

GAME ON

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The Department of Defense (DoD) depends heavily on submarines for both deterrence and power projection. Yet, a combination of growing foreign capabilities and emerging U.S. force structure gaps highlights a rising set of operational risks to conventional deterrence in key theaters of operation. Even as DoD senior leaders emphasize a return to great power competition, the United States risks ceding a critical and long-standing competitive warfighting advantage in the undersea domain.

In a context of growing security challenges to the *status quo* in the East European and Asia-Pacific regions, the continued success of a U.S. strategy of conventional deterrence enabled through qualitative military superiority, global power projection, and theater security cooperation is in question. As capable as the current force is, it is insufficiently robust to meet growing theater operational needs; and force structure reductions over the next decade will further erode the U.S. undersea posture. At the same time, adversary capability advances suggest the undersea dimension is both an increasingly contested and high-consequence warfighting domain. For the United States, maintaining undersea dominance is integral to any credible power projection strategy—despite growing Russian and Chinese anti-access and area-denial (A2/AD) challenges.

Neither the planned resource base nor current spending priorities will close the most urgent combat capability gaps resulting from Russian and Chinese force structure investments. To maintain undersea dominance, and as a consequence strengthen conventional deterrence, DoD senior leaders should consider nine specific undersea posture enhancements:

- *Develop a mixed submarine force structure.* To close its most significant undersea warfighting gap—limited forward presence—the Navy must increase its planned submarine force structure. Ideally, it would procure more nuclear attack submarines to meet its expanding undersea requirements. But for reasons of time-urgency and affordability it should consider another available—if controversial—option: use of modern diesel-electrics as a near-term force multiplier in key operational theaters.

^{*} The views expressed are those of the author and may not reflect those of Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory, the Department of Energy, the National Nuclear Security Administration, or any other U.S. government entity.

- *Build a combined undersea presence.* The most credible U.S. diesel-electric operational employment concept begins with the premise of forward basing in the Asia-Pacific region—where the operational shortfall is most acute. A combined squadron would help build partner capacity, enhance the U.S. undersea theater posture, raise the risks to China’s A2/AD posture, and strengthen conventional deterrence prospects.
- *Accelerate fielding of unmanned systems.* The Navy has embraced a vision in which *undersea* transcends *submarines*, but its ability to realize this ambitious vision is not yet clear. A resource base of \$600 million for distributed lethality over the next five years suggests more in the way of limited experimentation than robust capability deployment.
- *Develop and field an improved submarine-launched antiship missile.* Even as Russia and China are fielding long-range antiship systems, the Navy seeks to “grow longer arms.” Among the options to pursue: replace the Harpoon, a short-range inventory weapon, with a modernized long-range Tomahawk Anti-Ship Missile or other alternative.
- *Offset the coming submarine-launched land-attack capability gap.* Submarines play a critical forward strike role, but planned force structure reductions will halve the existing capacity. The Virginia Payload Module is an important but incomplete remedy. Even as subs are decommissioned, the Navy should explore pier-side employment options for their sustained use as conventional launch platforms at key forward operating bases.
- *Rediscover the warfighting utility of strategic mining.* Russia, China, and other states have embraced mine warfare even as the United States has deemphasized it. Strategic mining can complicate adversary planning, raise an adversary’s operational risks, and increases the chances that U.S. and allied forces will be able to deny the adversary a quick victory—buying time for more comprehensive force engagement.
- *Fill the gap in theater special operations undersea delivery.* Guided-missile submarine retirements will erode the Navy’s ability to support special operations. The continued ability of fleet forces, and submarines in particular, to execute clandestine delivery and recovery from forward operating areas is a critical Joint warfight enabler.
- *Enhance the U.S. antisubmarine warfare posture.* Even as the Navy seeks to augment its offensive undersea capacity, it must ramp-up its defensive posture. Prolonged underinvestment in this mission area was understandable in light of competing priorities over the past two decades, but must be a priority for the emerging undersea competition.
- *Finally, full-speed ahead on an operating concept for the “anti-A2/AD force.”* A credible operating concept for would discuss the role of undersea forces in contested environments and identify specific contributions to Joint and combined theater operations. It should be backed by theater-specific experimentation campaigns.

INTRODUCTION

The American way of war centers on its ability to project power at great distances, across the spectrum of warfighting domains and in the face of growing adversary capabilities. In this context, it is difficult to overstate the importance of the maritime component of the U.S. defense posture. Since the earliest days of the republic, the United States has been a seafaring nation, championing freedom of navigation, protecting sea lines of communication, and fielding an effective expeditionary naval capability. For several decades, the Navy has proven adept and resilient in the undersea domain. And undersea dominance—the ability of the silent service to successfully undertake any mission, anytime, anywhere—is integral to the U.S. ability to counter adversary anti-access and area-denial (A2/AD) strategies in the modern era.[†]

The Department of Defense (DoD) depends heavily on submarines for both deterrence and power projection.¹ Yet, a combination of growing foreign capabilities and emerging U.S. force structure gaps highlights a rising set of risks to what Deputy Secretary of Defense Robert Work calls the “away game” operations that are central to conventional deterrence.² “There is an awful lot of competition,” Chief of Naval Operations Admiral John Richardson observed in August 2016, “so we can’t get complacent, we can’t rest on our laurels for one minute, otherwise that window will close and we’ll find that they’ve achieved parity undersea.”³

While emerging security competitors do not boast the roughly 250-submarine fleet of the Soviet Union, their undersea warfighting prowess is arguably greater.⁴ Contemporary nuclear (SSN) and diesel-electric (SSK) attack submarines in the Russian and Chinese inventories are much quieter than their Soviet-era predecessors, as are the nuclear ballistic missile (SSBN) submarines fielded by each. (A lower acoustic profile reduces a defender’s antisubmarine warfare options and therefore enhances platform survivability.) They are also comparatively more lethal: modern SSNs and SSKs, together with guided-missile (SSGN) submarines, offer long-range antiship and/or land-attack cruise missile capabilities, even as classic naval offensive weapons including torpedoes and sea mines remain in play. In practice, adversary deployment of such lethal armaments broadens the threat envelope for deployed forces and complicates their ability to conduct effective operations in “denied” settings.

At the same time, the U.S. undersea presence is notably smaller than the roughly 100-submarine attack fleet fielded at the height of the Reagan-era buildup.⁵ The Navy’s existing

[†] The term “anti-access” refers to those actions and capabilities, usually long-range, designed to prevent an opposing force from entering an operational area. “Area denial” refers to those actions and capabilities, usually of shorter-range, designed not to keep an opposing force out but to limit its freedom of action within an operational area. See Department of Defense, *Joint Operational Access Concept*, v1.0, 17 January 2012 (http://www.defense.gov/Portals/1/Documents/pubs/JOAC_Jan%202012_Signed.pdf), p. i. The Chief of Naval Operations, Admiral John Richardson, suggested in October 2016 that the Navy would discontinue use of broad A2/AD nomenclature in favor of more specific problem-definition. See John Richardson, “Deconstructing A2AD,” *The National Interest*, October 3, 2016 (<http://nationalinterest.org/feature/chief-naval-operations-adm-john-richardson-deconstructing-17918>). While understandable, this paper nevertheless uses the term in light of its prominent place in defense strategy and widespread continued use throughout the Joint force.

requirement for 48 attack submarines was set in 2006, “before the reemergence of the Russian fleet and before China became a factor beneath the waves,”⁶ considerations influencing the revised—but not yet released—force-structure assessment of October 2016.⁷ And the trend line is unfavorable, with anticipated reductions in the quantity of the current U.S. force complement of attack, ballistic and guided-missile submarines slated for the next several years. And while the United States appears to maintain a qualitative edge, the growing inventory of modern Russian and Chinese submarines are highly capable and appear to have closed much of the legacy performance gap. Thus, even as DoD senior leaders emphasize a “return to . . . great power competition”⁸ driven largely by aggressive and revisionist Russian and Chinese actions, the United States risks ceding a critical and long-standing competitive warfighting advantage in the undersea domain.

Rear Admiral Michael Jabaley, the Program Executive Officer for Submarines, rightly argues that the Navy’s ability to field additional SSNs beyond those already included in its 30-year shipbuilding plan is constrained by limited domestic nuclear shipbuilding capacity, competition with planned SSBN builds, and life-extension limitations on the retiring fleet.⁹ Against a backdrop of continuing fiscal constraints, augmenting the existing SSN fleet would also likely come at the expense of other Navy or broader DoD modernization priorities. Defense Department senior leaders face a painful strategic choice: whether (a) to continue with the *status quo* and, contrary to identified national security interests, cede ground to great power competitors, (b) to prioritize development of a more robust undersea posture at the expense of other modernization priorities, or (c) to pursue alternative force structure enhancements designed to offset anticipated capability shortfalls but which may require significant cultural, operational, and technological changes to the existing naval posture.

Borrowing from Apple’s 1997 reinvention campaign playbook, it is arguably time to “think different.”¹⁰ This paper outlines options to strengthen the nation’s undersea posture for the emerging international security landscape in a context of continuing defense spending constraints. It first considers the role of power projection in U.S. defense strategy, and the high-value contributions of the silent service. It then highlights key challenges associated with Russian and Chinese A2/AD capabilities, and their developing undersea postures in particular. Finally, it identifies several possible avenues to strengthen the fleet’s capabilities to meet the operational demands of the formidable undersea competition to come.

DOMINANT UNDERSEA—FOR NOW

Since at least the Kennedy Administration, when the U.S. Navy developed and fielded a secure second-strike deterrent system aboard ballistic missile submarines, the Navy has maintained credible forward-presence and global-reach capabilities. Indeed, few would disagree with Bryan Clark’s sense that “today the U.S. Navy is dominant in undersea warfare.”^{11†} Yet, the U.S. Navy’s

[†] Joint doctrine underscores that “undersea warfare” is conducted to “establish dominance in the undersea portion of the maritime domain, which permits friendly forces to operate throughout the [operational environment] and denies an opposing force the effective use of underwater systems and weapons.” In this

long-standing claim to undersea dominance is being challenged both by growing adversary undersea capabilities and by disruptive technological advancements. Fundamentally, the submarine fleet's ability to maintain its dominant posture will hinge on its ability to adapt its force structure at a pace exceeding the evolving A2/AD threat environment.

An emerging A2/AD focus

The Obama Administration's 2012 defense strategic guidance established that the U.S. military must be able to project power despite A2/AD challenges. It also underscored the need to be able to deter and defeat aggression by any potential adversary through strategies of both denial and punishment.¹² In turn, the 2016 defense posture update spotlights a "strategic transition" unfolding at the level of the international system, a "dramatically different" context than seen over the past quarter-century. As a consequence, DoD has increased its planning focus on great-power warfare and identified Russia and China as "our most stressing competitors."¹³ Looking ahead, the Joint Staff anticipates that the global commercialization of specialized technologies will further the active efforts of revisionist states to challenge both the prevailing international order and access to the global commons, enabling development of asymmetric, unconventional, and hybrid warfighting approaches that "match or even exceed" contemporary U.S. military advantages.¹⁴

The *Joint Operational Access Concept* provides a vision for how the Joint force can continue to achieve assured access in a contested security environment. It highlights the need to "maintain the credible capability to project military force into any region of the world" in a context of armed opposition—perhaps the "most difficult operational challenge U.S. forces will face over the coming decades."¹⁵ Of the several military capabilities required to implement the concept, some fit squarely within the Navy's undersea activities. For example:

- The ability to develop all categories of intelligence in any necessary domain in the context of opposed access (JOA-008);
- The ability to locate, target, and suppress or neutralize enemy A2/AD capabilities (JOA-009);
- The ability to interdict enemy forces and materiel deploying to an operational area (JOA-010);
- The ability to conduct and support operational maneuver over strategic distances along multiple axes of advance by air and sea (JOA-013);
- The ability to conduct forcible entry operations, from raids and other limited-objective operations to the initiation of sustained land operations (JOA-016);
- The ability to defeat enemy targeting systems, including their precision firing capabilities (JOA-018); and
- The ability to protect forces and supplies deploying by sea and air (JOA-021).¹⁶

context, undersea warfare includes offensive and defensive submarine, antisubmarine, and maritime mine warfare operations. See Joint Publication 3-32, *Command and Control for Joint Maritime Operations*, August 7, 2013 (http://www.dtic.mil/doctrine/new_pubs/jp3_32.pdf), p. xiii.

Admiral Jabaley and the Navy's Director of Undersea Warfare, Rear Admiral Charles Richard, underscore the utility of undersea operations in a contested environment.¹⁷ Uniquely among the Joint force, U.S. undersea assets offer both the prospect of reliable access—persistent, undetected, assured, and far-forward—and a credible ability to hold critical adversary capabilities at risk. As such, they play a key role in peacetime operations, which may emphasize nuclear deterrence patrols, intelligence collection, special forces delivery, or other operations. In crisis or wartime, they provide a means to conduct offensive or defensive surface or undersea warfare missions. The undersea community anticipates that, as adversary A2/AD systems further proliferate, “the share of this Navy responsibility that falls on U.S. submarine and undersea forces will only grow.”¹⁸ Says Submarine Forces Commander Vice Admiral Joseph Tofolo, “We are the anti-A2/AD force.”¹⁹

Emerging force structure challenges

At its core, the argument that the submarine fleet is the “anti-A2/AD force” is predicated on two critical variables: (1) platform availability and (2) payload sufficiency. The first is fundamentally an asset-density consideration: they must be fielded in sufficient quantity to be available when needed to prosecute their assigned missions. The second relates to their efficacy: they must maintain sufficient functionality to meet theater warfighting demands.

As a starting point, the existing SSBN fleet appears able to execute its assigned peacetime strategic deterrence mission. The 14 *Ohio*-class SSBNs play a critical role as the most survivable component of the nuclear triad. In DoD's view “there appears to be no viable near or mid-term threats to the survivability of U.S. SSBNs,” although such threats or other technical challenges “cannot be ruled out over the long term.”²⁰ At the same time, SSNs and SSGNs appear to face real and growing constraints even as they face challenging theater support demands. The *Virginia*-, *Seawolf*-, and improved *Los Angeles*-class SSNs are high-value assets capable of performing a range of operational assignments including intelligence, surveillance, and reconnaissance; insertion and recovery of special operations forces; cruise missile strikes against land targets; offensive and defensive mine warfare; antisubmarine warfare; and antisurface ship warfare.²¹ For their part, the four existing *Ohio*-class converted SSGNs serve as forward strike platforms, carrying as many as 154 Tomahawk cruise missiles—a much larger payload volume than SSNs—and also support special operations missions.²² In support of operation *Odyssey Dawn* in 2011, the USS *Florida* became the first SSGN to employ land-attack weapons in a combat setting.²³

But significant force structure reductions are planned over the next couple of decades (Table 1). The current SSN inventory will fall from 52 to just 41 by 2029 and not recover the existing threshold requirement of 48 again on a sustained basis until 2042. SSGNs will be phased-out entirely by 2028, significantly eroding the Navy's current strike capacity. And the SSBN fleet will fall from 14 to 10 by 2032, rising to 12 a decade later. The total submarine force will fall from 71 to 53 ships—a more than 25 percent reduction—before bottoming and then reclaiming

some ground in the 2030s. At its 2018 high, the submarine force will comprise approximately 24 percent of the Navy's entire 295-ship fleet. At its 2029 low, it will comprise just over 17 percent of the Navy's 307-ship fleet. In this context, Navy senior leaders have established that priority number one is the *Columbia*-class SSBN (the *Ohio* replacement), followed by *Virginia* SSN augmentation.²⁴

Table 1. Planned U.S. submarine inventory

Platform	2018	2023	2028	2033	2038	2043
SSN	53	49	42	44	47	49
SSGN	4	4	0	0	0	0
SSBN	14	14	13	10	10	12
Totals	71	67	55	54	57	61

Source: Ronald O'Rourke, *Navy Force Structure and Shipbuilding Plans: Background and Issues for Congress*, Congressional Research Service report RL32665, May 27, 2016 (<https://www.fas.org/sgp/crs/weapons/RL32665.pdf>), p. 11.



Virginia



Ohio

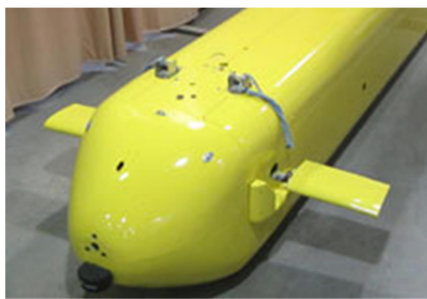


Converted *Ohio*

Figures 1-3. Representative U.S. submarine types. (Images courtesy of the Department of Defense.)

While much smaller than the Reagan Administration's attack submarine force, the existing complement generally scales as a percentage of the Navy's total fleet.²⁵ But as capable as they are, they meet just about half—between 40 and 60 percent—of the mission requirements identified by regional combatant commanders.²⁶ The Navy's Program Executive Officer for Submarines and its Director of Naval Warfare readily acknowledge that theater commanders' "robust demand for SSN forward presence greatly exceeds that which can be provided" even with the existing 53-SSN fleet, and foresee that the smaller SSN force ahead will "require each SSN to cover more physical territory and a wider array of potential new undersea targets."²⁷ Worse still, while the Virginia Payload Module will eventually offer some relief, the current submarine cruise missile payload volume will be halved over the next decade as a result of planned cuts to SSN and SSGN inventories. Best case under the current plan, future submarine cruise missile strike capacity will rise to about 83 percent of that currently fielded.²⁸ Thus, the SSN and SSGN fleets together are already challenged with respect to both platform availability and payload sufficiency—key challenges the Navy must find a way to overcome if the submarine force is to remain the nation's "anti-A2/AD force." This is a case where quantity has a quality all its own: a smaller force structure will simply allow for fewer operational assignments, reduced operational flexibility, and increased operational risk.

While not universal, many informed observers appear to agree that effectively meeting U.S. national security interests in the emerging international security landscape will require an augmented submarine force structure.²⁹ For example, the independent, Congressionally-mandated *Quadrennial Defense Review* panel co-chaired by former National Security Adviser Steve Hadley and former Secretary of Defense Bill Perry in 2010 highlighted the need for a modern force on the order of 55 attack submarines, four guided-missile submarines, and 14 ballistic missile submarines which together would comprise about 21 percent of a proposed 346-ship Navy.³⁰ In turn, analysts from the American Enterprise Institute, Center for a New American Security, Center for Strategic and Budgetary Assessments, and the Center for Strategic and International Studies have each called for a plus-up in the existing complement of attack submarines and broader undersea support infrastructure.³¹ For Admiral Harry Harris, Commander of the U.S. Pacific Command, “submarines are the original stealth platform” and a critical asymmetric warfighting advantage in the Western Pacific. Given a choice between permanently deploying an aircraft carrier and accompanying air wing or more submarines in theater, additional submarines would provide “the best way to counter Chinese naval forces.”³²



Large-Diameter UUV



Sea Hunter USV



MQ-8 Fire Scout UAV

Figures 4-6. Representative UUV, USV, and UAV types. (Images courtesy of the Department of Defense, the Office of Naval Research, and the Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency.)

To be sure, such a course of action would require either a greater resource topline and enabling shipbuilding infrastructure investments or difficult tradeoffs with other planned platform investments. The Navy intends to offset a prolonged shortfall in SSNs in part through unmanned undersea (UUV), air (UAV), and surface (USV) vehicle deployments. Indeed, taking advantage of technology developments enabling improved autonomy, computer processing, and endurance, the Navy intends to develop an exclusively unmanned squadron by 2020.³³ While specific plans remain classified, the Navy’s 2004 *Unmanned Undersea Vehicle Master Plan* identified and prioritized nine prospective UUV mission areas:

1. Intelligence, surveillance, and reconnaissance;
2. Mine countermeasures;
3. Antisubmarine warfare;
4. Inspection/identification;
5. Oceanography;
6. Communication/navigation network node;

7. Payload delivery;
8. Information operations; and
9. Time-critical strike.³⁴

More recently, Deputy Assistant Secretary for Unmanned Systems Frank Kelly suggested that the Navy intends for unmanned systems to help achieve air dominance, undersea superiority, and surface dominance; augment Marine ground forces; achieve battlefield mass and surprise; and secure persistent supply, sustainment, and transport. In its emerging vision, the Navy aspires to full unmanned operational capability of its preferred systems with advanced autonomy and machine learning, and ultimately seeks to field multi-domain systems.³⁵ Looking ahead, to the extent that multirole SSNs can shed particular tactical missions to unmanned systems, a shrinking SSN fleet will claw-back some operational flexibility and may be better positioned to meet emerging theater warfighting priorities. While they will surely remain the backbone of the nation's undersea posture, submarines will eventually need to evolve their role to satisfy the operational demands of an emerging hybrid manned/unmanned undersea fleet. Should unmanned systems ultimately prove highly capable and be fielded at scale, large-diameter UUVs may come to play a role analogous to that of an undersea aircraft carrier: conveyor of modular, networked, and lethal unmanned combat systems designed to operate behind enemy lines—whether littoral waters or blue ocean.

CHALLENGERS EMERGING

Students of modern naval history recall that the United States was not always dominant undersea. Germany employed *U-boats* against surface naval vessels, severely disrupting allied supply efforts in World Wars I and II and leading to the “hider/finder” dynamic inherent in antisubmarine warfare. Internalizing the warfighting utility of a robust undersea capability, the United States prioritized undersea dominance in the context of growing Cold War competition with the Soviet Union. For much of this multi-decade security competition, the Soviet Navy fielded submarines in greater quantity but the United States achieved and maintained a qualitative superiority. And the quantity of submarines in the U.S. inventory enabled the United States to operate effectively on a global basis. Yet today's submarine fleet is just half the size of that fielded at the end of the Cold War. The current 48-SSN Navy requirement assumes an average daily deployment requirement of 10 SSNs, rising to projected peak wartime demand of 35 SSNs.³⁶ But a 2029 level of just 41 SSNs leaves little margin for concurrent operations in other operational theaters, maintenance, combat replacement, unanticipated surge requirements, or other contingencies.

Even as the United States seeks to project power globally, Russia, China, and other potential adversaries are developing and fielding sea-denial capabilities designed to thwart the ability of the United States and its regional friends and allies to do so. Their collective intent is twofold: (1) preventing the United States from operating with impunity, and (2) harnessing blue-ocean and/or littoral environments for their own operational purposes. In this respect, while considerable attention has focused on various air-, space-, and land-based A2/AD challenges,

adversary capability advances suggest the undersea dimension is both an emerging and high-consequence warfighting domain. For the United States, maintaining undersea dominance is both integral to any credible power projection strategy and central to countering adversary A2/AD strategies.

Russia: advancing a revisionist agenda

Russia's 2014 Military Doctrine lists the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) first among its "external military dangers,"³⁷ while its 2015 National Security Strategy asserts that NATO member actions "are creating a threat to Russian national security."³⁸ In effect, Vladimir Putin's Russia has declared NATO its enemy, repeatedly challenged the European security order, sought to reclaim what it views as its rightful place as a great power and evinced a willingness to use force to achieve its objectives. Russia has invested in rebuilding its military strength and has begun to reassert itself on the world stage—in Georgia, Ukraine, Syria, and elsewhere. Russia's aggressive actions call into question the continued territorial integrity of key eastern alliance members and other friendly states. The specific timeline in play, the particular coercive measures Russia may employ as part of its *hybrid* warfare strategy, and the ultimate extent of its territorial ambitions are not yet clear.³⁹

At the same time, Russia has proven vulnerable to international economic disruptions. While its economy has improved from the Soviet era it remains commodity-dependent, deriving more than half of its operating budget from oil revenues. Russia's foreign reserves fell more than 22 percent in 2014, sanctions imposed after Russia's invasion of Crimea have probably had some effect, and the Russian Foreign Ministry anticipated a 4.7 percent contraction in Russia's gross domestic product in 2015. At the same time, Russian dependency on commodity exports also curtailed government revenue; an estimated break-even production price of about \$100 per barrel of oil versus a sub-\$50 per barrel average price were expected to lead to a roughly \$45 billion shortfall.⁴⁰ What this means for the military: fewer resources available for modernization, readiness, or operations.

Submarines—integral to Russia's A2/AD and deterrence postures. It is particularly striking in this context that Russian submarine patrols rose almost 50 percent by March 2015, compared with the preceding year.⁴¹ Russian submarines have reportedly been seen over the past few years operating within 200 miles of the eastern seaboard of the United States, in the Gulf of Mexico, in the Mediterranean Sea, and off the Scottish, Swedish, Norwegian, and Latvian coastlines.⁴² For Vice Admiral Clive Johnstone, Commander of NATO's Allied Maritime Command, Russian submarine activity is approaching levels not seen since the Cold War.⁴³ Yet while there is general agreement that Russian undersea forces are recovering from their post-Cold War low and have ramped-up their operations, there is some noteworthy interpretive variance in their operational prowess today. In Michael Kofman's view, the modern Russian submarine fleet is about one-fifth the size of the Soviet fleet, fewer than half of which is operationally ready at any given time.⁴⁴ At the same time, Lieutenant Commander Tom Spahn finds that Russia has embarked "on an aggressive effort to resurrect its undersea-warfare

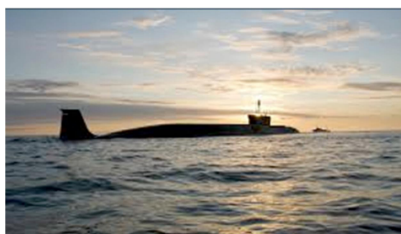
capabilities.”⁴⁵ In turn, former Principal Deputy Undersecretary of Defense Kathleen Hicks assesses that Russia is “expanding its undersea operations as part of a broader strategy of coercion,” using submarines “to signal presence, reach, and power that achieves an effect disproportionate to the resources committed.”⁴⁶

Yet, even Kofman estimates that the Russian submarine fleet hit its post-Cold War low point more than a decade-and-a-half ago, when the K-141 *Kursk* sank after a torpedo explosion in August 2000. Since that time, Russian senior leaders have evidently increased their focus in this area, committing scarce resources to develop improved capabilities. Russia’s Navy chief, Admiral Viktor Chirkov, suggests that this is “logical and necessary to guarantee the security of the state.”⁴⁷ For the United States and its NATO allies, the net effect of Russia’s continuing investments is, in Commander of the U.S. 6th Fleet Vice Admiral James Foggo’s assessment, “an effective, skilled, and technologically advanced” Russian submarine force that is “prowling the Atlantic, testing our defenses, confronting our command of the seas, and preparing the complex underwater battlespace to give them an edge in any future conflict.”⁴⁸ Former NATO Supreme Allied Commander General Philip Breedlove similarly considers that Russia’s emerging undersea capabilities, as part of its broader suite of A2/AD capabilities, render an “unobstructed crossing” of the Atlantic to flow or resupply forces “a thing of the past.”⁴⁹

Table 2. Russian submarine inventory, 2015

Platform	Northern Fleet	Baltic Fleet	Black Sea Fleet	Caspian Flotilla	Pacific Fleet	Totals
SSBN	7	0	0	0	5	12
SSN/SSGN	17	0	0	0	9	26
SSK	6	2	4	0	8	20
Totals	30	2	4	0	22	58

Source: Office of Naval Intelligence, *The Russian Navy: A Historic Transition*, December 2015 (<http://www.oni.navy.mil/Portals/12/Intel%20agencies/russia/Russia%202015print.pdf?ver=2015-12-14-082038-923>), p. 16.[§]



Borei SSBN



Yasen SSN



Lada SSK

Figures 7-9. Representative Russian submarine types. (Images courtesy of the Office of Naval Intelligence.)

[§] Russian submarine designs differ in important respects from the multirole SSN and land-attack SSGN configurations fielded by the United States, and they continue to evolve. For convenience, this table adopts the hybridized SSN/SSGN nomenclature used by the Office of Naval Intelligence.

According to the Office of Naval Intelligence, the Russian Navy's main peacetime missions include deterrence, with SSBNs in "permanent ready" status; defense, with general-purpose naval force operations both in adjacent seas and in distant areas; and demonstration, drawing on general-purpose forces as an "instrument of state" to support Russian foreign policy. In times of increased tension and war, priority missions include protecting the sea-based deterrence force and interdicting or blunting an attack on Russia from the maritime environment. Submarines factor prominently in the deterrence and defense missions. With respect to the former, SSBNs patrol in adjacent seas ("bastions") and in operating environments such as the Arctic, and can launch long-range nuclear missiles even while moored in port. The SSN fleet provides defensive antisubmarine warfare support for deployed SSBNs. With respect to the latter, SSNs and SSKs conduct offensive antisubmarine and antisurface warfare operations in forward areas and in the littorals, respectively. Finally, SSNs and SSGNs also undertake land-attack and other special missions.⁵⁰

In establishing acquisition priorities, Russia has emphasized SSBN recapitalization first and then the multipurpose components of its nuclear undersea fleet.⁵¹ A total of eight *Borei*-class SSBNs are slated for procurement by 2020. A total of eight *Yasen*-class SSNs, armed primarily with Kalibr cruise missiles, are also planned for 2020. Construction on the first of this class, K-560 *Severodvinsk*, began in 1993; it is now reportedly able to undertake its assigned antisurface, antisubmarine, and land-attack missions.⁵² A new, smaller SSN with SSBN-protection responsibilities has been proposed for the future fleet in order to free-up *Yasens* for other missions. At the same time, Russia has tested Canyon, reportedly an unmanned undersea nuclear delivery vehicle designed to carry a megaton-class warhead up to 6,200 miles at high speed.⁵³ Finally, in addition to the *Kilo*-class SSKs currently fielded the Russian Navy is developing *Lada*-class replacements and is considering a more advanced version with air-independent propulsion.⁵⁴ Designers are also considering an alternate *Kalina*-class replacement using extended battery packs rather than air-independent propulsion.⁵⁵

In outlining emerging naval requirements, the Russian government's news service, *Tass*, reports that contemporary European security challenges requires an undersea force structure comprised of:

- Three to four SSBNs on patrol at any given time for nuclear deterrence;
- Three to four SSNs and five to eight SSKs conducting antisubmarine warfare in support of SSBN operations; and
- 10-12 SSNs and six to eight SSGNs for antisurface warfare and other operations.⁵⁶

Whether Russia is ultimately able to realize the full extent of its ambitious ship-building plans remains to be seen. As it ramps-up to counter what it views as a hostile NATO, the submarine fleet will likely be in great demand. Russian submarine construction "has so far been prioritized and shielded from the effects of the military's belt-tightening," according to the Center for Strategic and International Studies.⁵⁷ Analysts such as Bryan Clark agree that the Russians "have put their money where their mouth is" with respect to submarine development, viewing such

developments as “a way to generate an asymmetric advantage over U.S. forces.”⁵⁸ If Spahn is correct, the *Borei* SSBN includes advanced sound-dampening and propulsion technologies comparable to a *Virginia* SSN. (Among other things, acoustic parity complicates antisubmarine warfare.⁵⁹) And along with platform developments are noteworthy payload advances, such as the land-attack, antiship, and antisubmarine variants of the long-range Kalibr cruise missile or the long-range Status-6 nuclear torpedo.⁶⁰ In combination, such developments both provide the Russian military an expanded range of options and increase operational and strategic risks to U.S. and NATO forces. Among other things, they provide force structure which enable Russian implementation of its escalate-to-deescalate nuclear doctrine.⁶¹

But others, including the Center for Naval Analyses’ Dmitry Gorenburg, are more sanguine: it is “not clear Russia can afford” all eight of the planned *Yasens* in light of continuing economic difficulties.⁶² At the same time, Owen Cote speculates that even eight *Yasens* may not be enough to really “get our attention,” if this is Moscow’s intent.⁶³ Finally, it is worth noting the intrinsic estimative difficulties associated with Russia’s evolving force posture—and the disposition of the nuclear attack and guided-missile submarines in particular. With respect to the Northern Fleet, for instance, Russia claims 42 submarines; the Office of Naval Intelligence estimates 30 (Table 2); and the Center for Strategic and International Studies estimates a range of 22-31.⁶⁴

To some extent, this ambiguity works to Russia’s advantage. Hicks finds that the ambiguity inherent in submarine warfare lends itself to a “sense of Russian undersea omnipresence,” a signal that Moscow views the Baltic Sea, North Sea, Arctic Ocean, and other nearby areas as falling within its sphere of influence and that it maintains the ability to hold at risk NATO and partner sea lines of communication, key infrastructure, and other possible targets.⁶⁵ As part of an interlocking A2/AD architecture comprised of coastal missiles, interceptor aircraft, air and missile defense systems, and surface ships, submarines extend Russia’s “arc of steel” ranging from the Arctic through Kaliningrad and Crimea to the Mediterranean.⁶⁶ Just as it has demonstrated its combined air-ground capabilities through operations in Georgia and Ukraine, Russia’s submarine patrols in the North Atlantic, Norwegian Sea, and elsewhere afford it the ability to hold at risk NATO and friendly maritime forces. “For the first time in almost 30 years,” says Vice Admiral Foggo, “Russia is a significant and aggressive maritime power.”⁶⁷

China: a rising strategic competitor

As with Russia, China views its submarine fleet both as an A2/AD—what it calls *counter-intervention*—force multiplier and as a key component of its nuclear deterrence posture. But while a resurgent Russia seeks to reclaim lost undersea prowess, a rising China seeks to newly establish itself as a formidable undersea competitor. For John Schaus, Lauren Dickey, and Andrew Metrick, while Russia’s Atlantic submarine force has been the pacing threat for U.S. undersea warfare since the 1950s, looking ahead “it will be the waters of the Pacific, not the Atlantic, where the U.S. Navy will be most sorely tested.”⁶⁸

China's revisionist security ambitions in the Western Pacific puts it on a collision course with the prevailing regional security order, underwritten largely by the United States and its theater partners. Its expansive strategic aims and growing coercive capabilities conflict with the identified security objectives of U.S. treaty allies including Japan and the Philippines, as well as those of Vietnam, Indonesia, Taiwan, and other friendly states. Creeping territorial and other conflicts in the East and South China Seas may lead to use of military force, whether with the United States directly or with a U.S. partner. China publicly highlights its plans and exercises designed for a "cruel and short" war in theater, even as some Chinese officials apparently seek to "give [the U.S.] a bloody nose" for what they view as adversarial policies.⁶⁹

China's official defense budget has risen from about \$10 billion in 1997 to roughly \$165 billion in 2015—a nearly 17-fold increase over the past 18 years, and a level that has consistently exceeded the rate of growth in its GDP.⁷⁰ The Director of National Intelligence sees high chances for sustained tensions between China and U.S. regional allies over territorial disputes,⁷¹ even as DoD observes China investing in capabilities designed to counter third-party crisis or conflict intervention.⁷² China's two-decade splurge has significantly enhanced its warfighting posture. While it remains unproven in combat, China now fields an increasingly capable military. RAND assesses that over a 20-year arc, China has achieved rough parity with the United States in potential Taiwan and Spratly conflict scenarios—and potentially an advantage, should Chinese objectives remain grounded in intense but short theater conflict.⁷³

China's vision: a robust submarine force for a growing maritime power. During the Chinese Communist Party's 18th Party Congress (2012), then-President Hu Jintao declared an intent to "build China into a strong maritime power." While this aspirational goal is not precisely defined, it probably includes a large and effective coast guard, a capable merchant marine fleet, a robust ship-building infrastructure, an ability to extract economically important resources, and, of course, a world-class navy.⁷⁴ In turn, his successor, Xi Jinping, called for China "to do more to take interests in the sea, understand the sea, strategically manage the sea, and do more to promote China's efforts to become a maritime power."⁷⁵ An array of Chinese leaders have signaled that maritime concerns represent an emerging "vital area of national interest,"⁷⁶ and the defense white paper released in May 2015 assesses that the most likely conflict scenarios are at sea.⁷⁷

China is investing heavily to realize this maritime renaissance. Backing this vision are exploratory concepts for development of an "oceanic space station" at a depth of almost 10,000-feet⁷⁸ and construction of a massive 125-mile underwater tunnel from northeastern China through eastern Siberia and the Bering Strait to Alaska.⁷⁹ More practically, they have led to Chinese research into unmanned undersea vehicles,⁸⁰ an increase in its air and surface antisubmarine warfare capabilities,⁸¹ development of an "undersea Great Wall" designed to further enhance submarine detection prospects,⁸² refinement of its operating concepts for antisurface warfare,⁸³ and procurement of a sizable fleet of modern submarines.⁸⁴ The Office of the Secretary of Defense observes that the China places "a high priority on the modernization of its submarine force."⁸⁵

Table 3 shows the disposition of China's submarine force, but the numbers only tell part of the story. The People's Liberation Army Navy fielded a comparably-sized submarine fleet three decades ago, but it was poorly equipped and relied on antiquated technology that lagged well behind its American and Soviet counterparts. Underscoring its commitment to fleet modernization, between 1995 and 2015 they placed a total of 56 submarines into service—an average of 2.7 per year.⁸⁶ As a result of China's substantial investment over the past two decades, more than 70 percent of the current inventory is modern; and by 2020, more than 75 percent of its diesel-electrics and 100 percent of its nuclear submarines probably will be.⁸⁷ Conventional attack submarines will comprise more than 80 percent of China's 72-submarine fleet in 2020, and at least two-thirds of these will be optimized for antisurface warfare missions.⁸⁸ While China in the past imported *Kilo* SSKs from Russia and produced *Ming*-class SSKs, the more recent *Song*- and *Yuan*-class SSKs are the workhorses of this growing fleet. Comparable in armament, the *Yuans* also incorporate air-independent propulsion technology which both increases their underwater endurance and complicates detection.^{89**} Taken together, Chinese submarine naval modernization translates to a larger, more survivable, and more capable operational fleet that will challenge U.S. force planning assumptions and theater warfighting strategies in the years ahead.

Table 3. Chinese submarine inventory, 2015

Platform	North Sea Fleet	East Sea Fleet	South Sea Fleet	Totals
SSBN	0	0	4	4
SSN	3	0	2	5
SSK	25	18	16	59
Totals	28	18	22	68

Source: Office of Naval Intelligence, *The PLA Navy: New Capabilities and Missions for the 21st Century*, September 2015

(http://www.oni.navy.mil/Portals/12/Intel%20agencies/China_Media/2015_PLA_NAVY_PUB_Print.pdf?ver=2015-12-02-081247-687), p. 14.⁹⁰



Shang SSN



Jin SSBN



Yuan SSK

Figures 10-12. Representative Chinese submarine types. (Images courtesy of the Office of Naval Intelligence.)

The small but growing nuclear fleet has also made noteworthy progress. After delivering just two *Shang*-class SSNs by 2003, it is now building four improved hulls. This portion of the fleet is

** For convenience, the term SSK is used here broadly to include both standard and AIP diesel-electric variants.

comparatively better suited to prolonged deep-water operations and is designed for a spectrum of antisurface warfare, antisubmarine warfare, and intelligence, surveillance, and reconnaissance missions. The improved *Shang* SSNs are reportedly configured to launch the long-range YJ-18 multirole system with antiship, land-attack, and antisubmarine variants.⁹¹ Moreover, this year witnessed the first known operational patrol of the *Jin*-class SSBN, deployment of which affords China a long-range sea-based nuclear deterrence capability. In order to maintain a continuous peacetime presence, the current inventory of four SSBNs will likely increase to five by 2017.⁹² Over the next decade, China may seek to develop both a successor SSBN and a new SSGN.⁹³

Chinese diesel-electric and nuclear submarine force structure improvements over the past two decades are striking. Figure 13 conveys a comparative Office of Naval Intelligence estimate from 2009—and both Russian and Chinese designs have progressed since then. While China has evidently not yet achieved acoustic parity on the nuclear front, the *Shang* and *Jin* vessels represent a significant improvement over previous nuclear submarines. Jerry Hendrix estimates that the improved *Shang* (not reflected in figure 1) is roughly analogous to the improved *Los Angeles* or *Akula II* SSNs with respect to acoustic performance.⁹⁴ It is possible that the more recent *Jin* vessels have also benefited from derivative or related acoustic performance improvements. Should China proceed as anticipated with development of a next-generation type-095 SSN and/or type-096 SSGN, it will probably continue down the acoustic learning curve. On the diesel-electric front the more recent *Kilo* and *Yuan* vessels appear generally comparable to the Russian *Lada* (St. Petersburg)-class SSK, while the older *Romeo*, *Kilo*, and *Ming* SSKs exit the active inventory. Acoustically, at 105-110 decibels the modern 636 *Kilo* has reportedly achieved general equivalence with that of the improved *Los Angeles* SSNs. (By comparison, the *Virginia* operates at about 95 decibels and ocean background at 90.⁹⁵) Said differently, the improved *Shangs* and *Kilos* in the Chinese inventory have achieved acoustic parity with mid-1980s American SSN technology, while Russia's new *Yasen* has an acoustic signature closer to the current-generation American SSN fleet.

Enabled by an improving submarine fleet, China's conventional and nuclear fleet is continuing its gradual shift from "near-seas defense" to "far-seas protection." Its nuclear and AIP-equipped submarines are capable of conducting operations beyond the so-called first island chain, with the former able to deploy for an extended period of time. While the Chinese navy still lacks either a "robust coastal or deep-water antisubmarine warfare capability," their submarines have proven their ability to conduct patrols in the Indian Ocean, in the Bering Sea, and elsewhere.⁹⁶ In 2006, for instance, a *Song* reportedly surfaced in close proximity to the *USS Kitty Hawk* carrier battle group operating in international waters near Okinawa.⁹⁷

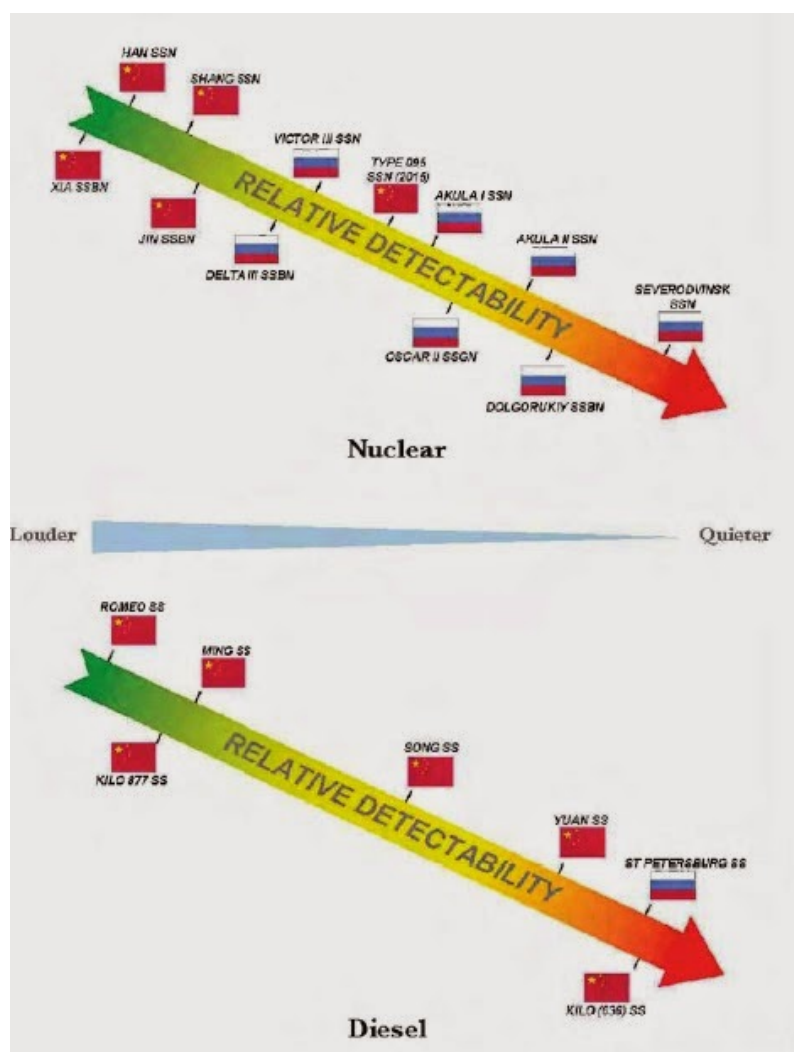


Figure 13. Relative detectability of Chinese and Russian SSKs and SSNs.⁹⁸

While analysts such as Owen Cote have argued in the past that China's ability to deny access to U.S. nuclear attack and guided-missile submarines is "very limited," the aggregate pattern of Chinese investment suggests a future that may differ considerably.⁹⁹ China's emergent force structure is a far cry from the low-capability submarines fielded two decades ago, and they are making tangible progress toward becoming the maritime power envisioned by Chinese political leaders. While it is too early to declare victory in their sea-denial and counter-intervention goals, the United States and its regional friends and allies face the growing specter of a contested undersea domain in the years ahead. Already, Elias Groll and Dan de Luce detect a developing "submarine arms race" in the Asia-Pacific as China's neighbors "spend heavily" to counter its growing military capabilities.¹⁰⁰ The silver lining in these developing storm clouds: the United States has an opportunity to leverage the growing capabilities of its regional friends and allies as part of a broader regional strategy to counter China's expansionist designs.

REGIONAL SECURITY AND UNDERSEA DOMINANCE—CONTESTED

The emerging security environment of Eastern Europe and the Asia-Pacific regions are characterized by both latent and acute challenges to the *status quo*. Manifest Russian aggression in Georgia, Crimea, and the Donbas region of Ukraine, together with its coercive tactics toward the Baltic states and elsewhere, underscore a willingness to use military force to achieve revisionist objectives. Similarly, China's ongoing low-intensity engagements and coercive diplomacy in the South and East China Seas, together with its substantial and continuing development of advanced military capabilities, call into question the credibility of its claims to a peaceful rise. For its part, the U.S. ability to project power despite adversary fielding of anti-access and area-denial capabilities depends on both a robust theater military posture and active regional security partnerships. While the United States has consistently sought to uphold the principled international order established in the wake of World War II, the extent to which the international system will ultimately prove able to concurrently accommodate the respective *revisionist* and *status quo* objectives currently in play is not yet clear.¹⁰¹

Taken together, the warfighting approaches and military postures of Russia, China, and the United States appear to set the stage for armed conflict and increase the prospects for deliberate, accidental, or inadvertent escalation. Russia's hybrid warfare strategy is both aggressive and backstopped by a permissive nuclear doctrine. China's quest to become a great maritime power, coupled with its counter-intervention military posture and active efforts to establish "new great power diplomacy with Chinese characteristics," underscores hegemonic ambitions that ill-coexist with the existing regional security architecture.¹⁰² In their respective areas, Russia and China are indirectly pressuring the United States to choose between abandoning its regional friends and allies or facing potential armed conflict. In this context, the continued success of a U.S. strategy of conventional deterrence enabled through qualitative military superiority, global power projection, and theater security cooperation is in question. Indeed, in an era where, as then-Secretary of Defense Chuck Hagel noted, "American dominance on the seas, in the skies, and in space—not to mention cyberspace—can no longer be taken for granted," the prospects for deterrence failures are real and arguably growing and the corresponding need to develop robust escalation-control strategies is acute.¹⁰³

Maintaining U.S. undersea dominance

While American dominance *under* the seas is being challenged, it does not *yet* appear to have lapsed. In each case, Russian and Chinese undersea capabilities fit within the broader A2/AD strategies they have developed to advance their respective political and security goals. Don McCormack, director of the Naval Undersea Warfare Center, observes that Chinese and Russian undersea investments are eroding the asymmetric advantage the United States has enjoyed for several decades. An eroding competitive edge enables adversaries to, among other things:

- Deter the flow of U.S. assets to a theater of operation by surfacing an out-of-area submarine off a U.S. forward base, an allied coast, or the continental United States;

- Dissuade U.S. or partner force involvement through preemptive undersea strikes on a U.S. forward base or on allied sovereign territory;
- Weaken U.S. and partner forces by disrupting sustainment and antisubmarine warfare resources through undersea attacks on logistics ships and/or surface combatants; and
- Disrupt the United States or its allies through attacks on critical undersea international information infrastructure, on critical energy ports, or on other operational nodes.¹⁰⁴

Bryan Clark's sobering conclusion: "Unless U.S. forces adapt to and lead the new competition, the era of unrivaled U.S. undersea dominance could draw to a surprisingly abrupt close."¹⁰⁵ The Chief of Naval Operations underscores that continuing domestic fiscal pressures mean that the Navy will not be able to "buy its way out" of the challenges it faces.¹⁰⁶ DoD's planned commitment of more than \$40 billion over the next five years—an average of \$8 billion per year—"to ensure we have the most lethal undersea and antisubmarine force in the world" is a sizable resource commitment in a context of worthwhile but competing defense priorities.¹⁰⁷ Understandably, the Navy's undersea leadership seeks to own the best, beat the adversary's systems, grow longer arms, protect our strategic assets, and threaten theirs.¹⁰⁸ And the substantial investments programmed for *Columbia* SSBNs, *Virginia* SSNs, unmanned undersea systems, Virginia Payload Modules, and other activities are critical to the nation's undersea posture. But neither the planned resource base nor current spending priorities may close the most urgent combat capability gaps resulting from Russian and Chinese force structure investments.

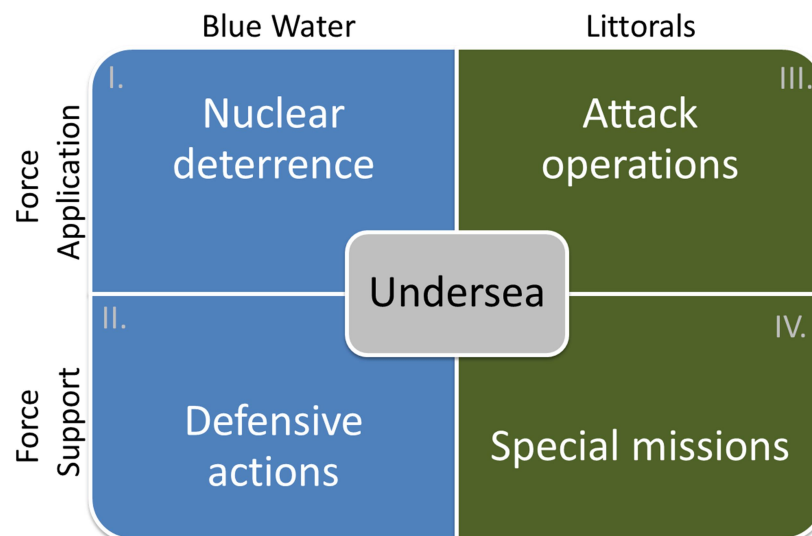


Figure 14. Undersea mission typology.

Figure 14 highlights four undersea mission areas that operational forces will need to be able to execute effectively in the emerging security environment. Navy leadership prioritizes the first of

these, nuclear deterrence, from a resource allocation standpoint. Designed for prolonged, independent, blue-water operations, the credible second-strike capability provided by the *Ohio* and future *Columbia* SSBNs is integral to the U.S. deterrence posture. While their respective force structures, investment priorities, and operating concepts vary, Russia and China have also put significant capital against the *Borei* and *Jin* SSBNs that provide a sea-based nuclear deterrence capability.

The second mission category, defensive actions, captures a broader set of operational tasks for the undersea force operating in blue-water environments. Forces should be capable of conducting antisurface warfare strike missions, as well as defensive antisubmarine warfare and other “fleet asset” duties. In this area, the Russian and Chinese submarine forces appear to have a growing advantage over their U.S. counterparts. While the United States fields a comparatively larger total blue-water SSN force, the portion of the fleet available at any given time for operations in the Asia-Pacific or European theaters is more limited. More importantly, the long-range Kalibr and YJ-18 antiship cruise missile capabilities fielded onboard the *Yasen*, improved *Shang*, *Kilo*, and *Yuan* attack platforms provide a significant standoff attack option for operations in environments such as the Atlantic Ocean or the Mediterranean, Philippine, East or South China Seas. For Harry Kazianis, a combination of “super-stealthy” diesel boats with air-independent propulsion systems and long-range antiship weapons presents a “one-two punch that can’t be ignored.”¹⁰⁹

This challenge is arguably even more acute with respect to operations in littoral settings,¹¹⁰ the third mission category highlighted above. In China’s case, a large inventory of diesel-electrics armed for antisurface warfare operations plays a significant anti-access role. In Russia’s case, they afford both a potent antiship and growing land-attack capability. In contrast, while U.S. attack and guided-missile submarines have for many years played a critical land-attack role, existing strike capacity will be halved with SSGN retirements. Moreover, the absence of a long-range submarine-launched antiship missile puts the United States at a tactical disadvantage. By the same token, U.S. attack submarines are optimized for, and may have a comparative advantage in, antisubmarine warfare; but this advantage erodes in shallower waters. Moreover, the demonstrated ability of both Russian and Chinese vessels to surface within striking distance of deployed or land-based assets suggests that the United States does not maintain the density of air, surface, and undersea assets needed to perform robust antisubmarine warfare operations. Other potential offensive missions in contested littoral settings, such as strategic mining, appear to favor forces most capable of operating in shallow waters. This may be an area where smaller submersibles, whether manned or unmanned, will provide a unique mission contribution.

This finding may also hold for the fourth mission area, special missions, highlighted above. Both mine countermeasures and offensive mining might ultimately prove well-suited to unmanned undersea vehicles. Depending on how various technologies progress, other shallow-water missions, such as electronic force support or intelligence, surveillance, and reconnaissance, may also be achievable with unmanned systems.¹¹¹ Larger UUVs or manned submarines will likely be

preferred for special operations forces insertion, and for some intelligence and support operations. For the United States, the key question in this area is the speed with which usable unmanned systems can be developed and acquired at scale, entering the active inventory with well-considered employment doctrine. Impending SSGN retirements make this a time-urgent consideration, as they play an important role with respect to special operations delivery today.

Within the context of the four-mission typology described above, it appears that the U.S. undersea posture faces its most substantial gaps with respect to attack operations in littoral settings. In particular, U.S. forces should consider the following measures to strengthen their posture vis-à-vis growing Russian and Chinese A2/AD capabilities:

- *Develop a mixed submarine force structure.* In an ideal world, the Navy would procure a larger SSN fleet to support its expanding undersea requirements. And should the incoming Trump Administration successfully increase the Defense Department top-line, this should become an unambiguous acquisition priority. The *Virginia* attack boats are quiet, fast, and capable; the gold standard. But at \$2.7 billion per boat, in the absence of surplus domestic shipyard capacity, and without substantially greater naval procurement resources, this is not a feasible option.¹¹² Not surprisingly, the Chief of Naval Operations underscores the need to “explore alternative fleet designs,” including varied payloads and both manned and unmanned platforms.¹¹³ But the Navy’s longstanding preference for nuclear attack submarines overlooks another available—and increasingly capable—option: the use of modern diesel-electrics as a near-term force multiplier.

The last U.S. diesel, USS *Blueback*, retired from the active inventory in 1990. Yet, diesel-electric technology has progressed substantially over the past quarter-century. Over the past decade, Australia’s *Collins*, Sweden’s *Gotland*, India’s *Kilo*, and other SSK types appear to have shown well in partner antisurface and antisubmarine warfare exercises.¹¹⁴ They are capable of multirole operations or can specialize in a given mission area, with the potential to carry antiship or land attack missiles, torpedoes, mines, surveillance, or other combat systems. Current-generation hull designs offer the prospect of submerged endurance exceeding 30 days, total unrefueled endurance of up to 90 days, and quiet transit of several thousand nautical miles at greater than 20 knots. While vessels such as the German HDW *Type 212A* are optimized for shallow waters, with keel depths of just 30-40 feet, others such as the French DCNS *SMX-Ocean* concept are larger vessels geared toward endurance. Not only are SSKs proven in exercises and in demand by other navies, but they are also affordable at price points ranging from about \$250 million to \$750 million per copy.¹¹⁵ Said differently, it may be possible to procure three or four high-end SSKs for about the same price as a single *Virginia* SSN or *Zumwalt*-class destroyer.

Should Navy leadership treat this as a priority, the Navy could in principle field a new SSK squadron within a decade. While the gold-standard SSNs should remain the backbone of the undersea fleet, silver-standard SSKs could provide a cost-effective and

time-efficient way to bridge known and growing U.S. submarine force structure gaps. Such a course of action would likely prove challenging across the spectrum of doctrine, organization, training, materiel, leadership and education, personnel, facilities and policy (DOTMLPF-P) actions required. But the concept should nonetheless be explored more fully; at minimum, it should be dismissed with malice of forethought. This may be a case where playing the role of fast-follower in a commoditizing hull market, while retaining first-mover combat systems technology advantages, can help the United States maintain a powerful undersea warfighting advantage. It is consistent with the vision of both current Chief of Naval Operations Admiral John Richardson that the Navy “explore alternative fleet designs” and that of his predecessor, Admiral Jonathan Greenert, who highlighted the growing need for modular payloads conveyed by “dependable trucks” rather than “luxury-car” platforms.¹¹⁶

- *Build a combined undersea presence.* The most credible U.S. SSK operational employment concept begins with the premise of forward basing. To maximize time-on-station, SSKs will most effectively deploy from U.S. or allied bases in a forward operating theater rather than from the continental United States. They may have utility in the North Atlantic, Baltic Sea, Mediterranean Sea or other European settings; or in the Persian Gulf, Arabian Sea, Bay of Bengal, or other Near Eastern or South Asian sea lanes. But in a context of substantial and continuing Chinese naval enhancements, their greatest near- to mid-term utility is likely in the Pacific Command area of responsibility. Looking ahead to 2030, China intends to newly build 32 diesel-electric and nuclear submarines, and Russia 11. India and South Korea plan to acquire 10 and 9, respectively. Eleven other regional states plan to build or acquire an additional 36. All told, the greater Asia-Pacific region is becoming more crowded undersea, with clusters of activity in key regional waterways.¹¹⁷

In principle, U.S. diesel-electrics could be home-ported in Honolulu or Guam, conduct patrols in theater and resupply through regional U.S. friends and allies.¹¹⁸ More effective, however, would be to home-port an SSK squadron in Japan and possibly a second squadron in Australia, the Philippines, or Thailand. Such an arrangement would provide enhanced coverage of both the East and South China Seas and neighboring waterways. James Holmes takes the idea one step further, noting that Japan’s *Soryu*-class SSK could serve as a “logical common platform around which to build a combined SSK squadron.”¹¹⁹ A combined squadron would help build partner capacity while enhancing the U.S. undersea theater posture. It would raise the operational risks to China’s A2/AD posture, affording greater allied access options and strengthening conventional deterrence prospects.

- *Accelerate fielding of unmanned systems.* At the same time, the Navy should continue to push development of unmanned systems. In its 2009 review of the Navy’s UUV plan, RAND found, among other things, that mine countermeasures would probably be “the best match between warfighter needs and UUV capabilities,” that the technical

challenges for complex intelligence, surveillance, and reconnaissance missions “are daunting,” and that the goal of using UUVs for time-critical strike “appears unrealistic.”¹²⁰ Over the past decade, the state of critical enabling technologies has improved considerably and particular UUV mission prospects may now be stronger.¹²¹ The Navy has established a new Unmanned Systems Directorate (N99), refined its concept for a family of unmanned systems, used a UUV to meet a theater operational need,¹²² and committed to delivering two large-diameter UUV prototypes by 2019.¹²³ It has budgeted roughly \$3 billion over the next several years for the Office of Naval Research to build an “Eisenhower highway network” of UUV undersea infrastructure,¹²⁴ and more than \$600 million between fiscal years 2017-21 for UUV “distributed lethality” research and development.¹²⁵ While the Navy’s ultimate ability to realize its ambitious vision is not yet clear, it is clear that the Secretary of the Navy views widespread use of unmanned vehicles—undersea, air, surface—as a strategic goal.¹²⁶

Arguably, the Navy has embraced a vision in which *undersea* transcends *submarines*; and a \$3B infrastructure commitment will help it realize its ambitious vision in the outyears. But a resource base of just \$120 million per year for distributed lethality over the next five suggests more in the way of continued experimentation than deployment of robust capabilities. And there clearly are some intriguing concepts and approaches that probably warrant further consideration. Rear Admiral Jabaley invokes the imagery of sharks and remoras for manned submarines and unmanned systems, while Peter Singer observes that “we’re just now scratching the surface in terms of what kind of robotics we can use, how many we might have, and how we can use them . . . particularly in undersea weapons.”¹²⁷

But it is important to calibrate expectations carefully. While UUVs could ultimately become a potent force multiplier for surface and undersea naval systems, neither the defense nor the commercial markets are substantial enough to suggest that UUVs will play more than a niche or stop-gap role for the next several years. Growth is likely, with the global commercial market forecast to rise from about \$2.29 billion in 2015 to \$4 billion by 2020.¹²⁸ At the same time, Fred Byus observes that while relevant technology is ready to transition from the laboratory to the fleet, the Department of Defense continues to buy technology in “onesies and twosies” which risks it “getting stuck in limbo.”¹²⁹ Needed is a concerted effort to prioritize unmanned undersea investments in a manner that best resolves identified theater warfighting gaps. Among the leading areas where unmanned systems may ultimately play a significant role: mine countermeasures, where capacity shortfalls loom large; and intelligence, surveillance, and reconnaissance, an area of growing consumer demand in multiple operational theaters.

- *Develop and field an improved submarine-launched antiship missile.* The Navy seeks to extend its ability to hold adversary targets at risk from greater range—to “grow longer arms.” The current submarine-launched UGM-84 Harpoon, a subsonic sea-skimming

cruise missile, carries a 488-pound warhead an estimated 134 nautical miles.¹³⁰ While this inventory weapon probably suffices for some operational taskings, it does not compare favorably to China's YJ-18 or to Russia's Kalibr supersonic cruise missiles, which carry a 660-pound warhead up to 290 nautical miles and a 440-pound warhead up to 410 nautical miles, respectively.¹³¹ The Kalibr can also be used as an antisubmarine missile, which provides an asymmetric attack option. While the AGM-158C Long-Range Anti-Ship Missile provides an improved long-range strike option for Navy surface and aviation assets,¹³² the submarine force relies on shorter-range systems—the Harpoon and Mk-48 torpedo—for antisurface warfare.¹³³ For American submarines to play a stronger antiship role, they must find a way to extend their reach.

Fortunately, the Navy has options to fill this growing need. As a starting point, it could rediscover the RGM/UGM-109B Tomahawk Anti-Ship Missile, a subsonic cruise missile which carried a 1,000-pound warhead more than 900 nautical miles when retired from the active inventory in 1990.¹³⁴ While this version of the Tomahawk is no longer in production, the Navy remains a customer for the land-attack variant; and Navy officials have expressed support for a modern Maritime Tomahawk Strike weapon.¹³⁵ Moreover, Raytheon has signaled that it will probably compete in the next-generation offensive antisurface warfare missile contest slated for fiscal year 2017.¹³⁶ Alternatively, should the Navy seek other option, it could seek to leverage the Army's ongoing efforts to modernize the MGM-168 Army Tactical Missile System, pursue a range-extension option for the Harpoon, or develop a new supersonic cruise missile.¹³⁷

- *Offset the coming submarine-launched land-attack capability gap.* Submarines have played an important land-attack role over the past four decades, so the impending decline in SSGN force structure will hamper Joint operations. The Virginia Payload Module is a welcome addition to the mix, but more can and should be done to retain the existing conventional long-range strike capacity. One option to consider is permanent forward-basing of the SSGN fleet at U.S. naval installations in the Pacific, Central, and/or European theaters of operation. In principle, even as SSGNs and improved *Los Angeles* SSNs are decommissioned from active service, they could remain viable for an extended period as pier-side launch platforms at forward operating bases in, for example, Bahrain or Saudi Arabia, Singapore or South Korea, Greece or Norway. Treating these platforms as sea-based silos housing long-range conventional cruise missiles would go a long way toward bridging the looming force structure gap and continue to provide U.S. and allied theater commanders an important force multiplier.

The Joint force could address the precipitous decline in available long-range strike capacity in other ways as well. For example, the Navy could take a page from the Russian playbook and augment its capacity through containerized surface-launch options.¹³⁸ Moreover, the Army's emergent "multi-domain battle" concept reportedly calls for use of land-based antiship missiles, an idea that could also feature a land-attack capability.¹³⁹ Similarly, the "arsenal plane" and related concepts proposed by the

Strategic Capabilities Office and Air Force could provide a long-range conventional air option in the years ahead.¹⁴⁰ But at the end of the day, a mobile, forward-deployable, covert option is both a necessary and preferred ingredient for theater plans. A robust undersea capability would avoid the use-it-or-lose-it challenges associated with raid-density scenarios, would be more difficult for an adversary to preempt, and would provide theater commanders maximum operational flexibility.

- *Rediscover the warfighting utility of strategic mining.* Russia, China, North Korea, Iran, and other states have embraced mine warfare in naval settings, a potentially powerful area-denial capability.¹⁴¹ For example, Chinese analysts have reportedly considered favorably the lessons of *Operation Starvation*, a late-World War II aerial mining campaign designed to curtail Japan's wartime supply effort.¹⁴² According to Andrew Erickson, Lyle Goldstein, and William Murray, Chinese naval strategists contend that sea mines are "easy to lay and difficult to sweep; their concealment potential is strong; their destructive power is high; and the threat value is long-lasting."¹⁴³ Among other things, they see warfighting utility in placing as many as 10,000-14,000 mines in a Taiwan blockade scenario. At the same time, only a small portion of the U.S. fleet is dedicated to mine countermeasures and the United States "took its eye off the ball" with respect to the "technological backwater" of maritime mine warfare.¹⁴⁴

As a result, the fleet has only recently begun to rediscover the potential utility of and emerging need for a strategic mining capability. During the Cold War, the United States maintained an active inventory of mines designed for offensive and defensive employment. Yet by the late-2000s, the Navy planned to phase-out the Mk-67 Submarine-Launched Mobile Mine, together with other offensive mine warfare capabilities. The Chief of Naval Operations intervened, however, preserving the residual Mk-67 inventory and the sole-remaining submarine employment option.¹⁴⁵ It is time for the Navy to embrace its longstanding role in mine warfare, both through manned and unmanned undersea systems. Strategic mining has the potential to become a valuable area-denial capability that complicates adversary planning, raises the risks and costs of military operations to the adversary, and increases the chances that U.S. and allied forces will be able to deny the adversary a quick victory on the modern battlefield. Said differently, it is time to re-learn an old lesson: that by strengthening the nation's warfighting posture, such capabilities enhance conventional deterrence.

- *Fill the gap in theater special operations undersea delivery.* While the 2020s-era retirement of SSGNs from active duty will leave a significant hole in the Navy's forward-deployable land-attack capability, it will also curtail its ability to support special operations missions. Their current ability to provide clandestine insertion and retrieval of up to 66 special forces personnel is an important capacity loss in this area.¹⁴⁶ Against this backdrop, the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff calls on the Joint force to "pioneer new ways to combine and employ emergent capabilities such as special forces."¹⁴⁷ While they have been integral to a prolonged global counterterrorism fight

for a decade-and-a-half, this 56,000-strong element of the Joint force will be equally critical in the emergent era of great power competition.

Should the Navy proceed with the proposed forward-deployed SSK squadrons, it may be possible to configure one or more of the new vessels for this mission need.

Alternatively, the *Virginia* SSNs can take advantage of a reconfigurable torpedo room to covertly transport a smaller set of special forces personnel to maritime forward operating locations.¹⁴⁸ In either case, the Special Operations Command seeks to acquire two new types of mini-submersible for close-in littoral maneuvers. The Shallow Water Combat Submersible, designed to replace the legacy Mk-8 Seal Delivery Vehicle, can reportedly carry six or more special operators across relatively short distances. The Dry Combat Submersible, designed to travel up to 60 nautical miles while submerged up to 190 feet, extends the range and operating depth of the Shallow Water vessel.¹⁴⁹ The commander of the Special Operations Command, General Joseph Votel, views these as “critical procurement programs.”¹⁵⁰ But their utility is predicated on the ability of fleet forces—and submarines in particular—to execute clandestine delivery and recovery from forward operating areas. Providing sufficient capacity is therefore a critical enabler for Joint warfighting success in contested environments.

- *Enhance the U.S. antisubmarine warfare posture.* Even as the Navy seeks to augment its offensive undersea capacity, it must ramp-up its defensive posture. Reviewing NATO’s antisubmarine warfare posture in Europe, the Center for Strategic and International Studies sees “real and worrying decreases” in the group’s collective ability to reliably track, deter, and counter Russia’s undersea forces due to a “lack of investments in readiness and materiel over the past decade and a half.”¹⁵¹ The bad news, of course, is that the antisubmarine capabilities afforded through NATO’s common defense posture is probably stronger than those available through the web of U.S. bilateral alliances that characterizes East Asian security architecture—even as the Chinese undersea threat is growing more quickly. It is here where the rapid rise of quiet diesel-electric attack boats is of critical importance. Says former antisubmarine warfare operations officer Jerry Hendrix, “How loud is your flashlight?”¹⁵²

This is a modern twist on the century-old hinder/finder competition. While antisubmarine operations in deep-water allow for the full-range of air, surface, and undersea capabilities, those in littoral settings generally are more limited. American antisubmarine warfare conducted in, for example, the Yellow or Baltic Seas will be comparatively constrained by amassed Chinese or Russian A2/AD systems. Moreover, shallow-water operations limit acoustic propagation and the resulting performance of active and passive sonars.¹⁵³ While UUVs can serve as force multipliers, also important are surface capabilities such as the antisubmarine warfare module designed for the Littoral Combat Ship and developmental programs such as DARPA’s Sea Hunter, a continuous trail unmanned surface vessel, and airborne patrols by P-8, MH-60, and other aircraft.¹⁵⁴ At the same time, enhanced onboard computation and other

capabilities may enable improvements to both acoustic and non-acoustic detection.¹⁵⁵ While prolonged under-investment in this mission area was understandable in light of competing defense priorities over the past two decades, it should become a greater investment priority in light of growing undersea competition. For Captain Charlie Williams, deputy for weapons and sensors in the Navy Surface Warfare Directorate, “we must reclaim the [antisubmarine warfare] battlespace if we are going to be successful in this new era . . . we must adapt.”¹⁵⁶ To do so, the Navy requires a more robust ASW force complement and a stepped-up training and exercise regimen.

- *Finally, full-speed ahead on an operating concept for the “anti-A2/AD force.”* Over the past five years, Department of Defense components have developed various operating concepts and doctrinal approaches calibrated to the emerging A2/AD threat landscape. The *Joint Operational Access Concept* establishes the broad set of capabilities required, while the *Joint Concept for Access and Maneuver in the Global Commons* and the *Joint Concept for Entry Operations* address how the Joint force is positioning to address anti-access and area-denial challenges, respectively.¹⁵⁷ The Navy and Marine Corps are currently developing a concept for operations to address how “an integrated force operating from dispersed locations both ashore and afloat will achieve local sea control and power projection into contested littoral areas.”¹⁵⁸

Taken together, this body of work provides a reasonable foundation for systematic development of an operating concept for what Submarine Forces Commander Tofalo calls the “anti-A2/AD force.” The proposed concept would flesh out in greater detail the undersea community’s specific contributions in the emergent context of Joint and combined theater operations. These might include, for example: intelligence collection, electronic force support, precision strike of land targets, maritime interdiction, surface fleet protection, strategic mining, and/or other operational support activities. Treating this as a “living” concept is important in light of continuing budgetary pressures and expanding mission needs set against a backdrop of evolving U.S. and adversary undersea capabilities. Moreover, as Under Secretary of the Navy Janine Davidson observes, different theaters present different challenges; so a one-size-fits-all approach is insufficient.¹⁵⁹ Because theater A2/AD operating environments and associated command priorities will vary, the concept should look across the Pacific, Central, and European theaters of operation. At the same time, theater-specific experimentation campaigns can help shape a commander’s warfighting options, theater security engagement priorities, operational risk calculus, and deliberate planning activities, as well as the Navy’s out-years undersea investment portfolio.

While progress in these nine areas will enhance the nation’s undersea posture, continued vigilance is required as adversary forces continue to improve. The century-old hider/finder competition is thriving. As with challenges in the air, land, sea, space, cyber and broader electromagnetic domains, America’s continued undersea dominance is neither an entitlement nor a given. But it is achievable, and represents one of the more important investments the

nation can make to advance its deterrence and warfighting strategies for operations in contested security environments. Said differently, the silent service's unique capabilities are integral to the nation's ability to project power; and their robustness will determine whether the United States can continue to succeed in this quest despite adversary anti-access and area-denial capability advances.

America's innate ability to cultivate novel technologies and develop outside-the-box operational concepts is not in question. But in the current budget-constrained and mission-expansive landscape, it must prioritize its efforts and resource to effect. The silver lining in today's resource crunch: senior leaders have an opportunity to chart a new course forward, to think differently about how the nation should reconfigure its operational posture for emerging security challenges. While not a panacea, the recommendations above will help the Navy navigate the choppy waters ahead—and prolong U.S. undersea superiority.

NOTES

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