VIETNAM CONFLICT

During the Vietnam conflict, five attack carriers were deployed to the western Pacific (WESTPAC), with three of them constantly on line in the Tonkin Gulf area. Embarked carrier

air wings furnished almost half of the total tactical effort in Vietnam. They destroyed or heavily damaged hundreds of military targets in North Vietnam. They also successfully suppressed land transport as well as waterborne logistic craft on rivers and bays and along coastal routes.

Sharing importance with attack carrier operations were amphibious operations on the coast of the Republic of Vietnam. Two amphibious ready groups with embarked Marine special landing forces were committed to the Vietnam effort. Each group was capable of conducting assaults over the beach by both landing craft and helicopter. More than 50 battalion-size amphibious operations were conducted after the initial landings in March 1965. The mobility of the amphibious groups and their readiness to strike on short notice kept the enemy off balance, disrupted logistical support, and denied the enemy the use of profitable coastal areas.

The Navy provided gunfire support from May 1965 until the end of the United States' involvement. Targets destroyed or damaged by the Navy included storage areas, military areas, missile sites, and railroads. The battleship USS *New Jersey* was recommissioned to provide increased capabilities in naval gunfire support. A heavy cruiser could fire an 8-inch projectile only 14 miles. Any one of the *New Jersey's* 16-inch guns could hurl a projectile four times the weight of the cruiser's projectile a distance of 20 miles. In addition, the projectile could penetrate 30 feet of reinforced concrete. After the successful completion of its mission, the *New Jersey* was again decommissioned. Realizing the peace-keeping effort these ships contribute to the world, the United States recommissioned the *New Jersey* and three other battleships in the 1980s.

The Vietnam conflict exemplified the kind of war we can expect in the future—intermingling of the most primitive guerilla operations with the most advanced weapons. To counter this threat, the U.S. Seventh Fleet has provided dramatic evidence of the Navy's ability to project the national policy of the United States wherever water permits navigation.

PERSIAN GULF

The United States and other nations of the Western world together consume nearly three-fourths of the world's petroleum products. Therefore, the nations of the Western world have significant economic, geopolitical, and military

interests in the countries and waters of the Middle East.

U.S. forces have been visible in this vital, oil-rich region since 1949. They frequently operate in the Persian Gulf, Gulf of Aden, Gulf of Oman, Red Sea, Arabian Sea, and western Indian Ocean. However, events in the Persian Gulf in the mid-1980s brought the United States into new roles in defending sea power.

Iran and Iraq had been at war for 5 years when Iraq began attacking Iranian oil facilities and tankers in the Persian Gulf. Iran countered with attacks against ships flying flags sympathetic to Iraq. U.S. Navy ships quickly started protecting U.S. flagged tankers from attacks by either country in what came to be known as the "tanker war."

In 1987 the United States took action to keep oil flowing freely through the Straits of Hormuz. As a result, the number of Middle East ships more than doubled over the summer of 1987 from 5 to 12. USS *Ranger* (CV-61) and USS *Missouri* (BB-63) battle groups, mine countermeasure teams, and special warfare units joined other forces already in the area. These combined forces became America's largest deployed naval presence since the Vietnam era. The British, French, Italians, Belgians, and Dutch eventually joined their American counterparts in the Persian Gulf. Working independently, each navy displayed its own colors, protected its own shipping, and helped sweep mines from shipping lanes.

Even though the protective forces grew, ships traveling in the Persian Gulf were under the constant threat of attack. Danger existed from fighter aircraft of both sides; Iranian Silkworm antiship missiles; Iran's Revolutionary Guard suicide boats; and, of course, mines.

The missile threat proved costly to the United States when the USS *Stark* (FFG-31) was mistakenly identified by an Iraq attack aircraft. Two missiles fired from the jet struck the *Stark* on 17 May 1987, killing 37 sailors and injuring many more.

Mines had not been a serious threat to naval operations for several years, but the Iranians' use of mines brought a new awareness of their danger. On 14 April 1988 USS *Samuel B. Roberts* (FFG-58) hit a mine in the Persian Gulf and suffered severe damage. Since several tankers had also hit mines, the Navy had already intensified its mine-sweeping efforts.

In the process of defending the sea lanes in the Persian Gulf, the presence of the United States was largely a defensive measure. When forced

to take offensive action, the United States bombarded an Iranian oil platform being used as an Iranian Revolutionary Guard command post (fig. 1-2). American fire power also sunk an Iranian mine-laying vessel caught in the act of laying mines. The American policy of freedom of the high seas was once again preserved in the Persian Gulf. As the war ended between Iran and Iraq in 1989 and tensions subsided, the naval presence of the United States decreased but never disappeared.

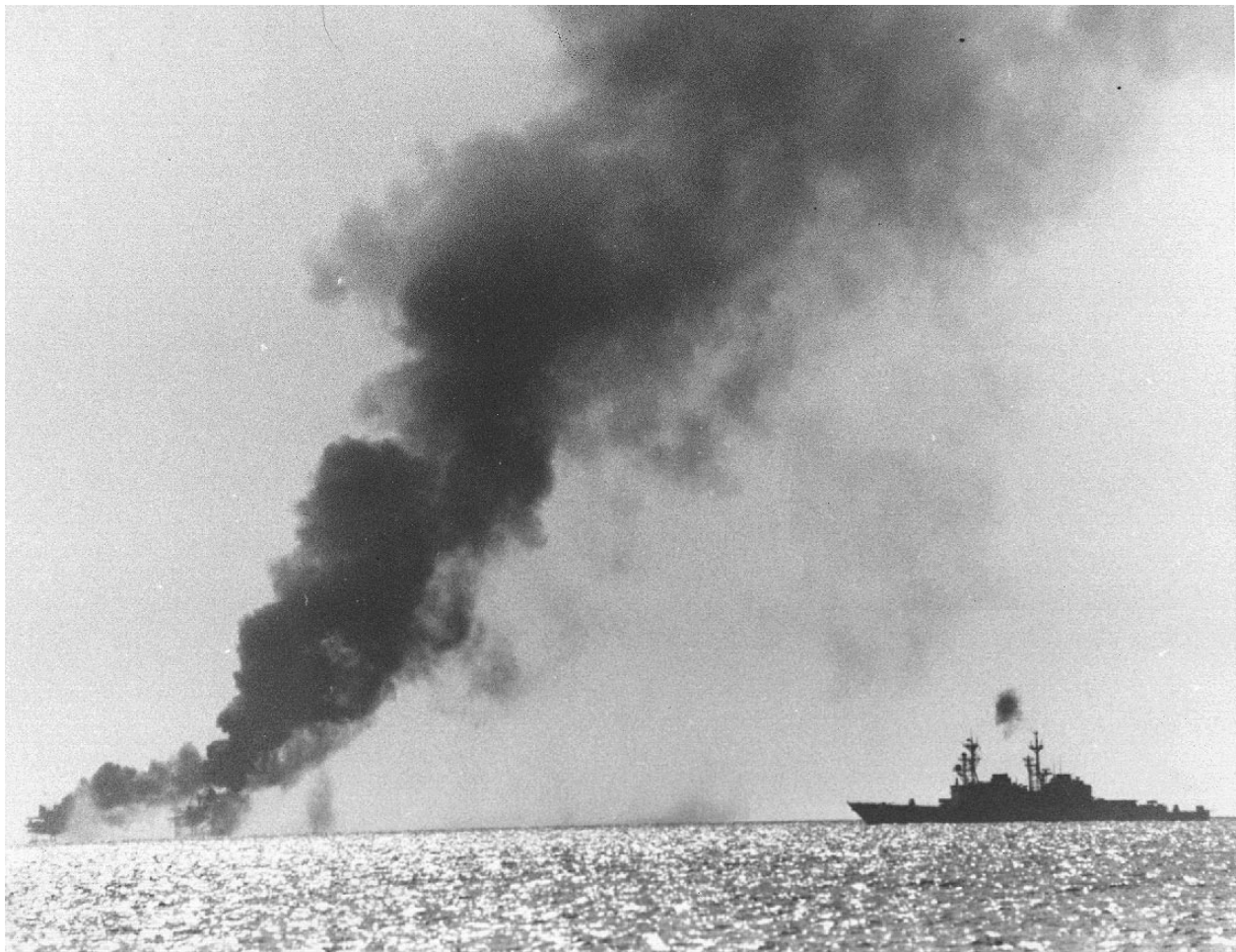
IMPORTANCE OF SEA POWER

To fully understand the importance of sea power, you must consider the geographic makeup of the earth. Ocean areas are so extensive that all landmasses on earth are open to attack or pressure from the sea. This attests to the broad impact of sea power.

Today the globe can be spanned by nuclear-armed missiles in a mere 15 minutes. However, in war or peace the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans remain wide barriers to international and domestic commerce. Any significant amount of manpower, strategic supplies, raw materials, or manufactured goods must still cross these barriers in 20-knot ships.

Although the United States faces both the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, the Atlantic has been of primary interest to this nation since its independence. Encompassing 32 million square miles, the Atlantic is the second largest ocean in the world; but its size is not its most important feature. More vital is the community of nations that border the Atlantic. Bordering the north are the industrial centers of our Western civilization. Bordering the south are the resource-rich, emerging nations of Africa and Latin America. The Atlantic is the main highway of commerce binding together the old and new nations that conduct more than two-thirds of the world's merchant shipping. This makes the North Atlantic the most heavily traveled stretch of water in the world. More than 2,000 merchant vessels are steaming North Atlantic trade routes every day of the year.

In size, however, the Atlantic Ocean is small when compared to the Pacific Ocean. Unequaled in vastness by any other landmass or sea, the Pacific Ocean covers 67 million square miles. It covers a third of the surface of the world, equaling the combined areas of the Atlantic, Indian, and Arctic Oceans. The Pacific Ocean also exceeds in area the total of all the landmasses of



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Figure 1-2.—U.S. ships blowing up oil platform in the Persian Gulf.

the world. The north-to-south span of the Pacific is more than 75,000 miles. The Pacific separates Asia and North America by only 67 miles at the northern extremes. These two continents veer sharply away from each other at the southern extremes with more than 10,500 miles of the Pacific Ocean between them. By its very size, the Pacific influences the strategic thinking and planning of every nation bordering it.

A third ocean bordering the North American continent has achieved strategic importance because of the development of nuclear power. Nuclear submarines can remain submerged under the polar ice pack for long periods of time. Therefore, their entry into the Arctic Ocean has made this a 5.5-million-square-mile potential battleground. The Arctic Ocean is also important because the Soviet Union's longest coastline borders it. Since the Arctic Ocean has become a naval operating area, the whole Eurasian continent, including the Soviet Union, has become vulnerable to sea power. The southern borders of the Eurasian continent have always been susceptible to pressure from the sea.

For centuries, the Indian Ocean has been an arena for competing sea powers vying for the riches of south Asian and Middle Eastern shores. Twenty-eight million square miles of the Indian Ocean stretches from Malaysia to Africa, countries that occupy a third of the world's population.

Most of the populated land areas of the world are no more than 500 miles from the sea. In the event of armed conflict, virtually no spot on earth is beyond the range of attack from the sea. This is the most profound change in the total history of warfare. Sea power can be deployed over three-fourths of the earth's surface unhampered by international boundaries. The sea is unowned—but it is jointly owned by all sovereign nations.

Because the sea is so important in the event of armed conflict, the U.S. Navy needs to remain strong. However, a strong Navy is also important in support of our national objectives for the following reasons:

- Two of our states (Hawaii and Alaska) are located overseas.

Ž Four U.S. territories (Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands, Guam, and the northern Marianas) lie overseas.

Ž We have formal alliances with 42 nations, 40 of which lie overseas and two (Canada and Mexico) that border the United States.

- Our principal allies (NATO and Japan) are highly dependent on United States support and imports, the bulk of which must be transported by sea.

Ž Ninety-nine percent of United States' overseas trade is transported by sea lanes of communication (world trade routes).

Ž U.S. industrial output depends on continued shipments of raw materials and energy-producing resources from overseas.

Ž Our ability to control the sea is essential in the deterrence of general war and aggression against any nation or area vital to our interest.

SEA POWER IN SUPPORT OF OUR NATIONAL OBJECTIVES

One of the greatest concerns of those in the naval service is the Navy's mission, function, and role involving sea power in support of the national objective of the United States. The younger sailor often asks questions such as Why are we getting underway? What is the purpose of this deployment? Why are we operating on the other side of the world?

To understand the answers to these questions, you need a good understanding of the Navy's mission. You also need to understand the functions and roles the Navy plays in support of this mission.

MISSION OF THE NAVY

The mission of the U.S. Navy is set forth in Title 10 of the U.S. Code. It states that the U.S. Navy must be prepared to conduct prompt and sustained combat operations in support of the national interest. This means the Navy must assure continued maritime superiority for the United States. The U.S. Navy must be able to totally defeat any threats to the continued free use of the high seas by the United States. The Navy assures continued maritime superiority through

the destruction of hostile aircraft, surface ships, and submarines that threaten seaborne forces of the United States and our allies. This mission is carried out within the framework of the national strategy, in joint coordination with the other services, and in combined planning with U.S. allies.

To fully understand the Navy's mission, you should be familiar with the following terms:

NATIONAL STRATEGY—National strategy is that broad course of action designed to achieve national objectives in support of national interests. The United States maintains defense forces to preserve its physical security and protect its political independence. The ability of the defense forces to satisfy this objective depends on their capacity to deter aggression and to prevent coercion. It also depends on their capacity to exercise a degree of influence to shape world events in a manner conducive to U.S. interests.

NATIONAL OBJECTIVES—National objectives are specific goals our nation seeks to advance, support, or protect identified national interests. These goals can be categorized as political or economic objectives or as objectives of security.

NATIONAL INTERESTS—National interests are generalized conditions, frequently of a continuing nature, the pursuit or protection of which is perceived to be advantageous to the nation. They range from the ultimate interest, national survival, to specific regional interests that determine the importance of a region to the security of the United States.

NAVAL STRATEGY—Naval strategy is the use of naval forces (including naval aviation and Marine forces) to achieve naval objectives that are determined by national strategy. The overall naval-strategy objective is to control the sea and deny an enemy's use of the sea in those areas important to our operations.

FUNCTIONS OF THE NAVY

The primary functions of the Navy and the Marine Corps are to organize, train, and equip Navy and Marine Corps forces to conduct prompt

and sustained combat operations at sea. Operations include sea-based aircraft and land-based naval air components. In effect, these forces seek out and destroy enemy naval forces and suppress enemy sea commerce. They gain and maintain general naval supremacy, control vital sea areas, and protect vital sea lines of communications. They also establish and maintain local superiority in land and air operations and seize and defend advanced naval bases.

The Navy also provides forces for joint amphibious operations. It is responsible for training all forces assigned to these operations in amphibious warfare as directed by Joint Chiefs of Staff. Other specific responsibilities assigned to the Navy are naval reconnaissance, antisubmarine warfare, protection of shipping, mine-laying, and controlled minefield operations. In conjunction with the other services, the Navy provides forces for the defense of the United States against air attack.

Because of the complexity of the Navy's function, a massive modernization of Navy ships, aircraft, and weapons has been undertaken. Basically, the modernization has taken three forms: (1) the speedup of research and development to develop new weapons; (2) laying up of old ships to save operating and overhauling costs, thereby directing this money into new construction; and (3) the "hi-low balanced mix" concept. This hi-low concept is a balance in the purchase of a few highly effective ships and aircraft, such as CVNs, SSBNs, and F/A-18 aircraft, with a concurrent development of new classes of low-cost ships, such as guided-missile frigates.

The Navy has entered a new phase of scientific warfare—one in which nuclear weapons and guided missiles are the primary destructive weapons. Conventional weapons, of course, are still maintained and being improved. Such weapons enable the Navy, with its Marine component, to deploy rapidly and to apply the force necessary to contain a limited war.

The Navy's achievements in the development of scientific projects continue to lead the world. These achievements range from earth navigation and communications satellites to the improvement of nuclear propulsion. The Navy's Polaris missile, operational in nuclear-powered submarines at sea, was the first intermediate-range ballistic missile (IRBM) to be equipped with the solid-propellant motor. The Poseidon and Trident missiles, which have extended range and multiple warheads, were developed following the success of the Polaris missile. They have since replaced the Polaris.

Other Navy achievements include pioneering new developments in communications, navigation, underwater acoustics, oceanography, and a host of other scientific fields. One particular achievement is the successful pioneering of the route from the Pacific to the Atlantic beneath the North Polar ice cap.

The Navy has divided its mission into four functional areas: (1) strategic deterrence, (2) sea control, (3) projection of power ashore, and (4) naval presence.

Strategic Deterrence

Strategic deterrence has three objectives. The first of these is to deter (prevent or discourage) an all-out attack on the United States or its allies. The second objective is to cause any possible attacker to face an unacceptable risk in the event of an attack. The final objective is to keep the United States and its allies politically stable and secure enough to withstand the threat of attack or blackmail.

How does the Navy accomplish the objectives of strategic deterrence? First, the Navy maintains an ASSURED SECOND-STRIKE CAPABILITY. This means that if an enemy were to launch an all-out attack, the United States could deliver massive retaliation (counterattack) even after the attack. The Navy's fleet ballistic missile submarines (nuclear) (SSBNs) are the backbone of this tactic because of their high probability of surviving a nuclear attack. Second, the tactic of CONTROLLED RESPONSE is used. This means that the Navy will respond to a partial attack only to the degree required. This is hoped to prevent a general nuclear war. The SSBN fleet is also the backbone of this tactic.

Sea Control

Our nation's definition of sea control is denying the use of the sea to our enemy and assuring the use of the sea to the United States and its allies. In today's world, sea control can be exercised only over limited areas of the sea.

Although sea control is accomplished by four tactics, many weapons and weapons systems can be used with these tactics. The correct tactic and weapons systems to be used depends on the situation. The four tactics used to accomplish sea control are as follows:

1. SORTIE CONTROL is used to keep an enemy within ports and bases. As the enemy

attempts to sortie (go on missions), the enemy units are destroyed. Submarines and mines are often used with this tactic.

2. **CHOKEPOINT CONTROL** is used to prevent the enemy from going through geographical bottlenecks. The enemy must concentrate forces when at these points and is, therefore, vulnerable to attack.

3. **OPEN AREA OPERATIONS** are used when the tactics above do not work or if the enemy is already underway at sea or in the air. Search and surveillance systems are used to locate and track the enemy before attacks.

4. **LOCAL ENGAGEMENT** is the final tactic. This tactic involves a concentration of forces in a limited area. These forces may attack and destroy any enemy when it enters the range of their weapons either before or after an attack.

Historically, the Navy's radius of action has been limited to the enemy's coastline, plus the range of the ship's guns. With the development of high-performance aircraft and ballistic missiles, the Navy's range of action now spans continents.

Ships, because of their mobility, are less accessible targets than shore bases. Furthermore, as a partial deterrent to the destructive capabilities of nuclear weapons, the dispersal concept has been added to fleet doctrine.

Projection of Power Ashore

This functional area involves the impact of naval forces on land forces. Three types of actions are used to project power ashore: **AMPHIBIOUS ASSAULT**, **NAVAL BOMBARDMENT**, and **TACTICAL AIR PROJECTION**.

Although amphibious assault and naval bombardment are probably familiar to you, tactical air projection may not be. Tactical air projection is divided into four categories:

1. **DEEP INTERDICTION**—This tactic involves carrier-based air attacks outside the battle area. These attacks are designed to destroy or cripple the enemy's military potential.

2. **BATTLEFIELD INTERDICTION**—This tactic involves carrier-based air attacks on military targets of immediate importance. These attacks are used to slow the enemy's movement of supplies and reinforcements.

3. **CLOSE AIR SUPPORT**—This tactic provides direct support to front-line ground troops by specially trained Marine Corps air units.

It usually involves precision attacks on targets just ahead of the front-line troops.

4. **COUNTER AIR/ANTIAIR WARFARE**—This tactic is designed to keep the enemy from using aircraft or missiles to attack our forces or defend the enemy's forces. It involves attacks on enemy aircraft, missile installations, and air fields.

Naval Presence

Naval presence is the use of naval forces for political objectives without war. Generally, it consists of **PREVENTIVE DEPLOYMENTS** and **RESPONSIVE DEPLOYMENTS**.

Preventive deployments are a show of force during peacetime to indicate the capability of the Navy's forces. Responsive deployments are an indication of the response of the Navy to a crisis situation.

In either case, the presence of the Navy is a threat of action. This threat does not have to be spoken. Hopefully, the mere presence of the Navy will be enough to cause the problem to disappear. United States forces can use these deployments to reassure allies and deter possible aggression from potential enemies.

All of these tactics are designed to accomplish the mission of the Navy—preparedness to conduct prompt and sustained combat operations at sea.

THE SOVIET THREAT

Before a nation can make any strategic plans for the employment of its forces, it must consider who or what its threat or opponent might be. It can then analyze the opponent or threat and make plans to counter any opposition that arises. For the United States, the Soviet Union and the Warsaw Pact nations are considered to be a threat.

SOVIET MILITARY THREAT

The Communist party of the Soviet Union is concerned with the nature of a possible future war. The military doctrine of the Soviet Union is to prepare the country and its armed forces for conducting such a war. The Soviets view war as an extension of politics and therefore emphasize offensive operations. A Soviet victory in either a conventional or nuclear war would neutralize the influence of NATO on world politics. It would also end the political structure of the United States as we know it today.

Soviet leadership understands that in addition to maintaining strong offensive capabilities, an equally strong defensive posture is needed. The Soviet Union maintains a massive arsenal of military weaponry and a sizable number of military personnel to use these weapons. The Soviet preparedness is a threat that should not be taken lightly. As part of the free world, we should learn the capabilities of the Soviets and stay abreast of the changes in their systems and

equipment. For a comparison of U.S. and Soviet military assets, see figure 1-3.

SOVIET POLITICAL THREAT

The Soviet political threat lies in the nation's political policy of spreading communism to Third World countries. While the Soviets maintain a strong influence over Warsaw-Pact nations, they exert even more influence on Third World











PLATFORM		UNITED STATES	RUSSIA
ICBMs		1,000	1,386
SLBMs		560	978
STRATEGIC BOMBERS		372	888
STRATEGIC DEFENSE INTERCEPTORS ...		252	2,250
TACTICAL AIRCRAFT		3,976	5,170
AIRCRAFT CARRIERS		15	4
PRINCIPAL SURFACE COMBATANTS		223	276
OTHER COMBATANT SHIPS		80	408
AUXILIARIES		130	311
SUBMARINES		132	308

Figure 1-3.—Comparison of United States and Soviet military assets. Figures are approximate, based on information available at the time of writing.

countries. While seeking the promised benefits of communism, these countries often fail to realize the future price they will pay for accepting the Communist regime. The Soviet Union has spread its influence all over the world, establishing puppet states in such places as North Korea, Vietnam, Cuba, Nicaragua, and Peru.

In December of 1979 the Soviets invaded Afghanistan in an unsuccessful attempt to dictate to a sovereign nation through the introduction of Soviet troops. On 15 February 1989 the last Soviet troops were withdrawn from Afghanistan. The Soviet Union seriously miscalculated the ability and determination of Afghan Resistance Forces to defend their country against communism.

In March of 1985 Mikhail Gorbachev assumed the post of General Secretary of the Communist party. Under his leadership a new policy of *glasnost* has been adopted. Although *glasnost* is interpreted by some in the West to mean openness, its meaning to the Soviets is publicity or officially managed perceptions. Under this policy, the Communist party still maintains control over the media. However, the regime selectively allows more complete reporting of "negative" domestic news and foreign policy issues previously suppressed by Soviet censors. The regime has also significantly loosened the restrictions on cultural expression, tolerating a much wider range of themes in literature, film, theater, and art. The Soviet leadership has continued to crack down on alcohol, drug abuse, and other manifestations of what Gorbachev calls "social corrosion."

Nevertheless, the Communists still prohibit public debate on certain topics, such as the primary influence of the party in national life, the KGB, and some human rights issues.

Whether *glasnost* will alter the Soviet political threat remains to be seen; however, these changes do bring hope.

THE SOVIET NAVY

Today's Soviet navy is larger, better equipped, and more balanced in structure than ever before. It is also far more capable of meeting the requirements of conventional or nuclear war at almost any level (fig. 1-4). Future Soviet naval policy and programs will be directed toward broadening the range of military and political options available. These options will span the entire spectrum of conflict, from peacetime competition to nuclear war.

The Soviets began the 1980s with the introduction of three new classes of surface warships, two new classes of attack submarines, and a new class of helicopters. The *Kirov* entered the Soviet fleet as its first nuclear-powered surface combatant. Also entering the fleet was the ASUW-oriented Sovremenny-class guided-missile destroyer (DDG) and the ASW-oriented Udaloy-class DDG. Among them, these three classes introduced six new weapons systems: The *Kirov's* SS-N-19 antiship cruise missile (ASCM) and SA-N-6 surface-to-air missile (SAM); the Sovremenny's medium-range SS-N-22 ASCM and SA-N-7 SAM



Figure 1-4.—Soviet warships.

134.3

and new 130-mm dual-purpose, twin-gun mount; and the Udaloy's SA-NX-9 SAM.

Presently, the Soviet navy includes about 185 surface combatant ships and craft carrying surface-to-surface missiles. In addition, nearly 70 of the navy's submarines carry subsurface-to-surface missiles. The Kirov and Slava cruisers (introduced in 1982) and the Sovremenny DDG's have greatly increased cruise-missile firepower. They carry antiship missiles with performance characteristics that make offensive tactics increasingly difficult.

Also entering the fleet during 1980 were two general-purpose submarines classes, the Oscar I (fig. 1-5) and the Kilo. Those in the Oscar I class are nuclear-powered, cruise-missile attack submarines (SSGN). They have slightly over three times the displacement of their functional predecessors, the Charlie II-class SSGNs, and can carry 24 ASCMs. In wartime, the Oscar I-class submerged-launch SS-N-19 ASCMs will be targeted primarily against NATO carrier battle groups. In contrast, the Kilo-class diesel-electric attack submarines (SS) are relatively small (about 3,000 metric tons). These submarines rely on antisurface or ASW torpedoes and were designed for operations primarily in sea areas near the Soviet Union.

The Oscar I and Kilo classes of attack submarines are noteworthy in that they typify recent Soviet naval construction trends. Specifically, the Soviets have continued building naval platforms capable of operating in the open ocean. They have built these vessels without sacrificing those designed to perform the Soviet navy's traditional

coastal defense mission. These vessels demonstrate marked improvements in submarine quieting. This feature reduces their noise level under certain operating conditions, while improving their effectiveness against opposing submarines.

Improvements of existing ASW aircraft evolved into the production of the Helix A and the Helix B ship-based helicopter and the long-range Bear F Mod 4. Similar improvements in ships designed primarily for ASW have also been observed. Even the largest modern Soviet combatants, including the Kiev-class carriers and the Kirov-class Cans, carry sensor and weapons suites (a group of systems). These suites include powerful low frequency sonar; ASW rockets, missiles, and torpedoes; and ASW helicopters.

The Soviets have expended considerable resources in recent years on developing ASW platforms and systems, particularly nuclear-powered attack submarines. However, they have not yet resolved the problem of locating Western submarines in the open ocean.

All things considered, the Soviets are a formidable naval power. They can be expected to increase their emphasis on making general-purpose naval forces more capable. They can also be expected to continue challenging the West's traditional dominance of the open oceans.

SOVIET NAVY PERSONNEL

Soviet navy personnel occupy a respected position within the Soviet society. Military service in the Soviet Union is regarded as a special form of service to the state. It is rewarded by



Figure 1-5.-Soviet OSCAR-I submarine.

134.4

continuous praise and commendation from Soviet public leaders and the press. Even more tantalizing to the average Soviet citizen, for whom foreign travel is basically impossible, is the opportunity navy personnel have to see the world.

Enlisted men are either 2-year or 3-year draftees; the latter term of service is required if the draftee is assigned sea duty. The Soviet Union does not draft women for military service. They are used in clerical and support positions. Soviet women are not considered to be an integral part of the armed services as are the service women of the United States.

Of approximately 443,000 uniformed personnel of the Soviet navy, about 169,000 serve afloat and 70,000 are attached to naval aviation units. In addition to the 18,000-man naval infantry force, another 14,000 are assigned to coastal defense activities. About 46,000 are engaged in various stages of training, and 126,000 are used to provide shore support. Additionally, a large number of civilians, perhaps as many as 30,000, form the crews of the majority of Soviet naval auxiliary ships.

Enlisted Personnel

The enlisted man of the Soviet navy is a draftee with limited training and little career inclination. Draftees are drawn from all the 16 republics within the USSR. Often those from Asian republics speak little Russian. Since draftees are inducted into the services twice a year, this means that every 6 months about 15 percent of the naval enlisted strength is replaced by recruits.

The new inductees undergo a 9-week basic training program, after which they are either sent to a specialist school or directly to a duty assignment. A small number of recruits that have previously completed a military specialist preparation course are sent directly to sea duty from basic training. Those judged physically or intellectually substandard are assigned to shore duty (as librarians, clerks, and so on). Approximately 75 percent of the personnel entering the navy undergo specialist training, after which they receive their first shipboard assignment.

Soviet technical training lasts from 4 to 6 months. Specialists graduate with an apparent understanding of the theoretical complexities of their own specialty but with little practical training. Consequently, enlisted personnel receive the more significant and practical training after they arrive on board ship.

Once aboard, these personnel are assigned to the more senior sailors who, along with the officers and warrant officers in their department, train them as replacements. The new specialists then begin their study for a class specialist rating of Master 1, 2, or 3. If a sailor passes the Master 3 specialist test, fulfills certain requirements of the Party Youth Organization (*Komsomol*), and has no disciplinary violations, he will be rated "outstanding" by the ship's captain. The number and class of specialists and the number rated outstanding are used as a measure in evaluating a ship's performance. Over 90 percent of all seamen are rated Master 3 specialists by the end of their first tour of duty.

The ability of the Soviet specialist is limited by inadequate school instruction and testing and the lack of facilities for intensive shipboard on-the-job training. Because of these shortcomings, the specialist is only able to perform routine maintenance and general operation of a limited range of equipment. The Soviets have alleviated some of these shortcomings by assembling most shipboard equipment using standard components and modules.

Officer Personnel

The Soviet navy faces a chronic shortage of senior enlisted personnel. The reenlistment rate averages under 10 percent, in part because of the national requirement that all males must serve on active duty in the Soviet armed forces. In an effort to overcome this shortage and to upgrade the status of a career serviceman, the Soviet navy introduced the rank of warrant officer (*michman*) in 1971. At completion of compulsory service, the Soviet sailor, if considered capable, is offered additional specialist and military training in a 2-year warrant officer school. In return he must reenlist for a 5-year period, which includes the time spent in schooling.

The warrant officer serves as the principal interface between officer and enlisted personnel. In this capacity the warrant officer has more responsibilities than a senior petty officer. As a result of more extensive training and experience, the warrant officer can relieve the officers of some of the more technical duties the enlisted person is not qualified to perform. Benefits increase considerably because pay, privileges, and leave offered to the warrant officer approach those of an officer. In addition, the warrant officer has the opportunity to achieve promotion to an officer rank after a number of years in service.

The regular sea-going Soviet naval officer is a career volunteer who has been carefully selected and is well trained and highly specialized. More often than not, the Soviet naval officer is a relative of a party official or another naval officer.

A majority of regular naval officers are now drawn from specialized naval schools. A small number begin as reservists after graduation from civilian universities, and a few others are promoted from the warrant officer ranks. A youth normally starts a naval career after a vigorous selection program as a cadet at one of 11 higher naval schools. The course of study is intense and lasts 5 years, with the graduates receiving a national engineering diploma and the rank of lieutenant.

Some Soviet officers begin their naval careers at about the age of 15 upon entering the Nakhimov naval school system. They then go into a higher naval educational institution upon graduation from the Nakhimov school. Upon graduation, regular officers are assigned to a ship for duty in the department that corresponds to their specialties (navigation, engineering, ASW, and so on). New officers usually spend the first 3 to 6 years of their career in the same department aboard the same ship, or at least in the same class of ship. During this period new officers earn a classification as a specialist in a technical pursuit. They must pass examinations to perform in various capacities as they progress through positions equivalent to assistant division officers, assistant department heads, and department heads.

Soviet naval officers are managers as well as technical specialists. The navy expects them to be

able to do virtually everything their subordinates can do. In addition the navy expects its officers to instruct subordinates in their duties and to take care of their "ideological well being." Because of the general low level of technical competence of enlisted personnel, the Soviet officer tends "to do everything," even the most routine maintenance. Loyal party members give junior officers quite a heavy work load. Complaints are frequent; yet, in spite of the complaints, the typical Soviet officer appears to fulfill these duties adequately.

Several major deficiencies may be clearly discerned about the education and experience of Soviet naval officers. They spend the first part of their career as a specialist in a very narrow field, restricted to one department in one class of ship. As a result, junior officers lack the needed broad experience and versatility to function outside their specific field. Often only upon selection as executive officer do they begin to develop the broader experience necessary for more senior posts. The Soviet navy places strong emphasis on collective thinking and party-enforced discipline. Because of this emphasis, Soviet junior officers often lack personal initiative, independent ideas, and the willingness to take responsibility—leadership characteristics that are necessary for command. However, by virtue of their varied positions, education, and training from midcareer onward, officers finally selected for flag rank are both educated and experienced.

The base pay for Soviet officers initially appears nominal. Taken in combination with the total allowances and benefits that a Soviet military officer accrues, the real income is substantial. For example, naval officers are given significant additional pay for service in northern areas, for service in submarines and aircraft, for sea duty, and for command. The prestigious and privileged class of Soviet military officers receive extensive benefits, according to rank, well beyond those of the average citizen.

INTERNATIONAL TIES

The United States and the Soviet Union are without doubt the major sea powers of the world

today. Even so, direct conflict between these two nations may not be necessary to start world conflict. Either nation's involvement in a major conflict may depend on its international ties with other less powerful nations.

The United States has over a period of many years established pacts and treaties with several nations. During and after World War II, the United States became part of an elaborate alliance system, committed to the defense of half the land areas of the world (fig. 1-6).

The North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), established in 1949, is the best known of several treaties drawn up in the interest of mutual security. The terms of the treaty specify that "the parties agree that an armed attack

against one or more of them in Europe or North America shall be considered an attack against them all, and . . . each of them . . . will assist the other by taking, in concert with the other parties, such action as it deems necessary including the use of armed forces."

A corresponding agreement similar to NATO called the ANZUS (Australia, New Zealand, and United States) Treaty was established in 1952.

The earlier Rio Treaty (1947) had already committed the United States and the 20 independent Latin American nations to mutual defense. In addition, America made bilateral treaties with the Philippines, Nationalist China, South Korea, and Japan. By 1960 the United States was committed

<u>NORTH ATLANTIC TREATY ORGANIZATION (NATO)</u>		<u>RIO TREATY</u>	
Signed at Washington April 4, 1949; entered into force for the United States August 24, 1949. States which are parties:		Inter-American treaty of reciprocal assistance. Done at Rio de Janeiro September 2, 1947; entered into force for the United States December 3, 1948. States which are parties:	
Belgium	Luxembourg	Argentina	Haiti
Canada	Netherlands	Bolivia	Honduras
Denmark	Norway	Brazil	Mexico
France	Portugal	Chile	Nicaragua
Germany, Fed. Rep.	Spain	Colombia	Panama
Greece	Turkey	Costa Rica	Paraguay
Iceland	United Kingdom	Cuba	Peru
Italy	United States	Dominican Rep.	Trinidad & Tobago
		Ecuador	United States
		El Salvador	Uruguay
		Guatemala	Venezuela
<u>ANZUS (SECURITY TREATY)</u>			
Signed at San Francisco September 1, 1951; entered into force for the United States April 29, 1952. States which are parties:			
Australia			
New Zealand			
United States			

Figure 1-6.-Treaties and pacts of which the United States is a member.

to the defense of some 45 sovereign nations besides its own territories. Even this total does not completely reflect the magnitude of the total defense problem for the United States armed forces.

Although NATO is still our number one alliance, our national strategy no longer focuses on the central front of Europe to the exclusion of other areas. Our strategy now recognizes with greater clarity the importance of the Norwegian northern flank. Likewise, it appreciates the importance of the Greek and Turkish southern flanks. It recognizes the importance of the Indian Ocean to our interests and the interests of our friends and allies around the globe. Finally, our new national strategy has begun to appreciate how critical the Far East is to our well-being.

Equally worthy of our concern is the long-term security of seaborne trade in the western Pacific. United States trade with Asian countries approximates its trade with Western Europe and is expected to continue to expand. The Asia-Pacific region has become an important strategic center, equaling that of Western Europe.

The United States and its allies, not the Soviets, are the nations who must exercise sea control in any conflict. We must also control the North Atlantic and beyond the Greenland-Iceland-United Kingdom Gap into the Norwegian Sea. The Soviets must never rest comforted in the belief that their northern bases and forces are invulnerable to attack from the sea. They are vulnerable, and we must keep them so.

SUMMARY

The two major navies in the world today are those of the United States and the USSR. The mission of our Navy is to be prepared to conduct prompt, sustained combat operations at sea in support of the national interests of the United States.

The peacetime mission of the U.S. Navy is to deter the outbreak of armed conflict in which our nation could become involved. The Navy deters such conflict through strategic nuclear deterrence and naval presence.

The wartime mission of the Navy has two basic functions: first, the Navy must be able to perform in a hostile environment; and second, it must exercise sea control and power projection.

The Soviet navy's policy is based on a Soviet drive to extend its national influence through the use of maritime activities. To support the Soviet objectives, the USSR has significantly improved its warship, aircraft, and weapons capabilities. The Soviets have made their presence felt through show-the-flag operations that include large increases in at-sea and distant deployment operations. They have committed themselves to developing and maintaining a navy "second to none."

This chapter has presented an interesting parallel between the life of Soviet sailors as compared to that of the American sailors. It has also presented some of the differences of the military efforts and forces of the United States and the USSR.

The Soviets have achieved significant advantages in strategic, nuclear, and conventional capabilities. This achievement is a result of two decades of steadily increasing Soviet military expenditures, coupled with a long period of Western restraint. These advantages have led directly to increased risks to free-world security. Strong U.S. leadership and the sustained support of U.S. defense programs and coalition measures are essential for the United States to meet the challenges ahead.

International ties between the United States and its allies have resulted in the United States being committed to the defense of many sovereign nations throughout the world. The purpose of these elaborate alliance systems is to prevent armed aggression against allied nations. An armed attack against one or more of these allied nations shall be considered an attack against them all.

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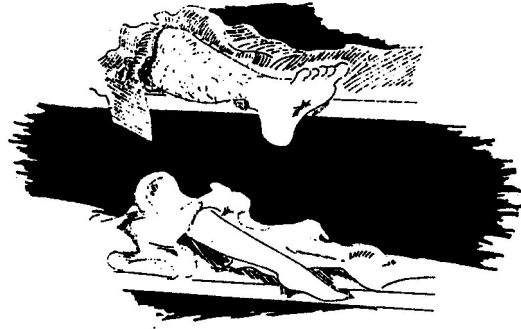
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SHOW A LEG

MANY OF OUR NAVY'S COLORFUL EXPRESSIONS ORIGINATED AS PRACTICAL MEANS OF COMMUNICATING VITAL INFORMATION. ONE SUCH EXPRESSION IS "SHOW A LEG."

IN THE BRITISH NAVY OF KING GEORGE III AND EARLIER, MANY SAILORS' WIVES ACCOMPANIED THEM ON LONG VOYAGES. THIS PRACTICE CAUSED A MULTITUDE OF PROBLEMS BUT SOME INGENIOUS BOSUN SOLVED ONE THAT TENDED TO MAKE REVEILLE A HAZARDOUS EVENT: THAT OF DISTINGUISHING WHICH BUNKS HELD MALES AND WHICH HELD FEMALES.

TO AVOID DRAGGING THE WRONG "MATES" OUT OF THE RACK, THE BOSUN ASKED ALL TO "SHOW A LEG." IF THE LEG SHOWN WAS ADORNED WITH SILK, THE OWNER WAS ALLOWED TO CONTINUE SLEEPING. IF THE LEG WAS HAIRY AND TATTOOED, THE OWNER WAS FORCED TO "TURN TO."

IN TODAY'S NAVY, SHOWING A LEG IS A SIGNAL TO THE REVEILLE PETTY OFFICER THAT YOU HAVE HEARD HIS CALL AND ARE AWAKE.