AIR AND SPACE STUDIES 200
The Evolution of USAF Air and Space Power

2017-2018 Edition

Jeanne M. Holm Center for Officer Accessions and Citizen Development
Air Force Reserve Officer Training Corps

Academic Affairs Directorate

Mr. James C. Wiggins, Dean and Director
Dr. Kevin O’Meara, Chief, Commissioning Education Branch

Contributors

Mr. Ricky Lewis
Mr. Houston Markham
Lieutenant Colonel Stephen Wales
Lieutenant Colonel Martin Haigh
Major Edward Talley
Captain Andrea Gallegos
Mr. Marvin Haughton
Captain Jess Shipley
Captain Justin Miller
Mr. James Damato
Captain James Scott

Production Staff

Ms. Nicole Griffin, Tech Publications Specialist, Cover Design
Ms. Chanel Wilson, Tech Publications Specialist
Ms. Marche Hinson, Textbook Distribution
This text was developed under the guidance of Mr. James C. Wiggins, Dean and Director, Academic Affairs Directorate, Holm Center, Maxwell AFB, AL.

This publication has been reviewed and approved by competent personnel of the preparing command in accordance with current directives on doctrine, policy, essentiality, propriety, and quality. The views and opinions expressed or implied in this publication do not carry the official sanction of the Air Education and Training Command or the Department of the Air Force.

Copyrighted materials used in this text have been reproduced by special arrangement with the original publishers and/or authors. Such material is fully protected by the copyright laws of the United States, and may not be further reproduced in whole or in part without the expressed permission of the copyright owner.

Unless otherwise credited, photos and images in this text are provided courtesy of U.S. Air Force, U.S. Government, or other public domain free-use websites. This book is used solely for U.S. Air Force academic purposes and is provided to all registered students free of charge.
# AIR AND SPACE STUDIES 200

## Table of Contents

Leadership Studies (LS), Profession of Arms (PA), Communication Studies (CS), Warfare Studies (WS), International Security Studies (ISS)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LESSON</th>
<th>TITLE</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 1</td>
<td>Introduction to AS200</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 2</td>
<td>Introduction to Critical Thinking (LS)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 3</td>
<td>Airpower: End of WWI Through WWII (WS)</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 4</td>
<td>The Profession of Arms (PA)</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 5</td>
<td>The Department of Defense (WS)</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 6</td>
<td>Basics of Briefing (CS)</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 7</td>
<td>Department of the Army</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 8</td>
<td>Department of the Navy (WS)</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 9</td>
<td>US Marine Corps (WS)</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 10</td>
<td>US Coast Guard (WS)</td>
<td>129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 11</td>
<td>Introduction to AS200</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 12</td>
<td>The US Constitution (PA)</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 13</td>
<td>Civilian Control of the Military (PA)</td>
<td>161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 14</td>
<td>Air and System Capabilities (WS)</td>
<td>177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 15</td>
<td>Force Packaging (WS)</td>
<td>192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 16</td>
<td>Introduction to Leadership Theory (LS)</td>
<td>196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson 17</td>
<td>Leadership Fundamentals (LS)</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Cognitive Lesson Objective:
- Know the AS200 course material and the course requirements.

Cognitive Samples of Behavior:
- State the course objectives.
- Describe course concepts (overview).
- Identify proper classroom conduct and procedures.
- List student assignments and testing requirements.
- Describe the course grading criteria.

Affective Lesson Objective:
- Respond to the importance of the lesson overview.

Affective Sample of Behavior:
- Actively participate in classroom discussion.
Lesson Preparation:
- Read “Critical Thinking for the Military Professional” (pp. 271-278) in Concepts for Air Force Leadership (AU-24).

Affective Lesson Objective:
- Respond to the importance of critical thinking and its importance for Air Force leaders.

Affective Samples of Behavior:
- Defend the importance of critical thinking for Air Force leaders.
- Explain the importance of applying the intellectual standards to the elements of reasoning.
- Justify the need for effective questioning.
Airpower: End of WWI through WWII

Cognitive Lesson Objective:
• Comprehend the significance of airpower from the end of WWI through the end of WWII.

Cognitive Samples of Behavior:
• Describe the general mood of the country and the condition of the Air Service at the conclusion of WWI.
• Identify the major contribution Brigadier General William “Billy” Mitchell made toward the autonomy of the Air Force.
• Outline the key theories of ACTS staff members in the 1930s.
• Identify the significance of Air War Plans Division Plan #1.
• State the significance of combining GHQ Air Force and the Army Air Corps on 20 June 1941.
• State the most important lesson in air warfare learned in North Africa.
• Explain the lessons learned with strategic bombing in Europe.
• State the unique tactics used with tactical airpower in the Pacific Theater during WWII.
• Describe the use and importance of strategic airpower in the Pacific Theater during WWII.

Affective Lesson Objective:
• Respond to the importance of air power advancements from the end of WWI through the end of WWII.

Affective Sample of Behavior:
• Actively participate in classroom discussions.
ORGANIZATION AND TECHNOLOGY

The scale of destruction and bloodshed in World War I was truly shocking. No one could have imagined 10 million dead and 21 million wounded soldiers or 9 million dead civilians. A generation had been slaughtered in the trenches, the events witnessed by 2 million American servicemen who went home from “over there,” convinced that such a war should never be fought again. In its aftermath, diplomats pursued collective security through the League of Nations; the Kellogg-Briand Pact renouncing war as an instrument of national policy; the Locarno Pact recognizing the inviolability of European borders; and the Washington, London, and Geneva disarmament treaties and talks. In Germany, Airmen sought to restore mobility to the battlefield, joining aircraft and tanks to create blitzkrieg warfare. In America Airmen strove for the coup degrace-strategic bombing directly against the vital centers of a nation’s war-making capability.

American Airmen came back from France with a unique perspective on modern war. Josiah Rowe, of the 147th Aero Squadron, wrote of the World War I battlefield as “a barren waste, broken only by shell holes, trenches and barbed wire, with not one living thing in sight.” He was “glad to get away from such gruesome scenes” by climbing into the sky in his airplane. Billy Mitchell wrote that the Allies could cross the front lines “in a few minutes” in their aircraft, whereas “the armies were locked in the struggle, immovable, powerless to advance, for three years. It looked as though the war would go on indefinitely until either the airplanes brought [it to an end] or the contending nations dropped from sheer exhaustion.”

American Airmen knew that aircraft lacked the range, speed, and reliability for strategic bombing, but they had faith that technology could overcome any restrictions. They also knew the importance of concentrating on basic objectives such as winning air superiority or interdicting the front, both of which, they believed, required an independent air force. They had caught tantalizing glimpses of what strategic bombing could do to an enemy’s industrial centers. They saw the effectiveness of offense and the futility of defense against a determined aerial assault.

For these and other servicemen, aircraft seemed the answer to the slaughter of trench warfare. German Airmen soon envisioned air power as mobile artillery accompanying fast-moving armored units (blitzkrieg warfare). American Airmen, however, saw air power as an independent strategic force that could bring an enemy nation to its knees. Throughout history, an attacking army fought its way through a defending army to get to its enemy’s vital centers. Strategic bombers would fly over the army to strike at the enemy’s heart. Air leaders such as Billy Mitchell believed that with aircraft future wars would be shorter and less bloody.

During World War I America’s air service had not coalesced. Afterwards it had to be built in an atmosphere of antiwar fervor and tight congressional budgets. In addition, the U.S. Army and U.S. Navy, viewing the air service as their auxiliary arms and a supporting weapon, placed obstacles in the way of its further development. The President’s Aircraft Board,
better known as the Morrow Board for its chairman, the banker Dwight Morrow, called by President Calvin Coolidge in 1925 to evaluate the air service’s call for independence, reinforced this view: “The next war may well start in the air but in all probability will wind up, as the last war did, in the mud.” Evolving technology and irrepressible flyers, however, drove the air service in a different direction.

Few in the air service were particularly keen on flying close air support in trench warfare. Most Airmen thought it unglamorous, marginally effective, and dangerous. What then could air power do, especially with advanced technology? The War Department General Staff already knew what it wanted from its Airmen—close air support, reconnaissance, interdiction, and air superiority over the battlefield. The Dickman Board, named for its chairman, Major General Joseph Dickman, appointed in 1919 by General Pershing to evaluate the lessons of the war, concluded: “Nothing so far brought out in the war shows that aerial activities can be carried on, independently of ground forces, to such an extent as to affect materially the conduct of the war as a whole.”

The air service could hardly contradict this judgment. Its heavy bomber at the time was the French-built Breguet. A veteran of the Great War with a range of 300 miles and a top speed of 100 miles per hour, it could only carry a 500-pound bomb load. In the postwar demobilization, by 1920 the air service was reduced to fewer than 2,200 officers and 8,500 enlisted men. To formulate basic doctrine for the fledging air force and train officers, Air Service Chief Major General Charles Menoher established the Air Service Tactical School at Langley Field in Virginia, later to become the Air Corps Tactical School at Maxwell Field in Alabama. He made Brooks and Kelly Fields in Texas responsible for flight training and the Engineering Division at McCook Field in Ohio, later to become the Materiel Division at nearby Wright Field, responsible for flight technology. Congress provided the air service a measure of independence, changing it from an auxiliary force to an offensive force equal to the artillery and infantry, by creating the U.S. Army Air Corps on July 2, 1926.

Other aerial pioneers sought to test the versatility of aircraft through aerial exploration and discovery in a succession of record-setting flights. In 1921 Lieutenant John Macready climbed to 35,409 feet, higher than anyone before. In 1923 Macready and Lieutenant Oakley Kelly flew a Fokker T-2 nonstop across the width of the United States. In 1924 several air service crews led by Major Frederick Martin took 175 days to fly around the world. In 1925 Lieutenants Jimmy Doolittle and Cy Bettis won the Pulitzer and Schneider Cup speed races for the air service. Major Carl Spaatz (later spelled Spatz), Captain Ira Eaker, Lieutenant Elwood Quesada, and Sergeant Roy Hooe flew the Fokker trimotor Question Mark to a record duration of 150 hours in 1929, displaying the great promise of inflight refueling. Doolittle and Lieutenant Albert Hegenberger achieved what the New York Times called the “greatest single step forward in [aerial] safety”—a series of blind flights from 1929 to 1932 that opened the night and clouded skies to flying. Only the Air Corps’ assignment to deliver air mail in the first half of 1934, called “legalized murder” by Eddie Rickenbacker because of the 12 lives it claimed, detracted from the image that these aerial pioneers were helping to create.
Record-breaking military flights, alongside trailblazing civilian achievements by Charles Lindbergh and Amelia Earhart, represented the public side of a revolution in aviation technology. The staff at the Engineering Division, and later the Materiel Division, worked with American industry and the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics (predecessor of the National Air and Space Administration) to develop essential technologies such as sodium-cooled engine valves, high octane gasoline, tetraethyl lead knock suppressants, stressed duraluminum aircraft structures, cantilevered wings, superchargers, turbosuperchargers, retractable landing gear, engine cowlings, radial engines, variable pitch constant speed propellers, and automatic pilots. The two-engine Keystone bomber of the 1920s, a biplane constructed of steel tubes and wires and fabric surfaces, with an open cockpit and fixed landing gear, could fly 98 miles per hour for 350 miles with one ton of bombs. A decade later Boeing’s four-engine B-17 bomber could fly nearly 300 miles per hour for 800 miles with over two tons of bombs.

How would America’s military aviators use this technology in war? The Army General Staff wanted to employ tactical air power “in direct or indirect support of other components of the Nation’s armed forces.” It believed the primary target was the adversary’s Army. The most vocal opponent of this view was Assistant Chief of the Air Service, Brigadier General Billy Mitchell, who saw in strategic bombing the proper use of air power. Close air support and interdiction, he asserted, only perpetuated trench warfare and the horrors of World-War I-like slaughter. He argued for a force that could strike directly at an enemy’s vitals, “centers of production of all kinds, means of transportation, agricultural areas, ports and shipping,” forcing “a decision before the ground troops or sea forces could join in battle.” Mitchell’s actions created opponents as well as adherents. A series of highly publicized ship-bombing tests (tactical airpower display) begun in 1921 overshadowed the ideas he had espoused in books (strategic airpower) such as Winged Defense: The Development and Possibilities of Modern Air Power-Economic and Military. Air service bombers sank several unmanned, anchored ships, including battleships. Mitchell’s apparent success, despite poor bombing accuracy, diverted both the public’s and the Congress’s attention from more critical aerial achievements and issues of the period. Mitchell’s troubles with Army and Navy leaders eventually led to his court martial after he spoke intemperately about the crash of the airship Shenandoah in 1925. (He blamed the loss on “incompetency, criminal negligence, and almost treasonable administration.”) President Coolidge, famous for his reticence and nicknames “Silent Cal,” expressed a widely-held view when he contended, “General Mitchell [has] talked more in the last three months than I [have] in my whole life.” (Please reference the “Focus On: The Billy Mitchell Court-Martial” article at the end of this section.)

Behind such scenes, Chief of the Air Corps Major General James Fechet urged his officers in 1928 to look beyond the battlefield, beyond close air support, and find a way for the Air Corps to win a war independently. He imposed only three limitations: First, the Air Corps had to get the most for any money available. Second, civilians could not be targets of aerial attack. Secretary of War Newton Baker had ruled earlier that doing so “constituted an abandonment of the time-honored practice among civilized people of restricting bombardment to fortified places or to places from which the civilian population
had an opportunity to be removed.” Americans would not undertake terror raids, he said, “on the most elemental ethical and humanitarian grounds.” Third, anything the Air Corps did would have to solve or avoid the evils of trench warfare.

One officer who answered Fechet’s challenge was Lieutenant Kenneth Walker. Conventional wisdom taught that while Airmen achieved high accuracy when they bombed from low altitudes, they exposed themselves to deadly ground fire. Walker showed that daylight high-altitude precision bombing was superior to low-altitude bombing and provided greater survivability, explosive force, and, ironically, accuracy. (Bombs released at low altitudes tumbled and ricocheted when they hit the ground.) He wrote, “Bombardment missions are carried out at high altitudes, to reduce the possibilities of interception by hostile pursuit and the effectiveness of anti-aircraft gun fire and to increase the explosive effect of the bombs.” The keys to attaining accuracy from high altitudes were Carl Norden’s new M-series bombsights, designed under Navy contract, but destined to equip Air Corps bombers beginning in 1933.

At Maxwell Field in Montgomery, Alabama, Major Donald Wilson and the faculty of the Air Corps Tactical School proposed in the early 1930s to destroy an enemy’s ability to resist by bombing what Wilson called the “vital objects of a nation’s economic structure that tend to paralyze the nation’s ability to wage war and the hostile will to resist.” Because of America’s opposition to attacking civilians or non-military targets, this bombing would be aimed not directly at an enemy’s will, but at the machines and industries that supported that will and its military defenses. The destruction of an enemy’s vital industries would destroy its ability to continue to wage war. Wilson viewed high-altitude precision bombing as “an instrument which could cause the collapse of this industrial fabric by depriving the web of certain essential elements---as few as three main systems such as transportation, electrical power, and steel manufacture would suffice.”

The technological innovations of the 1930s, which so profoundly inspired the ideas of Walker and Wilson among others, were applied in particular to the large aircraft demanded by America’s airlines, and they created a curious situation-large bombers flew faster than small fighters. Thus was born the conviction among Airmen, as expressed by Brigadier General Oscar Westover: “No known agency can frustrate the accomplishment of a bombardment mission.” The B-17 of 1935 could reach 252 miles per hour at high altitudes, compared with the P-26 front-line fighter, which could not exceed 234. Because speed would allow a bomber to overcome enemy aerial defenses, strategic bombing became the focus of air power development for Mitchell, Walker, Wilson, Wright Field’s engineers, and such Air Corps leaders as Brigadier General Henry “Hap” Arnold, commanding the 1st Bombardment Wing, who labored to create the tactical formations, flying techniques, and organization needed for this new kind of warfare. So while the Air Corp Tactical Schools (ACTS)original mission was to teach air strategy and tactics it changed in the mid 1930’s from an emphasis on ground support to strategic bombing. Billy Mitchell’s key followers at the ACTS believed future wars would be decided by airpower and so the airplane would be a major offensive weapon of modern forces moving forward.
Upon the recommendation of a War Department committee, known as the Baker Board (named for former Secretary of War, Newton Baker), Congress established the General Headquarters Air Force (GHQAF) on March 1, 1935. This first American “named” air force, under the command of Brigadier General Frank Andrews and headquartered at Langley Field in Virginia, controlled all offensive aviation in the nine corps areas of the United States, including organization, training, and operations. Powerful opponents in the Army separated the GHQAF from the Air Corps under Major General Westover, in charge of individual training, procurement, doctrine, and supply. The Air Corps remained a combatant arm of the Army, while the GHQAF came under the Chief of Staff in peacetime and the commander of field forces in wartime. The two air components remained divided until March 1, 1939, when the GHQAF came under the control of the Chief of Air Corps.

The MacArthur-Pratt agreement of 1931 made the Air Corps responsible for short-range coastal defense and Army operations on land, but left the Navy as America’s offensive force on the sea. Two developments changed this division of responsibility. First, advances in aviation technology made restrictions to short-range operations nonsensical, as when three B-17s intercepted the Italian liner Rex in the Atlantic over 700 miles from America’s shores in 1937. Still, the Army continued buying, for the most part, short-range tactical aircraft, including the twin- engine B-18, to support ground operations. Second, Adolf Hitler’s successful use of air power as a threat in the Sudetenland-Czechoslovakia crisis of 1938 convinced President Franklin Roosevelt that the United States needed a large air force “with which to impress Germany,” and ordered the acquisition of 10,000 aircraft (later reduced to 5,500 based on budget constraints) when Congress appropriated $300 million for the buildup.

When Germany invaded Poland in September 1939, the Air Corps had 26,000 Airmen and a heavy bomber force of only 23 B-17s. With the support of President Roosevelt, Chief of Air Corps Arnold used British and French orders for 10,000 additional aircraft to help launch a huge expansion of the aviation industry. With the fall of France in June 1940, Roosevelt ordered an Air Corps of 50,000 aircraft and 54 combat groups. Congress appropriated $2 billion, eventually, to insure funding for both strategic and tactical air forces. In March 1941 the Air Corps expanded to 84 groups. These actions and events presaged what would become the largest air force in the world equipped with the most modern aircraft available. By December 1941, however, the Army’s air corps still had only 3,304 combat aircraft, but World War II mainstays such as P-51 Mustang and P-47 Thunderbolt fighters and the B-29 Superfortress bomber still were not operational. All would become part of the U.S. Army Air Forces (USAAF) led by Major General Hap Arnold, established under Army Regulation 95-5 on June 20, 1941, with the Air Corps and the Air Force Combat Command (formerly the GHQAF) as subordinate arms. This merge creating the USAAF was significant because it represented the final hurdle in organizational change prior to the creation of an independent Air Force in 1947.

In August 1941, at the behest of the War Department, USAAF Chief Arnold directed four former faculty members of the Air Corps Tactical School to devise an air plan against America’s potential adversaries. The plan was known as AWPD/1. This was significant because it established independent operating objectives for the Air Corps and called for
precision bombing of the German industry and economy. Lieutenant Colonels Kenneth Walker and Harold George and Majors Haywood Hansell and Laurence Kuter of the newly-formed Air War Plans Division (AWPD) identified in their plan 154 “chokepoint” targets in the German industrial fabric, the destruction of which, they held, would render Germany “incapable of continuing to fight a war.” A lack of intelligence prevented the design of a similar plan against Japan. The four planners calculated that the desired air campaign would require 98 bomber groups—a force of over 6,800 aircraft. From their recommendation General Arnold determined the number of supporting units, aircraft, pilots, mechanics, and all other skills and equipment the USAAF would need to fight what became World War II. The 239 groups estimated came close to the 243 combat groups representing 80,000 aircraft and 2.4 million personnel that actually formed the USAAF in 1944 at its wartime peak. The planners had also assumed that they would not have to initiate their air plan with a complete 98-group force until April 1944. However, they were not allowed the luxury of time. When the Japanese attacked Pearl Harbor four months after the air plan’s submission to the War Department, an ill-equipped USAAF found itself thrust into the greatest war in human history.
Focus On:
THE BILLY MITCHELL COURT-MARTIAL


In the Army’s view, the issue was insubordination, not the validity of Mitchell’s claims.

By 1925, Billy Mitchell had alienated almost everybody in the War Department and Navy Department, to say nothing of President Calvin Coolidge. Strident in his advocacy of airpower, Mitchell did not hesitate to lash out when he disagreed with his superiors, which was often. “The General Staff knows as much about the air as a hog does about skating,” he said.

William Mitchell (no middle name) came to fame as the combat leader of American air forces in France in World War I. He was promoted to the temporary grade of brigadier general and kept his star after the war because of his assignment as assistant chief of the Army Air Service.

When Mitchell’s bombers sank the surplus German battleship Ostfriesland in a July 1921 demonstration, it was a strong blow for airpower. It was also a huge embarrassment for the Navy, which had said he couldn’t do it. Mitchell’s traditionalist boss, Army Chief Gen. John J. Pershing, sided with the Navy in dismissing the significance of the demonstration.

Mitchell continued his all-out public campaign for airpower. He said the world stood on the threshold of an “aeronautical era” and that military airpower, independent of ground and sea forces, should be the first line of defense.

He was popular with the public and the press and had some supporters in Congress. He had a strong following among younger officers, and even a few moles in the Navy. The generals and admirals wanted to be rid of him.

Thus when his term as assistant air chief expired in March 1925, he was not reappointed. He was assigned to Fort Sam Houston in San Antonio as aviation officer for the Army’s Eighth Corps Area, reverting to his permanent grade of colonel. It was an important job in a significant command, but Mitchell felt he had been demoted and sent to the boondocks. The Airmen in Texas still called him “General.”

Two Navy aircraft mishaps soon caused Mitchell’s temper to boil over in even more spectacular fashion than usual. The worst of the accidents was the breakup of the Navy dirigible Shenandoah over Ava, Ohio, Sept. 3. The airship was on a publicity junket, due to pass over 27 cities at times announced in advance to please politicians and their constituents. Over Ohio, Shenandoah ran into a line squall of intense thunderstorms but did not divert around it, remaining on course for a state fair the next day.
Gripped by the storm, the airship pitched up to 6,300 feet, plunged to 3,200 feet, and was thrown back up to 6,200 feet. The keel broke and the airship was torn into three parts. The front section fell a mile to the ground, killing the skipper, Lt. Cmdr. Zachary Lansdowne, and 13 other crew members. Part of the ship was able to maneuver as a free balloon and landed, saving 27 lives.

The Shenandoah tragedy followed the news that a Navy PN-9 seaplane on a demonstration flight to Hawaii had gone down in the Pacific because of engine failure. Another aircraft on the flight was forced to land in the water 200 miles short of Hawaii when it ran out of fuel.

**Rocket From San Antonio**

What enraged Mitchell as much as anything was the public reaction of Secretary of the Navy Curtis D. Wilbur, who said the accidents illustrated limitations of airpower. “Some people,” said Wilbur, “make extravagant claims for aviation. Great things have been achieved. From our experience, however, I am convinced that the Atlantic and the Pacific are still the greatest bulwarks against any air invasion of the United States.” Wilbur said the PN-9 incident showed how difficult it was to cross 2,100 miles of ocean without carrying bombs, much less to cross with 1,000-pound bombs.

In San Antonio Sept. 5, Mitchell called in the press and gave them a 5,000-word statement. “These accidents are the direct result of the incompetency, criminal negligence, and almost treasonable administration of the national defense by the Navy and War Departments,” he said.

"All aviation policies, schemes, and systems are dictated by nonflying officers of the Army or Navy who know practically nothing about it," he said. “The lives of the Airmen are being used merely as pawns in their hands. ... Officers and agents sent by the War and Navy Departments to Congress have almost always given incomplete, misleading, or false information about aeronautics.”

Mitchell said Shenandoah, overweight in its structure and with low reserve buoyancy, had been sent on a propaganda mission without adequate safeguards. He then moved on to general criticism of Army and Navy aviation programs.

He wasn’t finished.

Four days later, he called the reporters back and said, “If the department does not like the statement I made, let them take disciplinary action as they see fit, according to their judgment, court-martial or no court-martial. ... The investigation that is needed is of the War and Navy Departments and their conduct in the disgraceful administration of aviation.”

Summoned to Washington to explain himself, Mitchell was greeted at the train station by cheering supporters and an American Legion fife and drum corps.
Orders From Coolidge

President Coolidge was Mitchell’s direct opposite in personality. A dour man of few words, he was satisfied to be known as “Silent Cal.” He made his national reputation by putting down a police strike in Boston in 1919 when he was governor of Massachusetts.

The War Department inspector general recommended that Mitchell be tried by court-martial. The charges were not made by Mitchell’s military superior but rather by the Secretary of War at the direction of the President.

Coolidge did not accuse Mitchell directly in public. That might have been seen as prejudicing the outcome of the trial. However, there was no doubt who Coolidge was talking about when he spoke to the American Legion convention in early October.

“Any organization of men in the military service bent on inflaming the public mind for the purpose of forcing government action through the pressure of public opinion is an exceedingly dangerous undertaking and precedent,” Coolidge said. “It is for the civil authority to determine what appropriations shall be granted, what appointments shall be made, and what rules shall be adopted for the conduct of its armed forces. ... Whenever the military power starts dictating to the civil authority by whatever means adopted, the liberties of the country are beginning to end.”

Mitchell was charged under the 96th Article of War, the catch-all general article that covered “disorders and neglects to the prejudice of good order and discipline [and] all conduct of a nature to bring discredit upon the military service.” Mitchell ridiculed Article 96, saying, “Officers are tried under it for kicking a horse.”

The Army held Mitchell’s statements were prejudicial to good order and discipline, insubordinate, “contemptuous and disrespectful,” and intended to discredit the War Department and Navy Department. With the Sept. 5 and 9 statements counted separately, it added up to eight specifications to the charge.

Coolidge, hoping to tamp down the controversy and divert attention from the Mitchell court-martial, appointed a board, headed by New York banker Dwight W. Morrow, to look into the military aviation issue.

Curtain Up

The court-martial began Oct. 28 in the Emery Building, an old red brick warehouse, at the foot of Capitol Hill in downtown Washington. Five hundred people, including 40 reporters and newsreel cameramen, lined the streets to see Colonel Mitchell and Mrs. Mitchell arrive.

Twelve senior generals, handpicked by the Army and the War Department, were appointed to the court. One of them, destined for greater things, was Mitchell's boyhood friend from Milwaukee, Douglas MacArthur. In addition, there was a “law member” of the court, Col. Blanton C. Winship, a legal officer assigned to assist and rule on legal questions.
Mitchell promptly challenged three of the generals off the court, including Maj. Gen. Charles P. Summerall, a future Army Chief of Staff who was to have been president of the court. The ousted generals were not replaced, as only six members were required for a trial. Maj. Gen. Robert L. Howze took over as president.

Mitchell’s defense team was led by Rep. Frank R. Reid (R-Ill.), a first rate lawyer who met Mitchell at House Aircraft Committee hearings. He called members of the court “you men” and “you people,” but the generals took it in stride. The prosecutor was the trial judge advocate, Col. Sherman Moreland, fully competent but no match for Reid in flash and dash.

Photos from the trial show members of the court with old-style high military collars. Mitchell wore his collar folded down in the more modern fashion favored by Airmen, who claimed that high collars chafed their necks while flying.

The prosecution introduced its evidence the morning of Nov. 2 and rested its case that afternoon. Moreland called witnesses who established that Mitchell made the two statements and gave them to the press. In the Army’s view, this was prima facie breach of good order and discipline and sufficient for conviction.

It wasn’t nearly over, though. Next day, Reid announced that he wanted to call 73 witnesses for the defense and asked for thousands of Army documents. He intended to argue the validity of what Mitchell had said. Moreland objected. All that mattered was Mitchell had made the statements. The substance of what he said counted only for mitigation and extenuation, if that.

However, the court did not rule against the evidence Reid wanted to present. Under the glare of public and press attention, Mitchell was given leeway that he would not have gotten under other circumstances. Reid and Mitchell had effectively converted the court-martial into a public debate about airpower. The trial would continue for six more weeks.

**Gullion Evens the Odds**

Reid introduced a parade of witnesses who gave evidence about equipment, training, misleading military assessments to Congress, Army disregard of advice from air officers, and endangerment of pilots from orders by nonflying superiors. He established that in the past seven years, Mitchell had made 163 recommendations to improve the air service, nearly all of them ignored or disapproved.

A surprise witness was Margaret Lansdowne, widow of the Shenandoah commander. She testified the Navy tried to influence her statement to the board of inquiry, wanting her to say that her husband had been willing and ready to make the flight. She told the inquiry and the Mitchell court that her husband had regarded the flight as political and had flown it under protest, believing the timing was dangerous because of the weather risk. She produced a copy of a letter from Lansdowne to the Chief of Naval Operations asking for a delay until thunderstorm season had passed.
Among those testifying for Mitchell were World War I ace Eddie Rickenbacker and Congressman Fiorello La Guardia. “Billy Mitchell is not being judged by his peers,” La Guardia said. “He is being judged by nine dog robbers of the general staff.” Two little-known majors, Henry H. “Hap” Arnold and Carl A. Spaatz, appeared for Mitchell as well. Even the court was momentarily star struck when famed humorist Will Rogers, a friend of Mitchell’s, attended a session of the trial.

Mitchell was the runaway favorite of the public, but the weeks of airpower testimony made less of an impression on the members of the court, who understood better than the civilians did the meaning of an Article 96 charge.

To shore up the prosecution, Maj. Allen W. Gullion was added as an assistant trial judge advocate Nov. 17. A West Pointer and a former infantry officer, Gullion was regarded as one of the best and most aggressive prosecutors in the Army. The attack on Mitchell and the defense witnesses sharpened as Gullion took on a big share of the questioning.

The trial reached its dramatic peak in late November when Gullion cross-examined Mitchell. He elicited acknowledgments from Mitchell that a considerable part of his statements were opinion rather than fact and that he relied on the newspapers for some of his information, especially about the Navy. Gullion tried to force Mitchell to admit that he had accused officers of long and honorable standing of treason and criminal actions. Mitchell said his words had been directed at a system rather than against an individual or individuals, but Gullion had scored his point with the senior officers on the court.

The prosecution called a succession of rebuttal witnesses. Mitchell debunkers were not difficult to find. As the trial ground on, the Morrow Board made its report, basically accepting the arguments of the traditionalists over those of the Airmen. No radical changes were necessary. The nation was safe from air attack. The Army and Navy air arms should stay where they were.

Summing up for the prosecution on the last day of the court-martial, Gullion pulled out all the stops.

“It is sufficient if the record shows that the conduct is to the prejudice and of a nature to discredit,” he said. “The statements of Sept. 5 and 9 speak for themselves in that regard. But can there be any doubt that the discipline of our Army will be ruined if the accused, in the expressive vernacular of the doughboy, is allowed to get away with it? Every trooper in Fort Huachuca, as he smokes his cigarette with his bunkie after mess, is talking about this case. If the accused is not dismissed, the good trooper will be dismayed and the malcontent and sorehead will be encouraged in his own insubordination.”

(A fascinating footnote to the story is that one of Gullion’s grandsons, Gen. Thomas S. Moorman Jr., became vice chief of staff of the Air Force from 1994 to 1997.)
Mitchell Leaves the Army

After deliberating for three hours on the afternoon of Dec. 17, the court found Mitchell guilty on the charge and all specifications. It suspended him from rank, command, and duty, with the forfeiture of all pay and allowances for five years.

The votes were never revealed but Howze, the president of the court, said it was a split decision. It was widely believed that MacArthur had voted to acquit, but according to most historical sources, that was never confirmed. In his memoirs, MacArthur was cryptic on the subject, saying, “I did what I could in his behalf.”

In November 1945, Sen. Alexander Wiley (R-Wis.)—who was trying to get Mitchell promoted posthumously to major general—wrote to MacArthur, saying, “It was my understanding that yours was the one vote against the court-martial’s verdict which cashiered Billy Mitchell.” MacArthur replied, “Your recollection of my part in his trial is entirely correct. It was fully known to him, and he never ceased to express his gratitude for my attitude. ... He was a rare genius in his profession and contributed much to aviation history.”

Coolidge approved the conviction Jan. 25, 1926, saying that Mitchell “employed expressions which cannot be construed otherwise than as breathing defiance toward his military superiors.”

However, Coolidge recognized that the sentence left Mitchell in an impossible situation. It kept him in service, which prevented him from obtaining private employment, but took away his pay, so he had no means of support. Coolidge reduced the punishment to forfeiture of half of Mitchell’s monthly pay. The free-spending Mitchell could not get by on half pay. The net effect was to force Mitchell to resign from the Army, which he did on Feb. 1.

Pershing, now retired, observed, “There seems to be a Bolshevik bug in the air.” With Mitchell gone, the Army cracked down on dissent. Arnold, an activist on Mitchell’s behalf, was exiled to Fort Riley, Kan., a cavalry post, where he became commander of an observation squadron.

Some Airmen concurred in Mitchell’s conviction. Benjamin D. Foulois, who had despised Mitchell since their time in France in World War I, said, “A civilian could say things like that but not an officer on active duty who had obligated himself by his commissioning oath to an unswerving course of loyalty to his civilian and military superiors.”

In his memoirs, Arnold acknowledged as much. “No matter what was said about ‘Airpower being on trial’—as it was, at times even in the eyes of the prosecution—the thing for which Mitchell was really being tried he was guilty of, and except for Billy, everybody knew it,” Arnold said. “We all knew there was no other way—in accordance with the Army code, Billy had it coming.”
Reconsiderations

Mitchell continued to speak, write, and advocate for airpower. He died in 1936, but as his disciples, including Arnold and Spaatz, moved into positions of authority, he was openly acknowledged as an Air Force hero.

When the Air Force Association was formed in 1946, Mitchell became AFA’s hero, too. And when the Air Force gained its independence from the Army in 1947, the cover of the association’s journal, Air Force Magazine, proclaimed it “The Day Billy Mitchell Dreamed Of.”

Mitchell was celebrated in 1955 in a Warner Brothers movie, “The Court-Martial of Billy Mitchell,” which was longer on enthusiasm than on historical accuracy. Only Hollywood would have chosen Gary Cooper, an actor noted for not talking much, to play Mitchell. Rod Steiger was cast as Gullion.

In 1956, William Mitchell Jr., with AFA acting as his agent, petitioned the Air Force Board for Correction of Military Records to overturn the verdict of the court-martial. The board heard the case in 1957, but the results were not disclosed until the final review in 1958.

By a vote of four-to-one, the board recommended the findings and sentence of the court-martial be declared null and void. “The conclusion is inescapable in the board’s opinion that Mitchell was tried for his views rather than a violation of Article 96,” the proceedings report said.

Secretary of the Air Force James H. Douglas Jr. could not agree. He recognized that many of Mitchell’s beliefs had been vindicated by history but that “while on active duty and subject to the discipline of military service, he characterized the administration of the War and Navy Departments as incompetent, criminally negligent, and almost treasonable.” Mitchell’s statements in September 1925 substantiated the charges against him. “Subsequent confirmation of the correctness of certain views he expressed cannot affect the propriety or impropriety under the 96th Article of expressions which he employed.” The verdict stood.

The Mitchell issue was supposedly settled, but popped up again in a different form in 2004. The Fiscal 2005 Defense Authorization bill authorized the promotion of Billy Mitchell to major general, effective as of the date of his death in 1936. Neither the Pentagon nor the White House took any action as a result of the authorization, and the matter is again at rest—at least, so far.
WORLD WAR II - GLOBAL CONFLICT

Despite the heroics of such Airmen as Lieutenant George Welch, who was credited with having downed 4 enemy aircraft, the surprise strike on Pearl Harbor showed the limitations of the USAAF’s preparations for war. The Hawaiian Air Force lost 66 percent of its strength on December 7, 1941, while the Japanese lost only 29 pilots. Across the International Dateline, Lieutenant Joseph Moore claimed 2 Japanese aircraft in the skies over Clark Field in the Philippines, but General Douglas MacArthur’s air force of 277 aircraft, including 2 squadrons of B-17s (35 aircraft in all), was destroyed. These greatest concentrations of American air power at the time had failed to deter or hinder the Japanese.

At the start of World War I a solid industrial infrastructure on which to construct the world’s greatest air force had not existed in the United States. At the start of World War II this was not the case. The aircraft manufacturing sector was large and growing daily. Before the war, General Arnold had established nine civilian primary flight training schools, two Air Corps basic flight training schools, and two Air Corps advanced flight training schools. The number of trained pilots had jumped from 300 in 1938 to 30,000 in 1941 (plus 110,000 mechanics). On December 7, 1941, the USAAF had a running start and was in the war for the duration.

Arnold planned first for vastly expanded production, training, and research, with the long-term military interests of the nation in mind. While German factories maintained a one-shift peacetime work week until 1943, American plants ran around the clock. Swelled by hundreds of thousands of women, more than two million American workers built nearly 160,000 aircraft of all kinds for the Army and 140,000 for the Navy and Allied nations during the war. America’s aircraft production overwhelmed that of every other nation in the world. Altogether, its factories turned out 324,750 aircraft for the war effort; Germany’s factories turned out 111,077 and Japan’s 79,123. Where other nations stopped production lines to make modifications, or manufactured models long obsolescent, the United States, left its factories alone to insure high production levels and established separate depots to modify and modernize older models. Until the German ME 262 jet, American aircraft set the standard for performance and combat success with their ruggedness (the B-17 Flying Fortress, B-24 Liberator, and P-47 Thunderbolt); their range and bomb load (the B-29 Superfortress); their range, speed, and agility (the P-51 Mustang); and their utility (the C-47 Skytrain). Eventually, they were to equip 243 groups, consuming about 35 percent of America’s total investment in equipment and munitions for the war. They were supported and flown by two and a half million men and women, nearly a third of the U.S. Army’s total strength.

As important as production to Arnold was training. The demands of flight required the best from the brightest. Voluntary enlistments swelled the USAAF initially, supplemented by a pool of deferred flyers previously enrolled in the Air Corps Enlisted Reserve. Flying Training Command prepared nearly 200,000 pilots, nearly 100,000 navigators and bombardiers, and many hundreds of thousands of gunners and other specialists. American pilots
received more uninterrupted training than those of any other nation, again because of Arnold’s strategic vision and America’s bountiful resources. Primary, basic, and advanced training were for individual flyers, brought together at operational training units under the First, Second, Third, and Fourth Air Forces and I Troop Carrier Command for forming into new units. Technical Training Command prepared over two million others, mostly mechanics and specialists to keep aircraft airworthy. Arnold and others labored to insure that the equipment these legions employed was the most advanced available. Research centers and test facilities sprang up all over the United States, dedicated to stretching aviation performance to the limit—and beyond. High octane aviation gasolines, radars, jets, rockets, radios, and special bombs were all products of the USAAF’s commitment to basic and applied research and development.

This enormous aerial force was wielded by General Arnold, who assumed control over all USAAF units, with the War Department reorganization of March 1942. He quickly agreed with General George Marshall to postpone any discussion of an independent air force until after the war. However, Arnold was a member of both the American Joint Chiefs of Staff (JCS) and the joint American and British Combined Chiefs of Staff. The March 1942 reorganization and Arnold’s position on the Combined Chiefs of Staff, nevertheless, gave the USAAF a large measure of autonomy, which was subsequently enhanced with the formation of the Twentieth Air Force (responsible for the B-29 campaign against Japan and under Arnold’s direct command). A tireless commander, Arnold sacrificed his health building a winning air force.

Before the United States entered the war, American and British officials met from January to March 1941 for the ABC-1 talks and agreed on a strategy for defeating the Axis nations. They decided that because Germany represented the stronger enemy, British forces in the Mediterranean would hold their positions. In the Pacific, American forces would go on the strategic defensive, while Allied armies in Europe built up for an eventual landing on the continent followed by a victorious march to Berlin. After December 1941, however, events worked to modify this strategy. First, the U.S. Navy successfully bid for higher priority in the Pacific in an early two-pronged assault on Japan, one from Australia and New Guinea through the Philippines, the other through the islands of the South and Central Pacific. Second, in Europe, British demands for action in the Mediterranean and the immediate need for a reduction of German pressure on the Soviet Union diverted British and American forces to fight in North Africa. These developments left only the England-based Allied air forces to attack the German home land through a strategic bombing campaign.

On June 12, 1942, the USAAF inaugurated operations in the Mediterranean, striking against the Ploesti, Romania, oil fields, a target American airmen would come to know well. Large-scale action began with Operation TORCH—the invasion of North Africa—six months later on November 8. American doctrinal and organizational problems allowed the German Luftwaffe to achieve early domination in the air. Allied ground commanders in North Africa demanded that air units maintain continuous air cover over Army formations. Their firepower thus diluted, “penny packets” patrolled the skies constantly, rarely finding the enemy, and were therefore not available in sufficient numbers when the Luftwaffe
made concentrated attacks. German pilots achieved a three-to-one advantage in aerial victories. At the Casablanca Conference, in late January 1943, the United States adopted a tactical doctrine formulated by British commanders Arthur Coningham and Bernard Montgomery after bloody fighting against Germany’s Afrika Korps. This employment of airpower in tactical situations would turn out to be the most valuable lesson learned from the USAAF in the North Africa campaign. Air superiority became their first objective for the air arm, including deep sweeps against enemy airfields, followed by interdiction to isolate battlefields, and then close air support to assist ground units in their movements against the enemy. Air and ground commanders would work together, neither auxiliary to the other. This experience highlighted the need for a single commander of all theatre air forces.

Codified as Field Manual 31-35, this new doctrine of tactical warfare served the USAAF well. With their air forces finally organized into an independent Northwestern African Air Forces under General Carl Spaatz, including a Strategic Air Force under General Jimmy Doolittle and a Tactical Air Force under Coningham, the Allies achieved air superiority in the spring of 1943 and cut the flow of supplies and reinforcements to Field Marshal Erwin Rommel’s army in North Africa. Allied commanders had the assistance of ULTRA intercepts, the top secret code-breaking operation, that provided detailed information about German ship and aircraft schedules. Axis armies in Tunisia, numbering 270,000 men, surrendered in May.

These initial steps toward organizing air power as an independent, unified force also led Army Chief of Staff George Marshall to issue Field Manual 100-20 in 1943. This document, the USAAF’s “declaration of independence,” recognized “land power and air power” to be “coequal and interdependent forces.” In the Mediterranean, the Twelfth Air Force neutralized the Luftwaffe when Allied forces invaded Sicily in July and the Italian peninsula in September. Tough fighting slowed Lieutenant General Mark Clark’s forces as they pushed northward, forcing him to rely increasingly on USAAF assistance to break through German lines. After an initial bombing campaign failed to break the stalemate on the ground, USAAF units focused their attention on interdiction. Operation STRANGLE hoped to cut the flow of supplies to German defenders in Italy. The Twelfth Air Force learned how difficult that could be. Downing bridges, strafing trains and trucks, and bombing supply dumps contributed to eventual victory in 1945, but the protection of darkness gave the enemy opportunities to supply its forces.

AWPD/1 had called for a strategic bombing campaign against the sources of Germany’s power as the most efficient and effective means of achieving victory. With the United States on the defensive in the Pacific and Allied units bogged down in North Africa, the Eighth Air Force in England joined the Royal Air Force (RAF) in the largest strategic bombing campaign ever attempted. Progress was slow through 1943. Airfields had to be built, crews trained, aircraft modified. Circumstances diverted Eighth Air Force units to pressing needs elsewhere in the world. The first official bombing mission did not come until August 17, 1942, when twelve B-17s of the 97th Bomb Group, accompanied by Eighth Air Force commander Ira Eaker, attacked a marshalling yard in France. The Eighth
Air Force, along with the RAF and the Italy-based Fifteenth Air Force (beginning in late 1943), would be the only Allied forces attacking targets inside Germany’s borders until late 1944.

Missions through the summer of 1943 were trial and error, as the Eighth Air Force slowly pushed deeper into German-occupied territory. Prewar doctrine dictated that unescorted self-defending bombers could fight their way through air defenses to destroy targets in an enemy’s heartland. Attacking in small numbers (AWPD/1 had called for a force of 6,834 bombers), the USAAF was severely tested by poor weather, bombing inaccuracy, lack of bombers, and stiff enemy defenses as it attempted to get at Germany’s industrial web.

While the Eighth Air Force labored to overcome these challenges, the Air Staff, the AWPD, and the Committee of Operations Analysts worked to identify for destruction chokepoints in the German war economy. Although RAF Bomber Command’s Arthur Harris wanted the USAAF to join him in a night campaign of area bombing to destroy Germany’s cities, the Combined Chiefs of Staff at the Casablanca Conference gave its support for daylight precision strategic bombing. AWPD/I had identified 154 targets. A new plan, AWPD/42 found 177. In late April 1943 at the Trident Conference, the Combined Chiefs approved a list of 76 targets as Eighth Air Force objectives. The Eighth Air Force, with the RAF, was to win air superiority, an “intermediate objective second to none in priority,” and weaken Germany enough to allow an invasion. Its undertaking was to be known as Operation POINTBLANK, the Combined Bomber Offensive.

The pace of operations intensified for the 17 groups General Eaker had available in July 1943. Brigadier General Laurence Kuter and Colonel Curtis LeMay worked out combat formations at the wing and group levels to maximize the number of defensive machine guns to be brought to bear against attacking fighters. Day after day, weather permitting, the Eighth Air Force struck at German airfields, aircraft depots, and aircraft industry, hoping to win air superiority by bombing the Luftwaffe on the ground; in late July alone it lost 10 percent of its attacking bombers. In August it struck at ball bearing factories in Schweinfurt and the Messerschmitt aircraft factory at Regensburg while the Twelfth Air Force hit oil refineries in Ploesti, Romania, and aircraft factories in Wiener Neustadt. Eighth Air Force P-47 Thunderbolt fighters were soon outfitted with drop tanks, which extended their range and were intended to reduce losses as they escorted the bombers, but the Luftwaffe simply withheld attacking until they ran short of fuel and had to return to England.

The second week of October 1943 marked the low point in the Eighth Air Force’s initial campaign. Scoring some bombing successes, General Eaker’s command lost 8 percent of its bombers over Bremen, 8 percent over Anklam-Marienburg, 13 percent over Munster, and 26 percent in a return trip to Schweinfurt. The loss of over 1,000 crewmen and nearly 150 bombers forced a change in American strategy. First, Arnold ordered all long-range P-38 Lightning and P-51 Mustang groups completing training in the United States to England to provide escort for the bombers for the duration of the war. Second, he created a new strategic air force in Italy, the Fifteenth, to attack Germany from the south. Third, he revised the command structure of the strategic bombing effort, moving General Spaatz to
England as head of United States Strategic Air Forces in Europe (USSTAF) to command the bombing campaign against Germany, assisted by Fred Anderson and Jimmy Doolittle as operational commanders and William Kepner as fighter commander. Eaker went to command the Mediterranean Allied Air Forces, including the Fifteenth and Twelfth Air Forces.

Change came quickly. Kepner revised fighter tactics to include phased and relay escort to extend the range of the fighters accompanying the bombers deep into Germany, especially when P-51 groups began arriving in December 1943. Doolittle ordered Kepner to unleash his fighters, assigned not just to escort bombers, but to go out, find, and destroy Luftwaffe aircraft. Kepner told his pilots to strafe German fighters on the ground if necessary. On February 20, 1944, Spaatz and Anderson began an all-out bombing offensive against German aircraft production. Five days of bombing, nineteen thousand tons worth, impaired some production; but the key to week’s effectiveness was the Luftwaffe’s loss of one-third of its strength through aerial combat, and the Eighth and Fifteenth Air Forces growth in theirs.

To keep up the pressure, Spaatz and Anderson resolved to bomb industrial targets in Berlin, under the assumption that the Luftwaffe would make an all-out effort to defend its capital. Their assumption was correct. Two days of the heaviest fighting yet seen in the skies over Germany so depleted the defender’s forces that on the third day, March 9, 1944, the Luftwaffe failed to rise and give battle. Anderson relished reports that Berlin radio was “squealing like a stuck pig.” The Luftwaffe grew weaker and the USAAF grew stronger as new groups, both fighter and bomber, arrived from the United States. A flood of men and materiel bespoke Arnold’s 1941 commitment to prepare for a long war. Further attrition of the German defenders would be necessary in future months, but air superiority was now firmly in American hands.

To Arnold and Spaatz, this hard-won victory finally opened German industries to destruction from the air. Two conditions affected the strategic bombing effort and delayed the final bombing campaign. The pending V-weapon assault by Germany on England forced a massive preemptive Allied bombing campaign against it, diverting 6,100 sorties from POINTBLANK strategic targets. The cross-channel invasion, scheduled by the Allies for late spring, diverted Eighth Air Force bombers against transportation targets in France to isolate the invasion area. In support of the invasion, Spaatz wanted to go after German oil targets to ground the Luftwaffe and force the German army to park its vehicles. Invasion commander General Dwight Eisenhower overruled him on March 25, assigning USSTAF to interdict the landing area. VIII Fighter Command under Kepner continued to strafe German airfields and other ground targets through June.

When eight Allied divisions landed in Normandy on June 6, 1944, they did so under conditions of near total Allied control of the air, courtesy of USSTAF—only two Luftwaffe fighters appeared in the area that day. In late July USSTAF bombers again proved critical to the ground campaign as they blasted a hole through German lines at St. Lo for Lieutenant General George Patton’s Third Army. Allied tactical air forces, which included Major General Elwood Quesada’s IX Tactical Air Command for the First Army and Major
General Otto Weyland’s XIX Tactical Air Command for the Third Army, provided protective cover and close air support, in line with procedures established in North Africa, for Allied armies sweeping across France toward Germany. At Argentan-Falaise in August air power plugged the gap between encircling American and Canadian armies, destroying hundreds of German armored vehicles and aiding in the capture of fifty thousand German troops. During the Battle of the Bulge in December, airlift, aerial interdiction, and close air support helped turn a near-disaster into an Allied victory.

Eighth and Fifteenth Air Force attacks on Germany’s fuel industry provided immeasurable help to the ground offensives, restricting severely the ability of German ground forces to maneuver their armored and mechanized units. Allied air superiority, a product of the Eighth Air Force’s aerial campaign, had permitted the landings in Europe, the Allied armies freedom of maneuver, and resupply without concern for the Luftwaffe. Germany had shown the world in 1939 and 1940 what close coordination between tactical air power and ground armies could accomplish. The USAAF repaid the favor with a vengeance in the drive from Normandy into Germany in 1944 and early 1945.

Eisenhower held first call on Spaatz’s strategic bombing force through the summer of 1944, but allowed it to return to POINTBLANK objectives with an assault on Germany’s oil production when it was not bombing targets in France in support of ground units. ULTRA intercepts confirmed that the USAAF had finally found a true chokepoint in the German industrial economy. German armaments minister Albert Speer predicted that continued attacks on it would have “tragic consequences.” Despite heroic efforts to restore production, Germany found its tanks and aircraft immobilized because of growing fuel shortages. The entrance of the ME 262 jet fighter into combat inflicted occasional heavy losses on USSTAF, including thirty-three of the 445th Bombardment Group’s thirty-seven bombers on September 27, 1944, but it could not change the war’s outcome.

Adding Germany’s railroad network to its priority target list in the autumn of 1944, USSTAF brought Germany’s economy to the point of collapse by February 1945. Responding to temporary German successes during the Battle of the Bulge, Soviet requests, and a desire to hasten the enemy’s surrender, USSTAF joined with the RAF in area-bombing Berlin, Dresden, and other German cities in February. Assigned targets remained industrial and transportation chokepoints in keeping with precision strategic bombing doctrine, but clouds and other factors made these missions, in effect, terror bombings. Spaatz declared an end to the strategic bombing campaign on April 16, 1945.

American Airmen had decided that they could defeat the enemy most efficiently by destroying its industrial web through precision strategic bombing. In so doing they hoped to prevent a repeat of World War I’s trench warfare. Ironically, the contest they found in the skies over Europe from 1942 to 1945 was in many ways just as bloody as the earlier war’s contest on the ground. Medal of Honor recipient Lieutenant William Lawley of the 305th Bombardment Group flew a B-17 back from Heiterblick, over 550 miles, with a face full of broken glass and shrapnel, a dead copilot draped over the controls, wounded crewmen, and only one engine running. The numbers associated with the USAAF’s tactical and
strategic campaigns against Germany reveal the ferocity of the air war: 1.6 million tons of bombs dropped on Europe, 765,000 bomber sorties, 929,000 fighter sorties, 31,914 airmen dead (by combat and accident), and 27,694 aircraft lost (by combat and accident).

In the waning days of the war against Germany, Arnold ordered an independent team to evaluate air power’s accomplishments and failures. Their product, called the United States Strategic Bombing Survey (USSBS) and supported by 216 volumes of analysis and documentation on the European war (another 109 covered the war against Japan), concluded “that even a first-class military power—rugged and resilient as Germany was—cannot live long under full-scale and free exploitation of air weapons over the heart of its territory.” The USSBS admitted that a slow buildup of aerial forces and inaccurate bombing had kept air power from reaching its potential, but judged as “decisive” the diversion of Germany’s capabilities from the supporting of armies to the defending of its own skies, the attrition of enemy air forces, and the destruction of enemy oil supplies and transportation networks. The strategic bombing campaign forced Germany to divert 40 percent of its industry to aerial defense, 2 million of its workers to manufacturing supplies and equipment for air defense, 2 million of its soldiers to manning ground defenses, and 2.5 million of its laborers to cleaning up the damage. Victory in the air was “complete,” and air power had helped “turn the tide overwhelmingly in favor of Allied ground forces.”

Despite Europe’s priority in Allied planning, America’s first strategic bombing effort of the war began against Japan, when sixteen B-25 Mitchell bombers under the command of Lieutenant Colonel Jimmy Doolittle and launched from the USS Hornet attacked targets on the Japanese home island of Honshu in mid-April 1942. Although militarily insignificant, the Doolittle raid embarrassed and infuriated Japanese military leaders and raised Allied morale. It was an omen of what Japan could expect from America’s air power.

All the while, the Pacific war was more than just half-a-world away. In Europe the United States had powerful allies to consult and support at every turn. Except for the British Empire’s forces in India, Burma, and Australia, the war against Japan was an American show. Europe had Eisenhower to unite British and American armies, navies, and air forces. In the Pacific, the U.S. Army and U.S. Navy competed in the drive toward the Japanese homeland. In General Douglas MacArthur’s Southwest Pacific Area, the U.S. Army fought from Australia through New Guinea to Leyte and Luzon in the Philippines. In Admiral Chester Nimitz’s Pacific Ocean Areas, the U.S. Navy moved among the islands from the Solomons and Gilberts through the Marshalls, Carolines, and Marianas to Iwo Jima and Okinawa. Combined with a lesser American effort to support China’s war against Japan, the distances involved insured a major role for the USAAF.

In the Army’s initial fighting on Papua New Guinea, thick jungles, rugged terrain, and inadequate forces restricted the help the USAAF could provide for MacArthur’s hard-pressed command. By December 1942 the Fifth Air Force under Major General George Kenney had sufficient numbers of P-38s to seize air superiority over the island, allowing its B-17, B-24, B-25, and A-20 bombers to cut the flow of Japanese reinforcements and supplies. Kenney proved the master tactical innovator, developing skip bombing to sink enemy ships and arming his medium bombers with extra nose-mounted machine guns and even 75-mm cannon to improve their firepower. Kenney took a “seamless” approach
to air power that had, in Carl Spaatz’s words, “no line of cleavage between strategic and
tactical air forces.” One day his heavy bombers would attack enemy troop formations
hundreds of feet from American lines; the next, they pursued enemy shipping hundreds
of miles behind enemy lines.

General MacArthur adopted an island-hopping strategy, skipping over large enemy forces
in the American drive northward, and, because of the Fifth Air Force’s command of the
air, leaving isolated Japanese garrisons to starve, cut off from resupply and rescue. The
range of General Kenney’s aircraft determined the distance to the next objective. By
October 1944 MacArthur’s army was ready to leap from New Guinea to Leyte in the
Philippines, a target beyond the range of land-based air power. Admiral William Halsey’s
carriers provided air cover until Kenney’s Far East Air Forces (FEAF), which combined
the Fifth and Thirteenth Air Forces, could move to the Philippines. There, FEAF became
engaged in the Army’s longest Pacific land campaign, which continued until the end of
the war.

The USAAF also became involved in the effort to keep Chiang Kai-shek’s China in the
war, tying down dozens of Japanese divisions. Initially this involved Claire Chennault’s
small force of private American pilots in China’s pay, the Flying Tigers, who captured
captures headlines in the United States when victories of any kind were few in number. With their
occupation of Siam and Burma by mid-1942 the Japanese had isolated China, blockading
it by sea and cutting supply roads. The USAAF had little choice but to launch a resupply
effort into China over the “Hump”—the Himalaya Mountains—from India. The route took
American crews above some of the most dangerous terrain in the world in overloaded
C-46 and (C-47) transports not designed for the weather and high altitudes the missions
required. By war’s end Hump pilots had ferried 1.18 million tons of supplies from India into
China for the fight against Japan.

Although America’s original Pacific strategy sought to choke the enemy through a naval
blockade, after three years of war Japan remained unwilling to surrender. For Hap Arnold,
a strategic bombing campaign employing B-29s would force it to capitulate, obviate the
need for an Allied land invasion, and present an opportunity to prove the war-winning
potential of an independent air force. The JCS had approved Arnold, as their executive
agent, to command the Superfortresses of the Twentieth Air Force. They could strike from
fifteen hundred miles, but even their great range left few options for bases from which to
launch the air assault. Nimitz’s drive through the Marianas in the summer of 1944 freed
Tinian, Guam, and Saipan to base the B-29s of Brigadier General Haywood Hansell’s XXI
Bomber Command, the combat arm of the Washington-based Twentieth Air Force. Iwo
Jima, conquered after heavy fighting in February 1945, provided an emergency landing
field for damaged B-29s and a base for P-51 fighter escorts. After a largely futile strategic
bombing effort from India and China in 1944, XX Bomber Command joined Hansell’s
growing force in the Marianas early in 1945 for the final strikes against Japan.
Hansell, an author of AWPD/1, stayed true to high-altitude daylight precision strategic bombing doctrine, beginning with XXI Bomber Command’s first mission against the Japanese home islands on November 24, 1944. His assignment was to “achieve the earliest possible progressive dislocation of the Japanese military, industrial, and economic systems and to undermine the morale of the Japanese people to a point where their capacity and will to wage war was decisively weakened.” He faced technical problems (including B-29 engines that tended to burst into flames), unanticipated 200 mile-per-hour winds of the jet stream over the home islands, and bad weather when striking mainly at Japan’s aviation industries. At high altitude bombing accuracy was minimal; only 10 percent of bombs dropped fell within 1,000 feet of a target. Twenty-two missions disabled only one factory.

Arnold replaced Hansell with Major General Curtis LeMay in January 1945, with orders to achieve immediate results. During January and February 1945, LeMay’s results were no better than Hansell’s. He then surmised that Japanese industry was too dispersed and bombing accuracy too poor for a precision campaign from high altitude in daylight. Recognizing that Japanese air defenses were far weaker than those he had encountered in Germany, but still taking a great gamble to produce immediate results, he ordered his crews to remove their defensive guns and fly low (at seven thousand feet) by night to carry heavier bomb loads, and burn down Japan’s cities with incendiaries. The initial raid against Tokyo on March 10, 1945, burned 15.8 square miles of urban area, killed almost 85,000, wounded almost 45,000, made almost 1 million homeless, and became the most deadly air attack in history. By August LeMay’s command had burned 150 square miles in 68 Japanese cities—few of significant size remained undamaged. Faced with an implacable enemy unwilling to surrender and the prospect of a costly invasion, but equipped with a new weapon of tremendous destructive capability, President Harry Truman ordered the first atomic bomb dropped on Hiroshima on August 6 and a second on Nagasaki three days later. Japan surrendered on August 14 after strategic bombing had levelled all of its major cities and killed or injured 800,000 of its people.

The Pacific war cost the United States over 13,000 aircraft. Most were lost in transit, to battle damage, and through general wear-out. At war’s end, the USAAF claimed 9,100 Japanese aircraft destroyed in combat. America’s top ranking ace of all time, Medal of Honor recipient Major Richard Bong, became one of the war’s last statistics when he crashed in California, test-flying a jet. The Allies used 502,781
tons of bombs against Japan, 160,800 of which were dropped on the home islands. The B-29 mining campaign and the naval blockade had destroyed Japan’s economy, but only a strategic bombing campaign convinced its leaders to surrender.

From 1939 to 1945 the USAAF’s personnel strength grew from 24,000 to 2,253,000; its aircraft inventory from 2,400 to 63,715. It dropped 2.05 million tons of bombs in World War II, flying and fighting over every ocean and six continents. Strategic bombing and air power did not live up to doctrinal expectations and win the war independently, but the USAAF forced enemy nations to divert enormous resources and effort toward defending their skies against it. If the USAAF did not make the Army and Navy obsolete, it insured that they rarely had to face the full force of enemy counterparts. Generals learned that air superiority and close air support were essential to the success of any ground campaign and that battlefield air interdiction was perhaps the most difficult of air power functions. North African operations proved that air power worked best when its forces were concentrated and directed as an independent or at least autonomous arm to achieve wartime objectives—coequal to the ground forces, auxiliary to neither. Finally, and to Arnold perhaps most important, the USAAF learned that air power meant planning, organization, training, and harnessing technology and science to produce new ordnance, radar, jets, rockets, and a variety of advanced aircraft that ensured success in combat.
A basic belief of the Army Air Forces was severely tested in the skies over Germany and Japan.

In the aviation enthusiasm of the 1930s, it was popular to claim that Air Corps bombardiers could drop a bomb into a pickle barrel from high altitude. In 1940, Theodore H. Barth, president of Carl L. Norden Inc., said that “we do not regard a 15-foot square ... as being a very difficult target to hit from an altitude of 30,000 feet,” provided the bombardier was using that company’s new M-4 bombsight connected to an autopilot. That was stretching it considerably. In everyday practice in 1940, the average score for an Air Corps bombardier was a circular error of 400 feet, and that was from the relatively forgiving altitude of 15,000 feet instead of 30,000. Nobody knows for sure where the “pickle barrel” imagery began. The term may have been coined by Norden’s Barth, who was among its most energetic popularizers. Norden was not alone in spreading the legend. Some Air Force bombardiers spoke proudly of tossing bombs into a 100-foot circle from four miles up. The pickle barrel story, often told and widely believed, served to reinforce the theory of daylight precision bombing, developed in the 1930s at the Air Corps Tactical School at Maxwell Field, Ala. The theory rejected the previously prevailing strategy of bombing broad areas, more or less indiscriminately, and focused on specific targets of military significance. As a side benefit, precision bombing would avoid civilian casualties and limit collateral damage.

The Army Air Forces was the lone champion of daylight precision bombing. The Navy—for whom the Norden bombsight was originally developed—gave up on it in favor of dive bombing. The British, finding that they could not hit precision targets, relied on area bombing at night. Daylight precision bombing was conducted by various kinds of aircraft in World War II, but the real test of it was the long-range strategic bombing missions in Europe and Asia of AAF B-17s, B-24s, and B-29s. The first experimental bombsights appeared in 1910, but early bombing techniques were rudimentary. Bombing in World War I was at times spectacular—as when Zeppelin airships and Gotha biplanes dropped bombs on London—but it was of little strategic importance. A US Air Service pamphlet in 1918 spoke of bombs hitting “in the vicinity” of the target. Precision bombing did not come into its own until the 1930s, with the availability of high-quality bombsights from Norden and Sperry and the introduction of faster, longer-ranging bombers. The best Air Corps bombardiers achieved considerable success in good weather and against clearly marked targets, which were typically huge bull’s-eye circles painted on the ground. Strategic bombardment was not yet an Air Corps mission. Development of long-range bombers had to be justified on the basis of coastal defense. However, the Tactical School theorists did not bother with such pretense. They saw strategic bombardment as the future of
warfare. The special mission of the air arm, they said, was to attack the “enemy national structure,” especially the “industrial web,” which was vulnerable to the air arm but not to either of the other arms.

Committed to Precision

Daylight precision bombing became Air Force doctrine, inseparable from the push to obtain four-engine B-17 bombers in appreciable numbers. In 1940, Maj. Gen. Henry H. “Hap” Arnold, Chief of the Air Corps, declared, “The Air Corps is committed to a strategy of high-altitude precision bombing of military objectives.” The Air Corps regarded the bomber as its principal weapon. Furthermore—on the basis of very thin evidence—the Air Corps concluded that new bombers such as the B-17 and the B-24 flew too high and too fast for pursuit aircraft to catch them and that bombers could operate over enemy territory without fighter escort. In 1941, the AAF plan to implement Rainbow 5, the basic Army-Navy war plan, was drafted by four officers who had been daylight precision ring leaders at the Tactical School: Lt. Col. Harold L. George, Lt. Col. Kenneth N. Walker, Maj. Haywood S. Hansell Jr., and Maj. Laurence S. Kuter. Air War Plans Division Plan No. 1 (AWPD-1) was straight out of the Maxwell playbook. It prescribed an emphasis on precision bombing against the German national infrastructure, industry—especially the aircraft industry—and the Luftwaffe. The planners were not misled by pickle barrel assumptions. According to data from training and practice bombing, a heavy bomber at 20,000 feet had a 1.2 percent probability of hitting a 100-foot-square target. About 220 bombers would be required for 90 percent probability of destroying the target. AWPD-1 forecast a need for 251 combat groups to carry out the plan. Bombing was a complicated proposition. Where the bomb hit was a function of the direction and speed of the airplane at the moment of release, the aerodynamics of the projectile, and the wind and atmospheric conditions while the bomb was in flight.

The bombardier looked through the telescope of the bombsight to find the target somewhere ahead, then made adjustments to compensate for the effects of wind drift and the speed of the airplane. He then fixed the target in the crosshairs, and flew the airplane to the automatically calculated release point by the link from his bombsight to the autopilot.

Historian Stephen L. McFarland has explained the geometry of it, using the example of a B-17 flying at 160 mph at 23,000 feet and dropping a 600-pound bomb. The bomb was released at a distance, measured on the ground, of 8,875 feet from the target. It was in flight for 38 seconds. If the speed calculated for the airplane was off by two mph and the altitude wrong by 25 feet, that made a difference of 115 feet in where the bomb would land. The limited yield of the bombs added to the problem. A 500-pound bomb, standard for precision missions after 1943, had a lethal radius of only 60 to 90 feet. It dug a crater just two feet deep and nine feet wide. With bombing accuracy measured in hundreds of feet, it took a great many bombs to get the job done. Such high ratios of ordnance expended to results achieved were not unusual in war, nor were they unique to AAF bombers in World War II. The Army fired 10,000 rounds of small-arms ammunition for each enemy soldier wounded and 50,000 rounds for each enemy killed. It took the Germans an average of
16,000 88 mm flak shells to bring down a single Allied heavy bomber. Daylight precision bombing got off to a rocky start. When Eighth Air Force was set up in England in 1942, its methods were at odds with those of the Royal Air Force. Air Chief Marshal Arthur T. Harris, chief of Bomber Command, was the foremost advocate of “city busting,” the night area bombing campaign that targeted the German population centers and workforce. He was supported in this by Prime Minister Winston Churchill and a national policy of “dehousing” the Germans. Churchill wanted the Americans to join the British bombing program rather than instigate a different one of their own. He was prepared to put pressure on President Roosevelt to order the AAF to change its strategy but was talked out of it at the Casablanca Conference in January 1943 by Maj. Gen. Ira C. Eaker, commander of Eighth Air Force. Eaker’s key point was the value of keeping the Germans under attack both day and night. Eaker had other problems as well. He could not mount large bomber operations because his aircraft and aircrews were diverted to operations in North Africa and the creation of Fifteenth Air Force in Italy in 1943. More than half of his remaining resources were assigned to attacking German submarine pens—a high priority for the British—even though bombing had little effect on these hardened facilities. Bombing accuracy was terrible. The average circular error in 1943 was 1,200 feet, meaning that only 16 percent of the bombs fell within 1,000 feet of the aiming point. “Rather than dropping bombs into pickle barrels, Eighth Air Force bombardiers were having trouble hitting the broad side of a barn,” said historian McFarland. The prewar prediction that fighters could not intercept bombers was wrong. The Luftwaffe and ground defenses took a heavy toll on bombers if they ventured without fighter escort deep into hostile territory. As the loss rate spiked to eight percent in early 1943, crews calculated their chances of surviving a 25-mission combat tour. On the Ploesti, Romania, mission in August 1943, losses were 30 percent and against Schweinfurt in October, 28 percent.

The Turning Point

Nobody tackled the accuracy and casualty problems with more initiative than Col. Curtis E. LeMay, commander of the 305th Bomb Group at Grafton-Underwood, Britain. He identified the best bombardiers, made them “lead bombardiers” for the formation, and had all of the aircraft drop their bombs when the lead bombardier did. LeMay also devised a staggered “combat box” formation, which gave the B-17 guns maximum fields of fire for mutual defensive support. After Schweinfurt, the B-17s did not again fly deep into Germany until long-range P-38 and P-51 fighters were available to escort them. The best of the fighters by far was the P-51, which could escort bombers to their most distant targets. After 1943, all of the fighters, including the older P-47s, took advantage of disposable fuel tanks to extend their range. Eaker did not have much in the way of strategic bombing results to show for his first two years. However, he said, “When our Eighth Air Force had but 200 bombers operating out of England in 1943, there were more than a million Germans standing at the anti-aircraft and fighter defenses on the West Wall to defend against them. And another million Germans were fire wardens or engaged in bomb damage repair.”

Finally, there were enough bombers to put together large formations. Joint efforts by Eighth and Fifteenth Air Forces put up a 750-bomber mission in January and a 1,000-bomber mission in February. AAF fighters coursed deep into Germany, and in a matter of months, they had virtually destroyed the Luftwaffe. When the D-Day invasion landed in June, the Germans were able to launch less than 100 sorties in defense of Normandy. With fighter escorts and suppression of enemy air defenses, the aircrew loss rate declined in 1944 and 1945. For the bomber offensive as a whole, Eighth Air Force lost 4,182 aircraft from a total of 273,841 attacking, a rate of 1.5 percent. RAF’s Bomber Command aircraft loss rate for the same period was 2.5 percent. The 250,000 aircrew members who flew bomber missions in Eighth Air Force in World War II sustained 58,000 casualties—18,000 killed, 6,500 wounded, and 33,500 missing. AAF bombing accuracy improved. By 1945, Eighth Air Force was operating at much lower altitudes and was putting up to 60 percent of its bombs within 1,000 feet of the aiming point, almost four times better than in the dark days of 1943. Radar bombing, adopted from the British, was an alternative when conditions did not permit visual delivery, but it was not a precision technique in any true sense of the word. RAF Bomber Command continued its night area bombing. From 1942 on, 56 percent of its sorties were against cities. On some occasions, notably the bombing of Dresden in 1945, the AAF joined the British in bombing cities, but overall, less than four percent of US bombs in Europe were aimed at civilians. The main targets for the AAF were marshaling yards (27.4 percent of the bomb tonnage dropped), airfields (11.6 percent), oil installations (9.5 percent), and military installations (8.8 percent). The US Strategic Bombing Survey found that “Allied airpower was decisive in the war in Western Europe.” That conclusion is sometimes challenged, but the bombing had reduced German rail traffic, aviation fuel production, steel production, and other aspects of the wartime infrastructure by 50 to 90 percent. Millions of people were occupied in repairing the damage and replacing the goods destroyed by bombing. Nazi Armaments Minister Albert Speer said that the bombing created a “third front” and that “without this great drain on our manpower, logistics, and weapons, we might well have knocked Russia out of the war before your invasion of France.” In the Pacific, the question of daylight precision bombing centered on the last part of the war when the Japanese home islands came within range of the newest and biggest bomber, the B-29. All of the B-29s were assigned to Twentieth Air Force, with Arnold retaining command personally as the agent of the Joint Chiefs of Staff.

Jet Stream Boosts

The B-29 was rushed into operation in June 1944 with XX Bomber Command. The headquarters was in India and the B-29s could reach southern Japan from forward bases in China. LeMay was brought from Europe to head XX Bomber Command. With the US capture of the Marianas (Saipan, Tinian, and Guam), the B-29s obtained bases from which they could reach almost any target in Japan. XXI Bomber Command was
established there, with Hansell, the AWPD-1 planner, now a brigadier general and the most fervent of the daylight precision bombing advocates, in command. Over Japan, the B-29s encountered the jet stream, fierce winds above 25,000 feet that added as much as 250 mph to an aircraft’s speed relative to the ground. The jet stream pushed the bombers over the target too fast for the Norden bombsight to compensate. Flying against the jet stream, the speed relative to the ground was so slow that the airplanes were sitting ducks. Daylight precision bombing faltered, especially on the missions from the Marianas. The weather permitted only four days a month of visual bombing. The long distances and high altitudes consumed so much fuel that the bomb loads were relatively small. There were frequent aborts and ditchings as Twentieth Air Force worked the kinks out of the new bomber under combat conditions.

Arnold and the AAF were under tremendous pressure to produce strategic results and help bring the war in the Pacific to an end. Hansell stuck doggedly to daylight precision bombing, although repeated efforts against such targets as the Nakajima-Musashino aircraft plant near Tokyo were unsuccessful.

Meanwhile, the clamor was building in Washington to switch to incendiary area bombing. The Office of Scientific Research and Development had developed the highly effective M-69 incendiary bomb, to which the Japanese style of construction was starkly vulnerable. Japanese industry, including cottage industries making military parts and equipment, was so integrated with populated areas that it was difficult to draw the line between them. The Japanese regarded surrender as dishonorable and fought to the last in battle after battle. The possibility loomed that an invasion of the Japanese home islands would be necessary. Plans projected a landing force of 1.8 million US troops and anticipated massive casualties. The US was no longer as reluctant as it once had been to bomb enemy cities LeMay, who was the more aggressive commander and who had gotten better results with the B-29s in India and China, replaced Hansell at XXI Bomber Command in January 1945. XX Bomber Command was phased out and its aircraft and crews were transferred to the Marianas.

It had become apparent, LeMay said, that “we weren’t going to be able to defeat Japan using high-altitude precision bombing before the scheduled invasion was to begin.” Acting on his own initiative, LeMay ordered a massive low-level night mission against Tokyo with incendiary bombs March 9. Three wings of bombers would attack from the altitudes of 4,000 to 9,200 feet. The aircraft were stripped of excess weight, including most of the guns. Flying lower and less heavily laden, the B-29s carried more than twice as many bombs as before. The strike force found landfall by radar and bombed with intervalometers set to space the bombs 50 feet apart. About a fourth of Tokyo was destroyed and some 84,000 people were killed. It was supposedly while touring the firebombed area that Emperor Hirohito came to the conclusion that the war had to end as soon as possible. LeMay continued to order precision attacks and to use high explosive bombs when targets and weather were suitable, but the emphasis had shifted to incendiary bombing at night. It systematically laid waste to Japan’s large industrial cities and by July, had reduced overall Japanese industrial output to some 60 percent from the 1944 level. LeMay and Arnold believed that the incendiary bombing would eventually bring on a Japanese
surrender. Gen. George C. Marshall, the Army Chief of Staff, and President Truman were not convinced. The Japanese military hardliners were prepared to accept enormous casualties and destruction and had assembled a force of 2.3 million troops in the home islands to throw back an invasion. Truman decided to use the atomic bomb.

Infrastructure Devastation

Both at Hiroshima Aug. 6 and at Nagasaki Aug. 9, the atomic bombs were delivered by daylight high-altitude precision drop, using the Norden bombsight. Maj. Thomas W. Ferebee, bombardier on the B-29 Enola Gay, picked up the aiming point in Hiroshima, the Aioi Bridge, 12 miles out. The bomb, dropped from 30,700 feet, detonated in an airburst 800 feet (measured on the ground) from the bridge. The bombardier for Nagasaki was Capt. Kermit K. Beahan on the B-29 Bockscar. The bombing altitude was 31,000 feet and the explosion was 1,500 feet from the aiming point, the Mitsubishi Steel and Arms Works. The hardliners wanted to hold out, but Emperor Hirohito broadcast his rescript of surrender Aug. 15, bringing World War II to a close. Postwar analysis found that accuracy had been about the same in Europe and Asia for day visual and radar precision bombing. Eighth Air Force in Great Britain put 31.8 percent of its bombs within 1,000 feet of the aim point from an average altitude of 21,000 feet. Fifteenth Air Force in Italy averaged 30.78 percent of its bombs within 1,000 feet from 20,500 feet. In the Asia and the Pacific, Twentieth Air Force—45.5 percent of whose sorties were daylight precision despite the emphasis on area bombing in the last months of the war—put 31 percent of its bombs within 1,000 feet of the aim point, although the bombing altitudes were on average 4,500 feet lower than for Eighth Air Force. Critics of various persuasions have challenged the value of the strategic bombing. However, postwar occupation authorities found that both the German and Japanese economies and their national infrastructures had been devastated to the point that they barely functioned. Industries that had supported the war were in shambles. That level of destruction and disruption was the result of Allied land, sea, and air action—and airpower had hardly been the least of it. After the war, “pickle barrel” claims passed out of fashion even though nostalgic bombardiers and the popular press kept the notion alive for years. Despite the advent of nuclear weapons, the quest for precision delivery of bombs continued. The first Strategic Air Command Bombing Competition was held in 1948 at Castle AFB, Calif., with visual and radar releases from 25,000 feet. SAC continued to develop radar bombing techniques and used them effectively in its Arc Light missions in Vietnam. Precision guided munitions first gained fame in the Vietnam War, but it was in the Gulf War and other conflicts of the 1990s that the Air Force finally achieved pickle barrel accuracy, placing bombs within 10 feet of the aim point. The use of the Global Positioning System and satellite data for aiming had made the issue of day vs. night irrelevant.

The Mystique of the Norden Bombsight

Other companies made bombsights, but the famous name was Norden. Carl L. Norden was a Dutch engineer who immigrated to the United States in 1904 and worked for Sperry Gyroscope before going into business for himself. He lived in the United States for 43 years but never became a citizen Norden began his contract work with the US Navy in
1918. He liked the Navy better than the Air Corps, which he considered too flamboyant. He preferred the Navy as a customer, even though the Navy moved away from high-altitude horizontal bombing in the 1930s and took the bombsights out of most of its airplanes in the 1940s. (For no better reason than service parochialism, the Navy held on to its Norden bombsights, which it was not going to use, even though the AAF had a critical need for them.) Some commanders were said to have required a “bombardier’s oath” from their young men. Wording of the oath varied from report to report, but all included the vow to protect the secrecy of the Norden bombsight “if need be, with my life itself.” Actually, the secret had been blown, several times over. A Norden employee sold drawings to the Germans in 1938. The Russians stole a bombsight in 1940 but could not figure it out. They gave it to their (then) allies, the Germans. The Germans soon had plenty of samples of their own from the wreckage of US bombers shot down. In 1944, the US gave the Russians 100 lend-lease patrol aircraft—complete with Norden bombsights and a training package—in return for allowing US shuttle bombers to land in Soviet-controlled territory.
Navy Capt. Francis S. Low conceived the idea of flying Army medium bombers off a Navy carrier and attacking Japan. The B-25 was selected because it was small; had sufficient range to carry two thousand-pound bombs, two thousand miles; and because it took off and handled very well. General Arnold selected Lt Col James H. “Jimmy” Doolittle to lead the attack. According to Arnold, “First I found out what B-25 unit had the most experience and then went to that crew, that organization and called for volunteers and the entire group, including the group commander, volunteered.”

The training was hard, no one had ever taken off a fully loaded B-25 in less than five hundred feet. First they had to prove it could be done, then they had to train the people to do it. Before they were through, the bombers would lift off in only 287 feet. The crews proved they were good and so were their airplanes.

The raid was carefully planned, nothing was left to chance. Because the attack would be low-level, Norden bombsights were replaced by a twenty-cent improvisation to prevent the secret devices from falling into enemy hands. Doolittle then considered what to do if the Japanese spotted the task force. If intercepted by Japanese surface ships or aircraft, the aircraft would immediately leave the decks. If they were within range of Tokyo they would go ahead and bomb Tokyo, even though they would run out of gasoline shortly thereafter. That was the worst possible scenario. If the aircraft were not in range of Tokyo, they would go back to Midway. If neither Tokyo nor Midway were in range, the B-25s would be pushed overboard so the decks could be cleared for the use of the carrier’s own aircraft.

On the morning of 18 April 1942, Japanese patrol boats sighted the task force. The boats were quickly destroyed, but they could have transmitted a position report. It was eight hours before scheduled takeoff, an additional four hundred miles to the target. Gas reserves would be dangerously low, but they were spotted and they would have to go.

The program went almost according to plan. The B-25s were to bomb the targets, turn in a general southerly direction, get out to sea as quickly as possible, and after being out of sight of land, turn and take a westerly course to China. The bombers came in on the deck and pulled up to about fifteen hundred feet to bomb and to make sure they were not hit by the fragments of friendly bombs. According to Doolittle, the feeling was “Get the job done and get the heck out of there.” The actual damage done by the raid was minimal. There were 16 B-25s each carrying one ton of bombs. In later raids, Gen Curtis E. LeMay with his Twentieth Air Force, sent out five hundred planes on a mission, each carrying 10 tons of bombs.
Reaching a safe haven after the raid wasn’t easy, and because they had to take off much sooner than planned, they were very low on fuel. One crew went to Vladivostok, the other 15 crews proceeded until they got to the coast of China. When they reached China, two of the Mitchell Bombers were so low on fuel that they landed in the surf alongside the beach. Two people were drowned, eight of them got ashore. The weather was quite bad, so most of the aircraft flew on until they felt they were as close to their final destination as possible. Having been on dead reckoning for quite awhile, most crews were off target when they jumped.

On 15 August 1942 it was learned from the Swiss Consulate General in Shanghai that eight American flyers were prisoners of the Japanese. After the war, the facts were uncovered in a War Crimes Trial held at Shanghai that opened in February 1946 to try four Japanese officers for mistreatment of the eight prisoners of war (POW) of the Tokyo Raid. Two of the original 10 men, Dieter and Fitzmaurice, died when their B-25 ditched off the coast of China. The other eight, Hallmark, Meder, Nielsen, Lt William G. Farrow, Lt Robert L. Hite, Lt George Barr, Sgt Harold A. Spatz, and Cpl Jacob DeShazer were captured. In addition to being tortured, they contracted dysentery and beriberi as a result of the deplorable conditions under which they were confined. On 28 August 1942, Hallmark, Farrow, and Spatz were given a “trial” by Japanese officers, although they were never told the charges against them. On 14 October 1942, Hallmark, Farrow, and Spatz were advised they were to be executed the next day. At 4:30 P.M. on 15 October 1942, the three Americans were brought by truck to Public Cemetery No. 1 outside Shanghai. In accordance with proper ceremonious procedures of the Japanese military, they were then shot.

The other five men remained in military confinement on a starvation diet, their health rapidly deteriorating. In April 1943 they were moved to Nanking and on 1 December 1943, Meder died. The other four men began to receive slight improvement in their treatment and by sheer determination and the comfort they received from a lone copy of the Bible, they survived to August 1945 when they were freed. The four Japanese officers tried for their war crimes against the eight Tokyo Raiders were found guilty. Three were sentenced to hard labor for five years and the fourth to a nine-year sentence.

Eighty crew members flew in the Doolittle Raid, 64 returned to fight again. They were part of a team recognized for its professionalism and heroism, a rich heritage remembered by a new generation of airmen. When the news of the raid was released, American morale zoomed from the depths to which it had plunged following Japan’s successes. It also caused the Japanese to transfer back to the home islands fighter units that could have been used against the Allies. In comparison to the B-29 attacks against Japan two years later, the Tokyo Raid was a token effort. However, it was an example of brilliant tactics and achieved a moral victory for the nation.
**Focus On: Strategic Attack in the Pacific**

**PLOESTI RAID (AUGUST 1943)**

The oil refineries at Ploesti, Romania, provided Germany with 35 percent of its oil. Air planners figured it would take many high-level attacks by huge fleets of heavy bombers to destroy the refineries. Col Jacob E. Smart, a member of Arnold's Advisory Council, believed a low-level attack might prove successful. Smart had seen A-20s in training hit moving targets while flying low and fast. This led him to conclude that aircraft accuracy would allow a low-level attack of Ploesti. Smart believed a low-level attack might mitigate the extensive air defenses. Not everyone held this opinion. Col Richard Hughes, an AAF target expert, protested that Allied pilots did not have the necessary skills or experience to tackle such a complex mission. However, with President Roosevelt and General Arnold's backing, the mission plans were built.

The plan called for a 2,700-mile mission conducted by more than three hundred bombers to attack seven refineries. The mission was flown by IX Bomber Command whose training included bombing a full-scale outline of the Ploesti complex in the Libyan desert. The operation included the 44th, 93d, 98th, 376th, and 389th Bomb Groups.

On 1 August, 178 B-24s took off to bomb Ploesti. The 376th Bomb Group, commanded by Col Keith Compton, led the mission. The lead navigator was in another plane that ditched into the Mediterranean Sea several hours after launching. Colonel Compton misidentified the initial point, a ground feature used to coordinate the attack, and led his group on a route 30 miles south of Ploesti. Three of the five groups were behind schedule and Compton's error eroded any remaining attack coordination.

One hundred sixty-four B-24 Liberators reached Ploesti and attacked at levels often lower than the refineries' towers. Bombers flying through the explosions of oil tanks were assaulted by merciless flak trains and machine gun fire. B-24 gunners dueled with gunners in towers and church steeples. Ploesti was also defended by 120 German and two hundred Romanian fighter aircraft. The 98th Bomb Group, led by Col John Kane, was the only one to fly its assigned course and arrive on schedule. The courage and determination of the aircrews is the sole reason the raid had any success.

Flying so low that aircraft had to ascend to avoid smokestacks 210 feet high, the bombers took high losses. Seventy-three B-24s were lost in the raid and another 55 suffered major damage. Nearly five hundred aircrew were killed or wounded and more than one hundred became prisoners of war. Navigation and timing problems prevented a coordinated attack. Despite this, aircrews managed to destroy 60 percent of the complex's output. Five airmen, including Colonel Kane, received the Medal of Honor for their mission to Ploesti. This was the most Medals of Honor awarded for any single engagement in World War II.
Focus On:

THE REGENSBURG/

SCHWEINFURT RAIDS (1943)

The growing strength of German fighter operations in Europe was a great concern to the Allies in 1943. On 10 June 1943 the combined Chiefs of Staff issued the directive known as “Pointblank.” This directive placed German fighter strength as the top strategic priority. In order to hurt the German’s fighter operation, Colonel Hughes, one of the Allied air planners, decided to attack production facilities at Regensburg and Schweinfurt. A large percentage of Germany’s fighters were produced in Regensburg in southeast Germany. An equally critical target was Schweinfurt, a major ball-bearing production center.

The plan was for General LeMay’s 4th Bomb Wing to fly to Regensburg, bomb the Messerschmitt plant, then fly across the Mediterranean and land in North Africa. The arrival of the new B-17F with greater range made this possible. The Luftwaffe was expected to meet the attack early, then land and refuel for the attack on the bombers as they headed back to England. The Allied plan, however, called for the 1st Bomb Wing to follow the 4th by only 15 minutes along the same flight path before breaking off to bomb Schweinfurt. By the time the Germans figured out that the 4th Bomb Wing was not returning and that the 1st was heading for Schweinfurt, they would be on the ground short of both fuel and ammunition. The plan called for the biggest aerial diversion ever attempted with three B-26 groups raiding coastal airfields to draw Luftwaffe fighters from the 1st Bomb Wing. This would allow the 1st to attack Schweinfurt relatively unmolested.

On 17 August 1943, 139 B-17s, with LeMay in the lead, crossed the Dutch coast headed for southeast Germany. The 4th Bomb Wing lost 17 aircraft en route to Regensburg but the remaining 122 bombers conducted a very accurate mission from less than 20,000 feet. As the 4th left Regensburg, the 1st Bomb Wing was still over the North Sea, five hours behind schedule—the timing plan was awry.

The Luftwaffe expected the 4th Bomb Wing to return to England and massed their fighters in unprecedented numbers. The 1st Bomb Wing flew into this mass of three hundred enemy fighters over Germany. By the time the 1st reached the Schweinfurt initial point, 36 B-17s were lost. The four ball-bearing plants at Schweinfurt were tough targets to find under ideal circumstances. However, the delay in launching caused an approach heading change to avoid flying into a setting sun. This change combined with the Germans’ artificial fog generators made the task nearly impossible. The 10 bomb groups scattered their bombs all over the town while the Luftwaffe refueled and rearmed their aircraft. The return trip for the 1st Bomb Wing was tougher than the trip into Germany.

The Regensburg/Schweinfurt raids cost the Allies 60 B-17s, 16 percent of the dispatched force. General Arnold reported the operation a success. In terms of lost production, the attack on Regensburg probably accounted for one thousand lost Me-109s or about three weeks of total fighter production. At Schweinfurt, the attack proved to have little if any
effect. Three of the five factories were severely damaged but few of the machine tools that produced ball bearings were destroyed. "The Raid" showed how difficult and costly it was to conduct air warfare. However, "The Raid" foretold the story of the day when the Luftwaffe would not be able to stop Allied bombing.
The Doolittle raid on Tokyo had done a lot for US morale, but it was not a viable method of conducting sustained strategic bombing of Japan. To bring the full weight of airpower to bear on Japan, the United States built bombers of unprecedented range (the B-29s) and captured islands from which B-29s could reach Japan. In November 1944, US bombers finally returned to Tokyo in the form of B-29s flying out of Saipan.

The Japanese tried to defend against the B-29s but they grossly underestimated the power of strategic bombing. They chose to concede air superiority over Japan to the United States in order to use their main air strength to oppose Allied surface forces. This disastrous miscalculation was partly due to the fact that Japanese air forces were tightly controlled by army and navy leaders who had a weak understanding of airpower.

Limited Japanese defenses, however, did not guarantee successful US bombing. The B-29 was the best bomber of World War II, but it did not have the ability to hit precision targets through clouds. The consistently bad weather over Japan made sustained precision bombing of Japanese factories impossible. On the night of 9 March 1945, General LeMay, commanding B-29 operations against Japan, ordered a radical change in tactics. On this raid the B-29s did not execute their normal daylight, high-altitude, formation attack with high-explosives but instead, they hit Tokyo with incendiary bombs, at night, from low altitude, flying individually. Flying at night at low altitude took advantage of Japanese weakness in night-fighters and low-altitude air defenses. The low-altitude individual bombing runs also enabled the B-29s to carry less fuel and hence more bombs. Since LeMay expected little enemy fighter opposition, he removed the gunners, guns, and ammunition from the B-29s and replaced them with still more bombs. The change in tactics doubled the bomb-load of each B-29 and incendiary bombs were much more effective against the highly flammable Japanese city than high-explosive bombs.

The results were stunning. Before 9 March 1945, the B-29s had done very little damage to the Japanese war effort, but on that night they burned out 16 square miles of Tokyo and killed more than 80,000 Japanese in the most devastating air raid ever. Subsequent firebombing devastated more than 60 Japanese cities, left millions of Japanese homeless, and radically reduced Japan’s military production.
Focus On: The Ultimate Strategic Attack in the Pacific

THE HIROSHIMA AND NAGASAKI BOMBINGS

(AUGUST 1945)

President Truman and the armed forces had three strategic options for inducing the Japanese surrender: continue the fire-bombing and blockade, invasion, or use the atomic bomb. Truman was aware that the first two options would probably not be very effective methods to induce the Japanese to surrender. The Battle for Okinawa caused 48,000 American casualties when the Japanese refused to surrender. So it was the right time to resolutely make a decision. Gradually, US authorities made preparations for the decision to use the bomb, as it was close to production. The Interim Committee on S-1 suggested to the president that the bomb should be used directly against Japan, because a demonstration explosion was not thought to be a strong enough representation of the power that the bomb held. Several US military leaders went with the president to the Big Three meeting at Potsdam in July, and discussions continued there. It was determined then that the bomb should be used. On 25 July Truman prepared the order for use of the first atomic bomb as soon after 3 August as weather permitted on one of the four target cities. The Potsdam Proclamation was issued during the Potsdam meeting by the heads of government of the United States, Britain, and China. It warned of “utter devastation of the Japanese homeland” unless Japan surrendered unconditionally.

At approximately 2:00 A.M. on the morning of 6 August, the Enola Gay, carrying an atomic bomb, started on the long flight from Tinian Island. The Enola Gay was one of 15 B-29s modified specifically for the highly secret atomic bomb missions. These airplanes were outfitted with new engines and propellers and faster-acting pneumatic bomb bay doors. Two observation planes carrying cameras and scientific instruments followed behind her. After 6:00 A.M., the bomb was fully armed on board the Enola Gay. Col Paul W. Tibbets Jr., pilot of the Enola Gay, announced to the crew that the plane was carrying the world’s first atomic bomb. The trip to Japan was smooth. At about 7:00 A.M., the Japanese radar net detected aircraft heading toward Japan, and they broadcast the alert throughout the Hiroshima area. Soon afterward when an American weather plane circled over the city, the people went back to their daily work thinking the danger had passed. At 8:00 A.M. the Japanese detected two B-29’s heading toward Hiroshima. They broadcast the alert throughout the city. At 8:09 A.M., the crew of the Enola Gay at 26,000 feet could see the city appear below; it was time to drop the bomb. Just then, they received a message indicating that the weather was good over Hiroshima. The bomb was released at 8:16 A.M. A terrible, strong, and unimaginable explosion occurred near the central section of the city. The crew of the Enola Gay saw a column of smoke rising fast and intense fires springing up. The astonishing result of the first atomic strike: it killed between 70,000 and 80,000 people, injured another 70,000, and burned almost 4.4 square miles. On 9 August, Nagasaki was bombed by a B-29 named Bock’s Car. The Japanese unconditionally surrendered on 14 August 1945.
Focus On: Leadership

GENERAL OF THE ARMY

HENRY H. “HAP” ARNOLD

• Taught to fly by Orville and Wilbur Wright.

• A five-star general and two-time winner of the Mackay Trophy for aeronautical achievement.

• In 1934, he was awarded the Distinguished Flying Cross for demonstrating the range of strategic airpower by leading a flight of B-10 bombers from Washington, D.C., to Alaska.

• Named Chief of the Army Air Corps in 1938. During World War II, he became the first Air Chief to sit as an equal member on the Joint Chiefs of Staff.

• He was the commanding general of the Army Air Forces (AAF) during World War II.

Henry H. Arnold was one of the truly great men in American airpower. Taught to fly by the Wright brothers, he rose steadily in rank and responsibility throughout the ’20s and ’30s and became the commanding general of the Army Air Forces during World War II. In 1944 he was promoted to five-star rank, but his health was very poor, he suffered several heart attacks during the war, and retired less than a year after Japan surrendered.

Graduating from West Point in 1907, Arnold had hoped to join the cavalry. However, his cadet performance was so dismal he was relegated to the infantry. After a tour in the Philippines, he reapplied to the cavalry, but again was refused. Largely out of a desire to escape from the infantry, Arnold then applied for the Signal Corps and became one of America’s first military pilots. Aviation was extremely dangerous in those early days, and after several crashes and near crashes, Arnold elected to ground himself. After more than three years of desk work, he overcame his fears and returned to flying. Because of his relatively extensive experience in aviation, and much to his chagrin, he was forced to remain in Washington on the Air Service staff during World War I.

After Armistice Day, he slowly began his steady rise in rank and responsibility. He commanded wings and bases, became a protégé of Billy Mitchell, twice won the Mackay Trophy for aeronautical achievement, was awarded the Distinguished Flying Cross for leading a flight of B-10 bombers to Alaska to display the range of strategic airpower, and was named assistant to the chief of the Air Corps in 1935. When Oscar Westover was killed in a plane crash in 1938, Arnold succeeded him as chief. In this position he was instrumental in laying the groundwork for the massive industrial expansion the war would require. During the war he sat as an equal member of the Joint Chiefs of Staff and was responsible for guiding the air strategy of the various theaters. Belying his nickname “Hap” (short for “happy”), Arnold was a difficult taskmaster. He drove himself so hard during the war that he suffered several heart attacks and he pushed his subordinates...
just as hard. This did not endear him to everyone in the USAAF, but it was just what was needed to run the largest air force during the largest war in the history of the world. His drive, vision, and sense of initiative were indispensable in leading the air arm during the war and setting the stage for the creation of the US Air Force shortly after the war.
Focus On: Leadership

LT GEN CLAIRE L. CHENNAULT

- In the 1930s, he was the Air Corps Tactical School’s most famous proponent of pursuit tactics at a time when strategic bombardment was premier.
- Forced out of the Air Corps in 1937 because of bronchitis, he went to China to advise Chiang Kaishek on building an air force.
- Commanded the American Volunteer Group, better known as the “Flying Tigers.”
- Under his leadership the Flying Tigers overcame severe operational handicaps and achieved a two-to-one kill ratio over the Japanese.

Claire L. Chennault's reputation as leader of the Flying Tigers has been immortalized in movies and novels, making him one of America's more famous airmen. Chennault arrived at the Air Corps Tactical School (ACTS) in 1930 with a reputation as a premier pursuit pilot. His ideas concerning pursuit employment evolved from much thought and practical experience. But Air Corps doctrine was making a decisive shift in favor of bombardment, and Chennault's attempts to stem that tide were futile. Chennault's abrasive personality negated his arguments, and his colleagues found it more satisfying simply to ignore him. Suffering from a variety of physical ailments and realizing his theories were out of tune with Air Corps policy, he retired in 1937. Soon after, he traveled to China, where he served as an adviser to Chiang Kai-shek, and formed the Flying Tigers volunteer group to fight against the Japanese. The much-storied group of mercenaries-turned-heroes was well suited to Chennault’s aggressive and unconventional personality.

When America entered the war, the Flying Tigers were incorporated into the Fourteenth Air Force, and Chennault was promoted to brigadier general and made its commander. Chennault was an outstanding tactician, whose determination in the face of overwhelming supply and equipment difficulties kept the Fourteenth Air Force in the field, but his strategic ideas were limited to his tactical mindset. Never on good terms with his Air Corps colleagues, Chennault exacerbated this relationship with his constant complaints and his tendency to circumvent the chain of command by dealing directly with Chiang and President Roosevelt. Although knowing how this infuriated his superiors, Chennault persisted. As a consequence, George Marshall thought him disloyal and unreliable. Hap Arnold and Joe Stilwell disapproved of his command style. Even if his strategic theories had been correct, his method of promoting them ensured their demise. He believed that a small force of aircraft, mostly pursuit with a handful of bombers, could so disrupt Japanese logistics as to lead to its eventual defeat. In retrospect, it is doubtful if any amount of tactical airpower could have prevented Japan from overrunning China, much less brought about its defeat.
Focus On: Leadership

LT GEN IRA C. EAKER

- Lt Gen Ira Eaker was commander of the VIII Bomber Command in England which became the Eighth Air Force in 1944.
- He piloted the Question Mark in its record-breaking air refueling flight over California in 1929. The plane remained aloft for 150 hours, 40 minutes, and 15 seconds.
- Served as aide to Maj Gen James Fechet, the Air Corps Chief, and as private pilot to Maj Gen Douglas MacArthur.
- In 1927 he piloted the San Francisco, the only plane to complete a 23,000 mile Pan American goodwill flight on schedule. For this he was awarded his first Distinguished Flying Cross.
- During World War II, he commanded Allied Air Forces in the Mediterranean.
- He was deputy commander of the Army Air Forces in 1945–46.

One of the great pioneer airmen, Ira C. Eaker, met “Hap” Arnold and Carl Spaatz at Rockwell Field in 1918, and the three became friends and colleagues for life. Eaker was one of the premier pilots between the wars, participating in the Pan American flight of 1926–27 and the Question Mark flight of 1929. The Question Mark project was the product of Eaker’s imagination, political savvy, and zeal. He selected a trimotored Fokker and a Douglas C-1 for the flights. On 1 January 1929, the Fokker took off from San Diego, California, and droned back and forth at 70 MPH between Los Angeles, California, and San Diego for six days. Eaker piloted the Question Mark with Pete Quesada as copilot and Maj Carl Spaatz in back to hook up the hose during refueling. On 7 January the Fokker’s left engine quit and the Question Mark was forced to land with a record-breaking 150 hours, 40 minutes, and 15 seconds aloft.

Eaker was also politically well connected, serving not only as an aide to Maj Gen James Fechet, the Air Corps chief, but also as the private pilot of Gen Douglas MacArthur. An excellent writer with a graduate degree in journalism, he figured prominently in airpower public relations efforts during the 1930s and coauthored several aviation books with Hap Arnold. During World War II he joined Spaatz in England to head the VIII Bomber Command and eventually Eighth Air Force. In early 1944 Eaker moved down to Italy to command the Mediterranean Allied Air Forces.

The task of organizing and standing up the Eighth was extremely daunting. Eaker’s talents as a leader and manager were essential. Strategic bombing was not a proven concept, the green Eighth was entering combat against an enemy already battle tested, and the prodigious production capacity of America not yet manifest. Moreover, just as it appeared the Eighth was strong enough to play a major role in the war against Germany, it was stripped of men and machines for operations in North Africa and then Italy. Arnold pushed Eaker to do more, and finally, against Eaker’s wishes, he was promoted and moved...
to Italy, while his place at Eighth was taken by James H. “Jimmy” Doolittle. Soon after Doolittle took over, Eaker’s labors bore fruit: air superiority over the Luftwaffe was gained, the invasion of France took place, and the sweep across northern Europe eventually led to victory.

In April 1945, Eaker was named deputy commander of the AAF and chief of the Air Staff. He retired from active duty on 31 July 1947.
Focus On: Leadership

GEN CARL A. “TOOEY” SPAATZ

- One of the most favored American air commanders of World War II. Both Generals Eisenhower and Bradley rated Spaatz the best combat leader in the European theater.
- Received the Distinguished Service Cross for shooting down three German aircraft during World War I.
- The project leader for the Question Mark flight which refueled in the air to stay aloft over 150 hours. Spaatz rode in the rear of the aircraft where he reeled in and hooked up the refueling hose from the tanker plane.

Carl A. Spaatz was born 28 June 1891, in Boyertown, Pennsylvania. In 1910 he was appointed to the United States Military Academy. Upon graduation on 12 June 1914, he was commissioned into the Infantry. He served with the Twenty-fifth United States Infantry at Schofield Barracks, Hawaii, from 4 October 1914 to 13 October 1915, when he was detailed as a student in the Aviation School at San Diego, California, until 15 May 1916.

Spaatz went to France with the American Expeditionary Forces in command of the 31st Aero Squadron and joined the 2d Pursuit Group in September 1918. He was officially credited with shooting down three German Fokker planes, and received the Distinguished Service Cross. After World War I he reverted to his permanent rank of captain, 27 February 1920, but was promoted to major on 1 July 1920.

Spaatz commanded the Army plane Question Mark in its refueling endurance flight over southern California, 1–7 January 1929, keeping the plane aloft a record total of 150 hours, 40 minutes, and 15 seconds, and was awarded the Distinguished Flying Cross.

A few weeks after Pearl Harbor, in January 1942, General Spaatz was assigned as chief of the AAF Combat Command in Washington, D.C. In May 1942 he became commander of the Eighth Air Force to prepare for the American bombing of Germany. On 7 July he was appointed commanding general of the AAF in the European theater in addition to his duties as commander of Eighth Air Force.

On 1 December 1942, Spaatz became commanding general of the Twelfth Air Force in North Africa. He returned to England in January 1944, to command the US Strategic Air Forces in Europe, which he headed throughout the preinvasion period and the ensuing campaign which culminated with the utter defeat of Germany. His service in Africa won an award of the Distinguished Service Medal, and the accomplishments of his Strategic Air Force in 1944 earned him the Robert J. Collier Trophy for that year, awarded annually to the American making the most outstanding contribution to aviation. He was present at all three signings of unconditional surrender by the enemy—Rheims, Berlin, and Tokyo. In February 1946, he was nominated to become commander of the Army Air Forces. In
September 1947 he was appointed by President Harry S. Truman as the First Chief of Staff of the new United States Air Force until 30 April 1948. General Spaatz retired on 30 June 1948.
Focus On: Leadership

GEN GEORGE C. KENNEY

- George C. Kenney was a fighter pilot during World War I. He downed two German aircraft and won the Distinguished Service Cross.

- Commander of Fifth Air Force and Far East Air Forces providing airpower for Gen Douglas MacArthur in the Southwest Pacific Theater during World War II.

- One of only four airmen to hold the rank of four-star general during World War II.

- One of the most innovative operational airmen of World War II.

- The first commander in chief of Strategic Air Command from 1946 to 1948.

George C. Kenney was America’s top Airman in the Pacific theater during World War II. Kenney had served as a fighter pilot in the First World War, downing two German aircraft and winning the Distinguished Service Cross. Between the wars he attended Command and General Staff College, the Army War College, and taught at the Air Corps Tactical School before heading Operations and Training for General Headquarters Air Forces. He also earned a reputation as an accomplished engineer through assignments at Wright Field, and became recognized as an expert in tactical aviation. Significantly, he was serving as an air attaché to Paris during the German invasion of France in 1940 and witnessed the effectiveness of airpower in that campaign.

In July 1942, Arnold selected Kenney to become Douglas MacArthur’s air deputy. For the rest of the war the short, fiery, and tireless Kenney served as commander of the Fifth Air Force and then Far East Air Forces under the difficult and demanding MacArthur. His success in such battles as Bismarck Sea, Rabaul, Wewak, and the Philippine campaign were dramatic, and he has become the prototype for the modern concept of an “air component commander,” the one individual in charge of all aviation assets in a theater. Kenney’s grasp of what is today called “operational art” and how airpower could be used to complement the operations of land and sea forces was outstanding, and he was considered by many to be the most accomplished combat air strategist of the war.

In April 1945 he was promoted to full general—one of only four Airmen holding that rank during the war. However, Arnold had more complete confidence in Spaatz and after the war Spaatz was named Arnold’s successor. Kenney had hoped to become Chief of Staff after Spaatz but Hoyt Vandenberg, nine years younger than Kenney, replaced Spaatz as chief of staff in 1948. Kenney was instead given command of the new Strategic Air Command (SAC) after the war. When the Berlin Crisis of 1948 broke out, Vandenberg conducted an investigation of SAC’s war readiness. The results were unacceptable, so Vandenberg replaced Kenney with Curtis E. LeMay. Kenney was then named commander of Air University. He retired from that position in 1951.
Focus On: Leadership

GEN BENJAMIN O. DAVIS, JR.

“SILENCE”

- The first black to graduate from West Point this century and later became the first African-American Air Force general.
- During his years at West Point he was officially “silenced” by all cadets—no one spoke to him for four years except on official business.
- Commissioned in 1936, earned his wings at Tuskegee in 1941 and was a lieutenant colonel squadron commander in August 1942.
- Commanded the all-black 99th Fighter Squadron in North Africa in 1943 and a fighter wing in Korea in 1953.
- His commands culminated with his third star and command of Thirteenth Air Force.

Born 18 December 1912 in Washington, D.C., to an Army First Lieutenant who later would become a general himself, Benjamin O. Davis, Jr. was born right into the strife that came along with being black in America at the beginning of the 20th Century. Determination and perseverance would become trademarks of his character and function as the moral compass that navigated his decisions throughout life.

He was raised by a much disciplined father and step-mother after his biological mother passed away when he was only three years old. Manners, education, both formal and informal, sports and extra-curricular activities were all important to Davis, Sr. and thus passed on to Davis, Jr. These qualities would prove beneficial as Davis, Jr. would endure years of struggles due to racial inequalities.

The four years General Benjamin Davis, Jr. spent at the United States Military Academy in West Point, New York, between 1932-1936, were arguably the four toughest, and yet most inspiring years of his life. The events that occurred during this timeframe forever shaped his life, the United States Army and the future of the United States itself. The treatment he received as a minority went beyond anything one would comprehend by today’s standards. Aside official orders, he was not spoken to nor was he allowed to have interactions with other cadets aside official interactions. Despite the adverse circumstances, he was determined to succeed at all costs and he believed he had more to offer the nation. His relentless tenacity propelled him to prosper graduating 35th out of 276 cadets in his class.

As was customary at the time, his only choice for assignment was to either an infantry or cavalry unit. He chose infantry taking him to Fort Benning, Georgia. After serving a year as an infantry company commander, he graduated from the Infantry School and assumed duties as Professor of Military Science at Tuskegee Institute. In May, 1941 he entered Airpower: End of WWI through WWII
Advanced Flying School and received his pilot wings in early 1942. General Davis, Jr. was then transferred to the Army Air Force in May 1942 and became the first commander of the 99th Fighter Squadron, a historic organization that became known as the Tuskegee Airmen… the fierce Red Tail fighters.

Throughout his career General Davis, Jr. continued to face trials and tribulations. He was routinely discriminated against because of his skin color, questioned of his stature in society, and discounted as a human being in his ability to be a leader of men. His vision of becoming a pilot in the Army Air Corps led to his pursuit of justice based on a man’s knowledge and abilities and not his ethnicity nor his heritage.

General Davis, Jr. retired at the rank of Lieutenant General on 1 February 1970. He was advanced to the four-star General rank on 9 December 1998 and had his four stars pinned on by President Clinton. Operation DESERT FOX, a four-day strategic bombing campaign against Iraqi forces, was initiated only seven days later on 16 December 1998, nostalgically linking now General Davis, Jr. to an Air Force he could have only envisioned and on which he had such a direct impact.

Respectfully fitting, General Davis, Jr. passed away on 4 July 2002, exiting this world on a day our entire nation celebrates together the independence of tyranny, recognizing all those who have fought, such as General Benjamin O. Davis, Jr., to change the face of a nation for its betterment.

“I was silenced solely because cadets did not want blacks at West Point. Their only purpose was to freeze me out. What they did not realize was that I was stubborn enough to put up with their treatment to reach the goal I had come to attain.”

General Davis, Jr.’s life, from his early years to his final days, directly matched the AFDD-1 institutional competencies of Organizational-Strategic Thinking-Vision and Adaptability.
The Profession of Arms

Student Preparation:
• Read the attached reading and Chapters 1 and 2 of The Armed Forces Officer.

Cognitive Lesson Objective:
• Comprehend the professional attributes and qualities of the Air Force officer.

Cognitive Samples of Behavior:
• Explain what constitutes a profession.
• Describe the three characteristics of a profession according to Samuel P. Huntington.
• Differentiate between an institution and an occupation.
• Explain why the United States has its officers take an oath to support and defend the Constitution.
• Explain the country’s expectations of its officers.

Affective Lesson Objective:
• Value the military as a profession.

Affective Sample of Behavior:
• Defend the profession of arms.
Since the dawn of recorded time, war has been an integral part of human history. There are many different theories that search to explain why war has played such a dominant role in mankind's history. Some argue that war is an aberration in human character, while others contend that it's a natural part of human behavior. Regardless of their personal convictions on war, all social scientists agree that military force has played an important role in human development. While we may wish for a world of eternal peace, we must be prepared to face enemies who may threaten our national security.

To ensure the protection of national interests, our government has created the most powerful military force in the history of humanity. The United States military establishment—composed of four services: the Army, Navy, Marine Corps and Air Force—is capable of projecting immense power throughout the world. If this military strength was misapplied, it could easily destroy the very fabric of our society.

As you begin your training, there may be some uncertainty about what it means to be a member of the Profession of Arms. In a very fundamental way, serving as an officer represents a special calling. The essential purpose of an organized military force is to defend the interests of the state, by force of arms if necessary. This task is unique to the military profession. There are those who have tried to compare the responsibilities of military officers to business executives. To be sure both occupations call for leadership abilities and involve the management of human and material resources. But what civilian corporation expects its executives to be available for work 24 hours a day, 7 days a week, and be ready to risk their lives on behalf of its stockholders? Most assuredly, executive job descriptions do not include the responsibility to lead others to their deaths. At its heart, the military profession is a calling that requires a devotion to service and willingness to sacrifice at levels far removed from the values of the marketplace.

The unique nature of our profession starts to become more clear as you read the following comments by Martin E. Dempsey, General, US Army, Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff 2012, in his paper America’s Profession—A Profession of Arms:

The seriousness of our profession was most vividly explained by General Douglas MacArthur in his farewell speech to West Point Cadets in May of 1962 when he said, “Yours is the profession of arms, the will to win, the sure knowledge that in war there is no substitute for victory, that if you lose, the Nation will be destroyed, that the very obsession of your public service must be Duty, Honor, Country.” Our profession is a calling requiring unique expertise to fulfill our collective responsibility to the American people, “provide for the common defense and secure the blessings of liberty.” Our profession is distinguished from others in society because of our expertise in the justified application of lethal military force and the willingness of those who serve to die for our Nation. Our profession is defined by our values, ethics, standards, code of conduct, skills, and attributes. As volunteers, our sworn duty is to the Constitution. Our status as a profession is granted by those whom we are accountable to, our civilian authority, and the American people. All service men and women belong to the profession from the junior
enlisted to our most senior leaders. We are all accountable for meeting ethical and performance standards in our actions and similarly, accountable for our failure to take action, when appropriate. The distinction between ranks lies in our level of responsibility and degree of accountability. We share the common attributes of character, courage, competence, and commitment. We qualify as professionals through intensive training, education, and practical experience. As professionals, we are defined by our strength of character, life-long commitment to core values, and maintaining our professional abilities through continuous improvement, individually and institutionally.

TODAY’S OFFICER:

WAGE EARNER OR PROFESSIONAL?

By Major Richard S. Workman II.

The following is reprinted in its entirety with permission from American Heritage Custom Printing and Major Workman.

Does professionalism mean the same thing when applied to different occupations, such as doctors, lawyers, military officers, artists, plumbers, and athletes? The answer, of course, is no. Some of these are considered professional occupations simply because the practitioners are paid for their skills; they are “professionals” instead of “amateurs.” If professional status were defined strictly in economic terms, then a military officer or a physician is a professional in the same way that Michael Jordan is a professional basketball player—all are paid for doing their jobs. This article discusses professionalism in its more profound sense, a professionalism that is an ideal and a goal to be sought among those with superior character and commitment.

Social scientists have long attempted to determine the specific characteristics common to professionalism and professions. The criteria developed have contained anywhere from three to more than a dozen elements and, at first glance, do not seem to approach any common consensus. Two models however are reasonably representative of the diverse characterizations and have been developed by scholars who closely study the military and its relationship with the rest of society. Dr. Samuel Huntington and Dr. Allan Millett have created models of professionalism that are excellent starting points for evaluating the military officer career. After looking at these two models and comparing the officer career to them, the opinions of other scholars with more critical arguments will be examined. The article concludes with a look at a third model, this one developed by Dr. Charles Moskos, that describes the changes in the military’s organizational identity in the last 25 years. His institutional/occupational paradigm helps to clarify how identity and commitment can affect attitudes toward the military career.
HUNTINGTON’S MODEL OF A PROFESSION

Dr. Samuel Huntington, a Harvard professor of political science, developed one of the best known models of professionalism. His book, *The Soldier and the State*, is a classic study of civil-military relations and provides a detailed examination of the military officer career as a profession. Huntington looks at the economic, social, and political relations of the officer corps with society and government and closely examines the nature of the officer corps, what its characteristics are, and what sort of people are military officers. To answer these questions, Huntington begins by defining professionalism: a group of people working in a certain occupation can be considered a profession if the group exhibits three essential characteristics, identified as *expertise, responsibility*, and *corporateness*.

**Expertise**

A profession centers around a specific set of skills and a body of knowledge that is learned through extensive education and experience. This specific skill and knowledge sets the profession apart from laymen who do not possess them; the expertise also aids in developing universal standards of conduct and performance for the members of the profession. But professional knowledge is more than simply the possession of practical skills; it must also be intellectual and scholarly in nature. Professionals acquire this specialized knowledge through a process of extensive and continued education, usually involving undergraduate and graduate-level study, technical training, and additional professional schools. More specifically, Huntington views professional expertise as composed of three separate components.

**Technical Component.** “The ordinary skill or craft exists only in the present and is mastered by learning an existing technique without reference to what has gone before.” This part of expertise is learning the “tools of the trade.” Professionals learn and practice skills that are beyond the layman’s capacity to apply. In a science and technology-based profession such as medicine, these skills might include operating diagnostic and surgical equipment. In a less-scientific profession such as law, these might mean a knowledge of court procedures, rules of evidence, and elements of proof.

**Theoretical or Intellectual Component.** “Professional knowledge is intellectual in nature and capable of preservation in writing. Professional knowledge has a history, and some knowledge of that history is essential to competence.” The theoretical component involves an understanding of the “how” and the “why” of the technical component. For physicians this might include the philosophy and history of medical practice; for lawyers the theories behind the American judicial system; for military officers, the theory and history of military operations. This component of expertise also enables and requires professionals to understand and to apply new developments by remaining in contact with the academic side of their professional knowledge, through journals and conferences, and with their movement through practice, teaching, and research. The theoretical component separates the professional from the technician: the technician only needs to master a particular skill, but the professional needs to know why their skills accomplish the necessary task.
Broad-Liberal Component. “Professional expertise also has a dimension in breadth which is lacking in the normal trade. It is a segment of the total cultural tradition of society. The professional man can successfully apply his own skill only when he is aware of this broader tradition of which he is a part.” Perhaps the most complex component of expertise, the broad-liberal component may also be the most important for the professional. It involves the ability of professionals to understand the role of their profession in the economic, social, political, and cultural milieu of their society. Professionals must have an understanding of human behavior, relationships, standards of conduct, and organizational structures so their professional expertise can be best used to achieve desirable results.

Professional Responsibility

“The professional is a practicing expert, working in a social context, and performing a service, such as a promotion of health, education, or justice, which is essential to the functioning of society. The client of every profession is society.” Because of the complex nature of professional expertise, laymen are usually not fully capable of understanding what professionals do or how they do it so that professionals have a “monopoly” over a particular skill. Society is also not generally capable of determining whether a professional is acting competently or ethically, only another professional can make such a judgment. Hence, society and those needing professional expertise place great trust in the professional. For this reason, a special relationship exists between the professional and the client that is different from the standard relationship of the marketplace. It is called the “professional-client relationship.” Clients must accept the professionals’ “monopoly on expertise” by accepting their definition of, and solution to, the problem, which requires professional service.

On the other hand, just as professionals expect clients to place affairs completely in their hands, clients expect professionals to abide by certain ethical norms and by high standards of professional conduct. Society requires professionals to perform their service when needed and to fulfill at least three obligations. First, the professional must not exceed the bounds of competence. This means two things. For one, professionals must never perform service outside the bounds of their specific expertise. It would be unethical, for example, for a tax attorney to defend an individual accused of murder, even though as a lawyer he may have access to the court system. And two, a professional must not exert personal prejudices or nonprofessional beliefs and judgments upon the professional-client relationship. A physician, for example, should not refuse treatment to a patient addicted to drugs, merely because of personal bias against the patient’s past conduct.

Secondly, the professional should always act in ways that are wholly in the client’s best interest. For example, lawyers should defend clients because they intend to work conscientiously for the client’s interest, not because they stand to profit from selling transcripts of private interviews with their clients. Similarly, surgeons are expected to perform procedures only because they are really needed, not because they can make more money from them. Huntington says that financial gain cannot be the primary goal of a professional person when performing in the character or capacity of a professional.
Third, the professional always acts with absolute integrity toward the client. Lawyers may use legal tricks, courtroom theatrics, and can argue over technicalities; they can fight their client’s cause as far as conscience and the practice of their profession will allow. However, they must never lie, cheat, or steal from their clients—integrity is an absolute necessity in the professional-client relationship. These obligations to clients are what Huntington calls “professional responsibility.”

**Corporateness**

“The members of a profession share a sense of organic unity and consciousness of themselves as a group apart from laymen. This collective sense has its origins in the lengthy discipline and training necessary for professional competence, the common bond of work, and the sharing of a unique social responsibility.” This shared sense of belonging among professionals can be called “corporateness.” It results first from their common bond of work. Professional people are likely to associate with one another, both during work and socially. Physicians may work together at a hospital or medical complex and lawyers may frequently see each other in court; they may also share the same leisure activities, symbols, private interests, and lifestyles. Second, professions desire autonomy. Professionals believe they should be able to provide their specific service to society in the way they think best—without undue influence from those “outside” the profession.

Last, professionals desire to communicate with one another to share experiences, new techniques, and knowledge. This often manifests itself in “professional organizations.” For the medical profession in the United States, the professional organization is the American Medical Association (AMA); for the legal profession it is the American Bar Association (ABA). Other professions have similar institutions. These organizations often perform essential services for the profession and for the society it serves: they police the profession by ensuring a certain level of competence, often through examinations and specific input to licensing authorities; they control recruitment by setting standards for entrance into the education and training programs necessary for membership in the profession. They also promote professional knowledge through journals such as the *Journal of the American Medical Association* (JAMA) and through periodic conferences. In addition, the organization often represents the profession as the spokesperson for its members in public debates.

**The Military Profession**

Given Huntington’s model of professionalism, the question remains: does the military officer corps qualify as a profession? Huntington seems to answer this unequivocally: “The vocation of officership meets the criteria of professionalism.” Nonetheless, each of his criteria should be examined more closely.
Does the military officer corps possess a specific expertise separate from civilian groups? Even though the military has many different specialties and branches of service, Huntington believes the officer corps has a specialized skill, best summed up by Harold Lasswell's phrase, “the management of violence.” More formally, Huntington states “The direction, operation, and control of a human organization whose primary function is the application of violence is the peculiar skill of the officer.”

Quite obviously, officers at different levels of rank and experience possess this expertise in differing amounts. Huntington says the bigger and more complex the organization officers are capable of directing, and the greater the number of situations and conditions under which they can serve, the more professional they are. Officers assigned to, or capable of directing only minor military efforts may be at such a low level of expertise as to call into question their professional status. Officers who can lead the operations of an aircraft wing or of an aircraft carrier battle group are certainly at a highly professional level, and those who can combine the use of land, sea, and air forces in an effective joint operation are at the top of the military profession.

Officer skills are neither primarily mechanical, meaning based upon the techniques and science of particular tasks, nor just an art, meaning a unique talent with which a person is born. Officership is, according to Huntington, “…an extraordinary complex intellectual skill requiring comprehensive study and training.” The specific skill of the officer is the management of violence, not the violent act itself. Flying an F-16 fighter, for example, requires background knowledge of warfare to be sure, but is primarily a mechanical skill. Directing an F-16 fighter squadron, however, requires far greater knowledge, leadership, and management ability. These can only be gained through continuous education and application of the theory and past lessons of organizing, training, equipping, and directing military forces.

The specific expertise of the officer carries with it special social responsibilities. With the military power at their disposal, officers could conceivably use their expertise for their own personal or service advantage and might coerce or disobey the society they are pledged to serve. Huntington tells us officers have a profound responsibility—to maintain the military security of society—their client. Everyone in a society has an interest in its security and, while the government as a whole has a concern for national security along with other social values, “the officer corps alone is responsible for military security to the exclusion of all other ends.”

Unlike physicians or lawyers, whose responsibilities are to individual patients or clients, military officers are responsible to society as a whole as “expert advisors.” Like other professions, however, officers can only serve their clients in the realm of their specific expertise. Professionals identify the needs of their clients and recommend a course of action, then apply their professional knowledge and experience once a decision is made with the client.
Membership in any profession is limited to a carefully chosen group; the commission is to the officer what a license is to a doctor. Entrance is restricted to only those with the required education and training. According to Huntington, the structure of the officer corps includes “not just the official bureaucracy but also societies, associations, schools, journals, customs, and traditions.” Officers tend to work and to live apart from society, although this has been steadily decreasing over time, and probably have less contact with society outside of the officer corps than do members of other professions. “Heroic murals and status, customs, uniforms, and reveille and taps—all these things faithfully teach new leaders that they have entered a profession.”

But what about the enlisted force? Today when we use the term professional soldier, sailor, marine, or Airman we think of every member of the military regardless of rank. Huntington says, however, that: “The enlisted personnel have neither the intellectual skills nor the professional responsibility of the officer. They are specialists in the application of violence not the management of violence. Their vocation is a trade not a profession.” This was perhaps true in 1957 when Huntington wrote *The Soldier and the State*, but the military of today is quite different. Enlisted personnel are entering the service with a higher education level than ever before and sometimes earn graduate-level degrees during their careers. With recent drawdowns of personnel in the entire force, many positions once manned by officers are now filled with noncommissioned officers (NCO). While it is still true that the enlisted corps cannot generally claim professional status, the higher NCO ranks may be individually qualified because of their high levels of education, responsibility, and career motivation.

The military officer, as an abstract concept, fits well into Huntington’s model of a profession. Yet individuals make up the military service, not paper concepts or theoretical models. Meeting Huntington’s three criteria of professionalism should be an individual concern; perhaps more than other occupations, the professional ideal should be a specific goal of each military officer.

**MILLETT’S MODEL OF A PROFESSION**

Dr. Allan Millett, a retired US Marine Corps colonel, was a professor of history at Ohio State University and is currently a professor at the University of New Orleans. He is a prolific writer on the military and society. In his paper, *Military Professionalism and Officership in America*, Millett states that, “A profession is an occupation that has assumed all or some of the attributes generally regarded as typical of professions.” It then falls to the definition of these characteristics to determine the essence of professions. Millett admits there is no consensus, but goes on to list six attributes he believes are found in most professions—a list that closely parallels Huntington’s ideas.
According to Millett, a profession is first “a full-time and stable job, serving continuing societal needs.” Professionals provide a vital service to society even though every member of society may not feel they need that particular service. The medical profession helps to ensure the health of everyone in society through both prevention and treatment of illness and injury. Some members of society served by these medical professionals may not feel they need doctors because they are blessed with good health or perhaps base their health on particular religious beliefs. Physicians, however, are ever ready to provide their professional service to those in need, whether during office hours or after the end of their working hours. Most would agree that the level of health, well being, and the quality of life provided by medical professionals is vital to society’s ability to function effectively.

The second attribute requires the profession to be “a lifelong calling by the practitioners, who identify themselves personally with their job subculture.” Much of the lives of professionals, both public and private, revolves around their work. In our society, members of the clergy are held to a high esteem for their expertise, dedication, and morality. Joining the clergy means devotion to religious beliefs and service to the church’s congregation. Members of the clergy are presumed by the rest of society to have a lifelong commitment and must possess all the expertise of their profession. They are treated with the same respect, whether preaching in front of a congregation or having dinner with a family in a private home.

Millett’s third attribute notes that professions are “organized to control performance standards and recruitment.” This means professionals have a monopoly of expertise. They consider themselves the only group qualified to judge whether a member of their profession is living up to the profession’s standards and code of ethics and whether applicants to the profession can meet the qualifications for membership. Standards of professional performance are usually determined by professional organizations such as the American Bar Association (ABA), which regulates the legal profession. College graduates who wish to become lawyers must meet certain standards to be admitted to law school and then must pass a bar examination to be able to practice law. A lawyer who fails to maintain professional standards of conduct or ethics can be disbarred and prevented from practicing law by the other members of his profession.

Fourth, the profession requires “formal, theoretical education.” Professionals must have more than training in the practical aspects of their craft. Physicians need to have a foundation in the basic sciences to truly understand their profession, separating them from those who may only be skilled at first aid, the operation of medical diagnostic equipment, or the administration of medication. These are vital functions to be sure, but knowledge of these skills does not make practitioners members of the medical profession. Millett says, “professions are based on some system of specialized knowledge which is continually enlarged by academic research and experience.” For example, doctors go to medical conferences and read and submit papers to professional journals; they try to enhance both their profession and their own professional expertise and reputation.
Fifth, Millett says professions must have “a service orientation in which loyalty to standards of competence and loyalty to client’s needs are paramount.” Clients requiring professional help must depend upon the judgment of a professional; they are layman and do not possess the expertise required to understand the professional service requested. A client requesting help from a tax attorney cannot on competent grounds contest the attorney’s opinion about whether or not a certain tax adjustment is valid. Because of the client’s vulnerability in the professional-client relationship, professionals have a society-imposed obligation to act only in the client’s behalf and never in their own self interest. This “service orientation” is a complex issue and recalls a contemporary controversy about the two primary examples of professions, doctors and lawyers. Do people join these professions to serve humanity or to make money? No doubt the motives for most are mixed, but the professional ideal set by this attribute provides a clear standard for conduct.

The final attribute, according to Millett, is that the profession “is granted a great deal of collective autonomy by the society it serves, presumably because the practitioners have proven their high ethical standards and trustworthiness.” It is this last attribute that Millett says most separates a profession from other occupations. Autonomy is the right of self-government. Society grants autonomy to professions because they perform society’s most necessary, difficult, morally ambiguous, and unpleasant jobs. Lawyers must ensure the individual rights of even violent criminals are not violated during the judicial process; physicians must make life or death decisions about their patients and must deal with ambiguous moral issues.

Professions desire autonomy so that those who lack the professional’s expertise will not have undue influence in the affairs of the profession. Millett warns, however, “the professional’s relative freedom is conditional and ultimately depends on continuous social approval.” If professionals do not police their colleagues adequately and if they abuse their privileged role, the entire profession could lose its freedom and “destroy trust as rapidly as it gained its relative autonomy.”

The Military Profession

According to Millett, an occupation’s claim to professional status depends on having some or all of the six attributes listed in his model. His attributes can be looked upon as a relative scale, the fewer attributes an occupation possesses, the less professional; the greater number of attributes, the more professional. As with Huntington’s model, the military officer corps seems to fit Millett’s professional model quite well.

The military is a full-time job serving the needs of society. The days are long-gone when the defense of the nation could be put in the hands of a citizen-soldiery who would grab their muskets and powder horns from atop the mantel and rush out to meet the enemy. The technology and complexity of today’s warfare demands a full-time military that provides continuous deterrence and is prepared to fight when called upon. This is a need even in the post-Cold War world: from nuclear proliferation and terrorism to regional conflicts, from famine relief to peacekeeping, American society continues to need an organization to maintain its security.
The military is a lifelong calling for people who identify themselves with their job. The key word in this attribute is "calling," a word normally associated with the clergy but deemed necessary for all professionals. Colonel Lloyd Matthews, US Army (Ret), writes, "On entering the Army, true professionals don’t simply 'take a job.' Instead, they 'profess to a sacred calling,' one that totally immerses them, along with their band of professional brethren, in a career dedicated to a single transcendent cause." The American military’s calling is to defend the United States and the freedom of its citizens against any and all aggressors.

Procedures and policies within the military control members’ performance, set standards, and regulate recruitment. Control is exercised within the profession by its members because those outside the profession do not possess the expertise needed to judge whether applicants have met the standards and whether members already in the profession are performing well. Matthews notes that the military regulates itself and its members to a higher degree than any other calling. Selection boards for commissioning, professional schools, promotions, performance reports, awards and decorations, and courts-martial panels are all well entrenched facts of military life.

The military officer requires formal theoretical education. While no doubt highly educated, a question remains as to whether or not the officer has been given a distinct and unique body of knowledge, theory, and history beyond the normal undergraduate degree that can be taught by the military education system. Does the military have an equivalent medical or law school? Stated another way, some believe that officers lack a single defined specialty because society requires them to fill so many different roles. In addition to being a war fighter, military officers are peacemakers, advisors, managers, and many other things. Matthews recognized that officers must be versatile and adaptable, but stresses the critical role that comes above all others and that must not be forgotten—to lead soldiers into battle in defense of the country. This requirement can emerge at any time and without a distinct break from the other function. The officer may at one moment be feeding a starving nation and in the next be fighting against those that were starving. The events in Somalia in 1991 and 1992 are a reminder of why the military must be flexible and responsive to changes in the environment surrounding its operations.

Others believe that military schools should concentrate more on the practical aspects of employing violence and should teach officers more about the latest technology for the modern battlefield. Matthew’s response to this is that military schooling, like other professional training, should maintain a tension between theory and practice. Physicians cannot practice medicine if they only know the theory of medicine: they must also be able to diagnose and treat patients. Trial lawyers cannot function in front of judges and juries unless they have mastered knowledge of laws practiced in mock trials, and served in apprentice courses. Thus it is in the military school system, where theory provides the foundation upon which practical skills are built.
The military is service-oriented, where loyalty to standards of competence and the client’s needs are paramount. The officer’s clients are the people of the nation. Because the United States can no longer rely on the security of a force of part-time volunteers, the American people have placed their trust in the professional judgment of military officers. Officers swear to defend the Constitution, national values, and the American way of life. They advise their civil authorities and fight when necessary. According to Matthews, altruism is nowhere stronger than in the military, “where the incentive of a day’s hardtack and the chance to be of use stand in stark contrast to the opportunities for enrichment offered by some of the other professions.”

Society grants the military a great deal of autonomy because of its members’ high ethical behavior and trust. The uniformed chain of command is in control within the military. During peacetime, military officers are given authority to organize, train, and equip the nation’s forces with little outside influence. Recruitment, promotion, and military justice are also handled within the profession. During war, military professionals are given authority to use the military resources of the nation much as they deem appropriate. Officers command not only expensive weapon systems but are also in charge of the most precious national resource, the lives of its soldiers, sailors, marines, and Airmen. No other profession can claim a responsibility of this magnitude.

While the military does not possess a single, unified code of ethics, there is no shortage of ethical guidance. The Oath of Office; the Air Force Core Values of Integrity, Service, and Excellence; the US Air Force Academy and Officer Training School’s Honor Code against lying, stealing, cheating, and tolerating; and the Uniform Code of Military Justice all set ethical standards for the military profession. Standards that all members, if they wish to be a part of the Profession of Arms, must make a part of their very being. Hence, in accordance with Millett’s model, the officer corps seems to meet all six criteria and can claim professional status.

ARGUMENTS AGAINST THE MILITARY

AS A PROFESSION

Going beyond the military profession and the scholars who have studied civil-military relations closely, such as Samuel Huntington, Allan Millett, and Charles Moskos, one finds a good deal of discussion about why the military should not be considered a profession. Matthews cites several examples in the article Is the Military Profession Legitimate? A.M. Carr-Saunders and P.A. Wilson, in their article The Professions, excludes the military from professional status “because the service which soldiers are trained to render is one which it is hoped they will never be called upon to perform.” In his article Attributes as a Profession, Ernest Greenwood lists nineteen occupations as professions, from accountant to teacher, but does not mention the military. The US Census Bureau reports the military separate from its list of managerial and professional specialties statistics. Zeb Bradford
and James Murphy, while active military officers, wrote, “The military is not a profession in the way that certain other groups are, such as law and medicine.” They claim the military has no expertise it can call its own and that officers are merely paid “jacks-of-all-trades.”

Even theories which have developed models that demonstrate officer professional status seem to agree that the military profession is different. Huntington noted that “the public, as well as the scholar, hardly conceives of the officer in the same way that it does the lawyer or doctor, and it certainly does not accord to the officer the deference which it gives to the civilian professional.” Janowitz writes: “In contrast to the public acclaim accorded individual military heroes, officership remains a relatively low-status profession. Similarly, Moskos says that in describing the military, the main hypotheses is that the profession has been moving away from an “institutional value” format “to one that increasingly resembles that of an occupation.”

These statements can be reduced to three critical impediments to officer professional status, according to Matthews. First, since the military is a government bureaucracy, officers lack real autonomy and do not have interaction with a genuine client in the traditional sense of profession. The officer’s client is a collective (the American people) and is usually at a distance, instead of being individual and in a close personal relationship. Moreover, professional discretion in the exercise of expertise is often threatened by the hierarchical and authoritarian nature of military and civilian government bureaucracies.

Matthews answers this point by noting that technology and society are changing rapidly and that bureaucracies are a fact of life everywhere. All professionals are adapting their organizations to move into the future. Physicians are moving from small private practices into larger institutional settings and lawyers are taking their expertise into other occupations, such as business and law enforcement. While not practicing their profession in the traditional sense, are those doctors and lawyers any less professional than before? Are Air Force officers less professional because they work for an organization of almost 400,000 men and women? Matthews believes the answer is clearly “no” in both cases.

Second, officers are not a member of a profession because their skills are used to kill and destroy. Unlike the physician, for example, who strives to preserve life. Moreover, the “management of violence” is a skill that most hope will never have to be used hence officers rarely practice their professional expertise. Matthews points out that the military provides a critical service of “deterring war and maintaining a secure peace.” to society that we all hope it performs. He also says that all professions deal in human frailty and disaster. Doctors, lawyers, and clergy all possess expertise, which most hope will never have to be practiced. The doctor deals with injury and disease, the lawyer with crime, the minister with sickness of spirit, and the officer with armed conflict. Because the world is imperfect, professionals are required to answer the call to deal with the results of these imperfections.

Officer’s primary aim is to ensure security and peace in an ever-changing world, but he/she can only accomplish this task by always being ready to fight when called upon. Matthews drives this point home by quoting General Douglas MacArthur’s address at West Point on 12 May 1962:
Being prepared for war does not mean that you are warmongers. On the contrary, the soldier above all other people prays for peace, for he must suffer and bear the deepest wounds and scars of war.

Prevention is a major tenet of all professions, whether the aim is peace, health, or justice; those who practice it deserve respect.

The third argument against officer professional status is that the need for a "profession of arms" has passed now that the Cold War has ended and that more countries have converted to democratic and free market ideals. With only one superpower left in the world, no one can challenge the United States militarily and the need for a large professional force has abated. Some believe the United States only needs a force large enough to provide a contingent to the United Nations, since war is obsolete in this new era of peace. While other professional skills like medicine and law are still required, they suggest that the military officer corps should be denied professional status.

If only this were so! Many have prophesied the end of warfare, but none have been correct. In the twentieth century alone, the United States has fought in two major world wars, the first of which was hailed as the "war to end all wars," over four decades of the Cold War, and three major regional conflicts; Korea, Vietnam, and the Persian Gulf. No matter how principled the desire for peace in the calm of the classroom, a country must sometimes give way to higher interests. In the complexity and confusion of the international contingent, the American military profession continues to serve an essential societal need.

THE MILITARY:
INSTITUTION VERSUS OCCUPATION

The models examined thus far have looked at the armed forces as institutions in which professional military officers practice their occupational expertise, assuming a common definition of the character and motivation of individual officers. In the 1970s, however, some scholars perceived a notable decline in the relevance, legitimacy, and prestige accorded the military profession by society. The same period also identified a possible change in the value orientation of military officers from "selfless service to society" to "self-interest." Charles Moskos defined this process as a shift from an institutional orientation to an occupational orientation.

Moskos' institutional-occupational (I/O) model assumes a continuum of civil-military arrangements ranging from a military entirely separate from society to one contiguous with civilian structures. "An institution is legitimated in terms of value and norms, that is, a purpose transcending individual self-interest in favor of a presumed higher good." According to Moskos, members of an institution are seen as following a calling (meaning a profession) and are described by words such as integrity, service, and excellence.
Members of a military institution perceive themselves and are regarded by society as separate; they hold notions such as self-sacrifice and define themselves as military officers. Consequently, they are held in high esteem by society. Officers with this orientation stress factors in their job that relate to military competence and to their responsibility to serve society.

On the other hand, Moskos notes that, “An occupation is legitimated in terms of the marketplace. Supply and demand, rather than normative considerations, is paramount.” In modern society, employees have input in determining the appropriate salary and work conditions. These rights are balanced by their responsibility to meet the obligations of a contract. This implies that the interests of the individual come before the interests of the employer. Officers with this orientation stress factors such as salary, job security, and perhaps working conditions.

Moskos believes both models exist simultaneously within the military, while the military itself has traditionally tried to avoid becoming an occupational organization. The pay system continues to be broken down into pay and allowances for housing and food, despite pressures to institute a single salary. Yet the military has made some “occupational” changes to ensure it retains specific skills. Physicians, pilots, submarine officers, and expensively trained enlisted technicians receive bonuses and other incentives to join and to remain in the military service. The pay and allowance system reflects the entire military to a certain extent. People in an occupation tend to identify with others that possess the same skills and receive similar pay, which are typical outside of the organization. Identity in an institution comes from the shared experiences of living and working together. The process of accomplishing the mission is more important than the individual work output itself. Individuals in the military put more emphasis on being a member of a particular unit than on their specific task in that unit. For example, the members of a bomber wing, whether pilot, security policeman, finance clerk, or cook would identify their mission as “bombs on target.”

In an institutional military, individuals are on duty 24 hours per day and are expected to take on a variety of roles that may not be limited to their particular military specialty. In an occupational military, the roles are job specific, and as long as the job gets done no one cares what an individual does when not at work. In an institutional military, members work and live on base, and frequent moves are a fact of life. The on-base club is the center of social life. In an occupational military, one’s home and work locations are separate and more value is placed on staying in one location. Societal activity takes place off the installation.

Membership in the institutional military even extends to spouses. They often take part in various organizations such as the Officers’ Spouses Club (OSC) and volunteer in activities supportive of the military community. Military families support and take part in institutional activities. In an occupational military spouses are reluctant to take part in traditional social activities and, since many of them now work outside the home, often lack the time or inclination to do so.
In an institutional military, performance evaluations are qualitative and subjective. In an occupational military, performance is measured quantitatively against the “contract.” The more institutional the military, the greater the use of the UCMJ system; the more occupational the military, the more likely an individual will be tried by a civilian court. In a society with an institutional military, veterans retain their status and receive preferences over non-veterans. This would be much less true with an occupational military.

The differences in how an officer views the profession of arms, whether as a calling or a job, can drastically affect the way he leads. How does a leader inspire his troops to do the right things and more than expected without appealing to virtues such as integrity, loyalty, and service? With only contractual inducements and sanctions, can a leader inspire his people to the high standards of appropriate conduct expected—demanded—of the profession? Malham Wakin says there is a moral aspect to being called “professional” as well as a competence aspect.

The military leader who views his oath of office as merely a contractual arrangement with his government sets the stage for a style of leadership critically different from the leader who views that oath as a pledge to contribute to the common good of his society. For the former, “duty, honor, country” is a slogan adopted temporarily until the contract is completed; for the latter, “duty, honor, country” is a way of life adopted for the good of all and accepted as a moral commitment not subject to contractual negotiations.

Wakin goes on to say that if professions do not control members’ standards of fitness and inculcate the idea of service they invite controls from the government or the marketplace. Leaders of professions must develop a sense in their members that virtues are critical for success.

**US Air Force Institutional-Occupational Trend**

The US Air Force officer corps is a unique example of the institutional-occupational (I/O) model. Frank Wood, a retired Air Force colonel and military sociologist, believes that, “Because of their extensive use of technology, the Air Force and the Air Force Officer Corps tend to be most susceptible to increasing specialization and a diffused sense of purpose.” To describe this change at the individual level, Wood concentrates on professional identities and the commitment patterns of officers.

Wood cites four studies conducted from 1979 to 1984 where the attitudes of junior officers were surveyed. He found that approximately 40–50 percent of them reported consistently that they “normally think of themselves as specialists working for the Air Force rather than as professional military officers.” What was surprising to Wood was that this ratio of 60 percent officers and 40 percent specialists was true even among Air Force Academy graduates. Another surprise in several surveys was that pilots showed the greatest tendency to view themselves as specialists. They were professional pilots who happened to fly for the military. This finding contradicted Wood’s assumption that most institutional characteristics would be found near the flightline.
From these surveys, Wood was able to determine consistent differences in attitudes. For instance, those who identify themselves as professional officers reported as follows:

- They view military experience as a way of life, not as a job.
- Their air force careers provide opportunities for interesting and challenging jobs (in terms of importance) that would be very difficult to replace if they left the air force today.
- The air force does not require them to participate in too many activities not related to their job.
- Personal interests must take second place to operational requirements for military personnel.
- Airmen are special.
- They live on base rather than in the civilian community.
- They plan to continue their military service for 20 years and beyond.

By contrast, those who identified themselves as specialists disagreed with many of the above statements.

These trends toward occupationalism in the Air Force can and should be reversed, according to Wood. Programs such as Project Warrior and an increased emphasis on “leadership” versus “management” can help institution building in the Air Force. Leaders at every level of the organization must communicate what is distinctive about the military to people both inside and outside the organization. The US Air Force’s vision statement is a good attempt to point the diverse elements of the organization toward a common goal: “Global vigilance, reach, and power.” The core values of integrity first, service before self, and excellence in all we do help define what is special about being an Airman. Wood sums up these ideas well:

The ultimate concern of every officer should be binding subordinates to the organization and to the mission. They must exemplify the values of mission over self and of devotion to the corporate body, even at the risk of their careers. Actions say more than words, and the troops know what is real and what is lip service.

Air Force leaders cannot take for granted that officers will consider themselves part of an institution but must actively try to shape these identities and commitments.
Conclusion

If being recognized by your organization and society as “professional” military officers is to mean anything, the term must be carefully applied and sparingly used. If this term is bestowed on you only for meeting some academic prerequisite or receiving payment for a specific skill, then it is meaningless. The word “professional” should inspire prospective and serving officers with an ideal of service and expertise. Huntington reminds us that: “In practice, officership is strongest and most effective when it most closely approaches the professional ideal; it is weakest and most defective when it falls short of that ideal.”

This lesson has examined where the military stands as a profession when measured against the criteria of prominent experts, such as Huntington and Millett, and against the comments of less favorably inclined critics. Overall, the officer corps seems to fit strongly into the professional category. But at what point can the individual claim professional status in the military? When is a young officer a full member of the profession of arms? Professional status comes to people at different times in their lives and careers. It is achieved through continuous study, practice, and experience in “managing violence.” It is expressed by attitudes and commitments and by the internalization of the values of military service.

In Moskos’ institutional-occupational (I/O) model, the motivation in an institution is based on values, whereas in an occupation it is based on cost-benefit analysis. Moskos and Wood found the performance of organizations with members who have an institutional identification exceeded the performance of those that had only an occupational identification. A society needs both types of organization to serve its varying needs. Certainly “real” organizations have elements of both. In the defense of the nation, however, “effective armed forces must be predominately institutional because they require commitment that cannot be bought.”

Efforts to bring a greater degree of institutionalization to the Air Force does not mean going back to the traditional way of organization. Military sociologist Charles Cotton tells us that we must not think of the I/O model as a zero-sum game when determining our future direction:

A cohesive and committed military does not have to be kept away from the ‘contamination’ of civilian values and images; dedicated members who have internalized the military ethic need not pursue their careers in splendid isolation on posts and bases, supported by their spouses. Similarly, we need not assume that attempts to strengthen links between the military and society lead always and irrevocably to weakened commitment and operational effectiveness within the military.
The task of future military officers is to educate themselves by study, experience and observation of the officers around them. They must learn to accept responsibility for their actions and those of their subordinates and to take appropriate action, never hiding behind excuses. Their focus must be on devoted service to the nation, not on pay, working conditions, or their next assignment. Only then will they move toward achieving the ideal of professionalism.

Bibliography:
7. Millett, Allan R. *Military Professionalism and Officership in America*. Columbus, Ohio: The Mershon Center of The Ohio State University.
Lesson Preparation:
- Reference https://www.defense.gov/ while completing the The Department of Defense WBT.

Cognitive Lesson Objective:
- Remember the critical organizations and personnel in the Department of Defense (DOD).

Cognitive Samples of Behavior:
- Identify the role of the President, the Secretary of Defense, and the Joint Chiefs of Staff.
- Cite the role of the Armed Forces Policy Council.
- Define unified command.
- Recall the primary missions of the six geographically based unified combatant commands.
- Recall the primary missions of the three functionally based unified commands.
THE DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE

“We are war fighters first, and as war fighters we have no match. With the same dedication and patriotism that makes us the world’s finest fighting force, we are proud to perform other important missions for the American people and our allies. Whether we’re saving lives, protecting property or keeping the peace, the US military stands ready to keep America strong and free. We have never—and will never—compromise on the quality of our most important resource. It is not tanks, planes or ships, but people. People who have chosen to serve you and serve the nation. They are your sons and daughters, brothers and sisters, husbands and wives, people of whom you can be very proud. They are America’s best. Everything we do supports our primary mission—to provide the military forces needed to deter war and protect the security of the United States. Nothing less is acceptable to us, or to the American people. This is our bottom line.”

Excerpt from “DOD 101”

With our military units tracing their roots to pre-Revolutionary times, you might say that the DOD is America’s oldest company. And, if you look at it in business terms, many would say we’re not only America’s largest company, but also its busiest and most successful.

No other company in the world can take a group of new employees, from a wide variety of backgrounds, and in less than three months make them part of a cohesive, organized, and productive work team. They will be well trained, highly motivated, and very fit. They will treat others with dignity and respect and will willingly obey their leaders.

Our military services are older than our country. The Army lays claim as the oldest, formed in June 1775. The Navy soon followed four months later in October, and the Marine Corps in November. The War Department, which encompassed all three services, was formed in 1789. Nine years later the Navy formed its own department to manage Naval and Marine Corps affairs, with the Army remaining under the War Department. That’s the way it remained until the end of World War II. However, experiences during that conflict proved that unified control of the military at the national and major command levels was critical to national defense.

The United States Constitution establishes the basic principle that the Armed Forces must be under civilian control. By giving the President the position of Commander in Chief (CINC), the Constitution provides the basic framework for military organization. This lesson discusses the structure of the DOD and the role of the President and Secretary of Defense. It briefly discusses the roles of the military departments and the Joint Chiefs of Staff (JCS), as well as unified and specified commands. Directions for military operations emanate from the President and the Secretary of Defense.
The Commander In Chief

Our CINC is the President of the United States. The President, along with the National Security Council (NSC), determines the security needs of the nation and then takes courses of action to ensure that those are met. The NSC is chaired by the President. Its regular attendees (both statutory and non-statutory) are the Vice President, the Secretary of State, the Secretary of the Treasury, the Secretary of Defense, and the Assistant to the President for National Security Affairs. The Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff (CJCS) is the statutory military advisor to the Council, and the Director of National Intelligence is the intelligence advisor. The Chief of Staff to the President, Counsel to the President, and the Assistant to the President for Economic Policy are invited to attend any NSC meeting. The Attorney General and the Director of the Office of Management and Budget are invited to attend meetings pertaining to their responsibilities. The heads of other executive departments and agencies, as well as other senior officials, are invited to attend meetings of the NSC when appropriate.

The President, in his constitutional role as CINC of the Armed Forces, is the senior military authority in the nation and as such is ultimately responsible for the protection of the United States from all enemies, foreign and domestic.

As part of the Constitution’s system of checks and balances, our budget must be approved by the US Congress, which acts as our board of directors. We accomplish this by working with various committees of both houses, primarily those dealing with funding, military operations and intelligence. Their decisions affect our well-being and range from setting civilian pay raises to funding major troop deployments. Following World War II, an increasing need to integrate military policy with national policy compelled the President to assume a more active role as the CINC of the Armed Forces. In this position, the President has the final word of command authority; however, as head of the executive branch, the CINC is subject to the “checks and balances” system of the legislative and judicial branches.

Nevertheless, the heavy demands of domestic and foreign duties require the President to delegate authority broadly, but wisely. The President, as CINC of the Armed Forces, is the ultimate authority. The Office of the Secretary of Defense (OSD) carries out the President’s policies by tasking the military departments, the CJCS, and the unified commands. The military departments train and equip their forces. The unified commands conduct operations.

The Department of Defense

In 1947 Congress passed the National Security Act to establish a civilian Secretary of Defense. The Secretary was in charge of a new overarching department called the National Military Establishment. The act also created a new service, the Air Force, as its own department, while converting the War Department to the Department of the Army. Then, in 1949, Congress created the DoD, consolidating the three services under
the Secretary’s direct control, and making the Secretary of Defense the only military representative on the President’s cabinet. This National Security structure has remained, for the most part, intact for nearly 60 years.

The DOD is the nation’s largest employer. Its all-volunteer force includes over 1.4 million men and women on active duty, 718,000 civilians and another 1.1 million serving in the National Guard and Reserve. The DOD also supports 2 million retirees and families who receive benefits. [Whether on land or at sea, no other company can match its size with employees located at over 5000 fixed facilities covering 30 million acres of land.]

Today, DOD employees are located in more than 146 countries with more than 450,000 troops and civilians overseas both afloat and ashore. They operate in every time zone and in every climate and are busier than the majority of the nation’s largest companies. Compared to some of the world’s largest companies, the DOD has a larger budget, more employees and more bases of operation. Its headquarters, the Pentagon, is the nation’s largest office building under one roof. Completed in January 1943, it took only 16 months and $83 million to build. A recognized symbol around the world, the Pentagon has 17 1/2 miles of corridors, 29 acres inside the building, 67 acres for parking, and 23,000 people working there daily.

Although the end of the Cold War implied a less dangerous world, this has not been the case. Despite the demise of the Soviet Union, and the downsizing of the US military, American operational commitments since 1990 have made us busier than ever.

The Office of the Secretary of Defense

The President appoints the Secretary of Defense with the advice and consent of the Senate. The Secretary of Defense is the principal defense policy advisor to the President and is responsible for the formulation of general defense policy and policy related to all matters of direct and primary concern to the DOD, and for the execution of approved policy. Under the direction of the President, the Secretary exercises authority, direction, and control over the DOD.

As the civilian head of the DOD, the Secretary of Defense reports directly to the President. The functions of the DOD, as prescribed by the National Security Act of 1947 and its amendments, are to:

- Support and defend the Constitution of the United States against all enemies, foreign and domestic;
- Ensure, by timely and effective military action, the security of the United States, its possessions, and areas vital to its interest; and
- Uphold and advance the national policies and interests of the United States.
The operational chain of command runs from the President and the Secretary of Defense, to the Unified Commander and down to the various component commanders. (Note: Operational chain of command is the one in which those involved, have executive authority to actually direct actions of those at lower echelons.) DOD Directive 5100.1 places the CJCS in the communications chain of command such that communications between the President and the Secretary of Defense and the combatant commanders pass through the CJCS. (Note: This means that the JCS can only advise actions for consideration, they have no executive authority.) Furthermore, the CJCS can be assigned oversight responsibilities for the Secretary’s control and coordination of the combatant commanders. That is, the CJCS provides feedback to the Secretary about the Secretary’s control of the combatant commanders. The JCS are not in the operational chain of command.

The Secretary, like the President, must also delegate authority. The Secretary of Defense assigns the military administration missions (organize, train, and equip) to the military departments and the military operational missions (war fighting) to the unified and specified commands.

The Secretary of Defense’s demanding duties require the help of many assistants, chief of whom is the Deputy Secretary of Defense. A number of advisory bodies and individual advisors also assist the Secretary of Defense in considering matters requiring a long-range view, and in formulating broad defense policy. In addition, the Secretary receives staff assistance through a number of special agencies. These included the Defense Intelligence Agency (DIA), Defense Investigative Service Agency (DISA), and Defense Logistics Agency (DLA), and the Defense Mapping Agency (DMA). These agencies, as well as others, provide special skills, expertise, and advice to the Secretary of Defense.

Finally, the most important policy advisory body working directly with the Secretary of Defense is the Armed Forces Policy Council. The Armed Forces Policy Council not only advises the Secretary of Defense on matters of broad policy relating to the Armed Forces, but also considers and reports on any other matters that, in the opinion of the Secretary, need attention. The Council consists of the Secretary of Defense (Chairman); the Deputy Secretary of Defense; Secretaries of the Army, Navy, and Air Force; the CJCS; the Under Secretaries of Defense; the Deputy Under Secretary of Defense for Acquisition; the Army and Air Force Chiefs of Staff; the Chief of Naval Operations (CNO); and the Commandant of the Marine Corps. Officials of the DOD and other departments and agencies in the executive branch may be invited to attend appropriate meetings of the council.

One other group involved in national defense is the NSC, which was established by the National Security Act of 1947 as the principal forum to consider national security issues that require presidential decision. It has four statutory members: the President, Vice President, Secretary of State, and Secretary of Defense. The CJCS and the Director of Central Intelligence serve as statutory advisors to the NSC.
The Military Departments

The military departments consist of the Army, the Navy (including the Marine Corps), and the Air Force. Although operational command rests with the DOD, the military departments exist as separate agencies. Except in operational matters, the Secretary of Defense issues orders to a service through its secretary. While the service secretaries aren’t accountable for military operations, they are responsible for the economy and efficiency with which their departments operate. Service secretaries also assist the Secretary of Defense in managing the administrative, training, and logistic functions of the military departments. Each service develops and trains its forces to perform the primary functions that support the efforts of other services. By carrying out their primary functions, the forces help to accomplish overall military objectives.

Joint Chiefs of Staff

Subject to the authority, direction, and control of the President and the Secretary of Defense, members of the JCS serve as the communications chain of command and military staff to the unified and specified commanders. The JCS prepares strategic plans and provides for the strategic direction of the Armed Forces. It reviews the plans and programs of unified and specified commands, considers major personnel and logistic requirements of the Armed Forces, and establishes unified doctrine. The JCS is also responsible for the assignment of logistic responsibilities to the military services, the formulation of policies for joint training, and the coordination of military education.

The members of the JCS consist of the CJCS; Chief of Staff, US Army; CNO; Chief of Staff, US Air Force; the Commandant of the Marine Corps; and the Chief, National Guard Bureau. The CJCS not only serves as a member of and presides over the JCS, but also furnishes the recommendations and views of the JCS to the President, the NSC, or the Secretary of Defense. Other members of the JCS may also provide advice to these bodies, when requested. If a JCS member submits advice that differs from the Chairman’s view, then the CJCS must present that advice to the appropriate body along with his or her own. When the CJCS isn’t present, the Vice-Chairman of the JCS serves in his or her place. Though not originally included as a member of the JCS, the National Defense Authorization Act of 1993 vested the Vice-Chairman as a full voting member.

Joint Staff

Consisting of more than 1,500 military and civilian personnel, the Joint Staff is the primary support for the JCS. The staff is composed of a relatively even number of officers from the Army, Navy, Marine Corps, and Air Force. By law, the direction of the Joint Staff rests exclusively with the CJCS.
National Military Command and Control

The National Military Command System provides our command authorities with all the information they need to make decisions and the means to transmit these decisions to subordinate levels. At the top of the communications system is the National Military Command Center (NMCC). The NMCC receives data from various command and control centers of the unified and specified commands. It also receives data from such defense agencies as the National Security Agency and the DIA. Members of the Joint Staff analyze and process this information and pass pertinent messages on through the State Department Operations Center and the National Indications Center of the Central Intelligence Agency to the Situation Room in the White House.

Unified Commands

Having a broad continuing mission, a unified command comprises forces from two or more military services and falls under one commander. Once forces come under a unified command, only the authority of the Secretary of Defense can transfer them. Moreover, the capability of the unified commander can expand through the formation of either a subordinate unified command or a Joint Task Force (JTF). Each consists of joint forces under one commander. The primary difference between the two lies in the scope of the operation. The subordinate unified command has a continuing mission and command arrangement. A JTF is a temporary organization that is limited by a specific time, place, and mission.

The President, with the advice and assistance of the CJCS, establishes unified commands for the performance of military missions e.g., war fighting. To form these commands, forces are acquired through the Departments of the Army, Navy, and Air Force. Then, a commander is assigned to each unified command for the purpose of deploying, directing, controlling, and coordinating the actions of the command’s forces. In addition, the commander conducts joint training exercises and controls certain support functions. Not surprisingly, the unified commanders are responsible to both the Secretary of Defense and the President. Normally organized on a geographical basis, the number of unified combatant commands is not fixed by law or regulation and may vary from time to time.

Currently, there are nine unified commands; six are geographically based and three are functionally based. The geographical or theater commands are the US Central Command (USCENTCOM), the US European Command (USEUCOM), the US Pacific Command (USPACOM), US Northern Command (USNORTHCOM), US Southern Command (USOUTHCOM), and US Africa Command (USAFRICOM). (NOTE: In addition to the following reading, the geographic combatant commands will have a separate reader as part of the cross-cultural competence curriculum.)

The functional commands are US Special Operations Command (USSOCOM), US Strategic Command (USSTRATCOM), and US Transportation Command (USTRANSCOM). A brief description of these commands is provided in this reading. Each military department has a component commander who exercises operational command for that branch of
service. Essentially, a component commander brings land, sea, air, or other specialized competencies and forces for employment under the operational authority of commanders of combatant commands. Under the component commander are those individuals, organizations, or installations of the military (normally a MAJCOM or Numbered Air Force, etc.) command assigned to the unified command.

**United States European Command**

**Mission:** USEUCOM conducts military operations, international military engagements, and interagency partnering to enhance transatlantic security and defend the United States forward. USEUCOM does this by establishing an agile security organization able to conduct full spectrum activities as part of whole of government solutions to secure enduring stability in Europe and Eurasia.

The USEUCOM is one of the United States' two forward-deployed Geographical Combatant Commands, whose area of focus covers almost one-fifth of the planet, including all of Europe, large portions of Asia, parts of the Middle East and the Arctic and Atlantic Oceans. The command is responsible for US military relations with NATO and 51 countries on two continents with a total population of close to a billion people. From its state-of-the-art plans and operations center, the command directs the operation of more than 100 thousand military and civilian personnel operations across 10.7 million square miles or 27.7 million square kilometers of land and 13 million square miles or 33.6 million square kilometers of ocean. The command is also responsible for maintaining the quality of life, including health care and schools, for almost 130 thousand military family members living in Europe. Headquartered in Stuttgart, Germany, USEUCOM is a joint forces community of approximately 1,000 US soldiers, sailors, Airmen, Marines and government civilians, who work and live at four different locations around the city. USEUCOM is comprised of components from all of America’s military services who provide ready forces to provide regional security:

US Army Europe trains, equips, deploys and provides command and control of forward-deployed land forces, able to support and conduct the full spectrum of joint, and combined multi-national operations, and engagement activities. US Naval Forces Europe is prepared for future challenges and mission requirements by operating, training, maintaining and sustaining combat-ready naval forces. US Marine Corps Forces Europe taps pre-positioned assets to rapidly deploy expeditionary forces and equipment and conduct a wide array of operations. US Air Forces in Europe delivers its well-respected air power to support command missions due to impressive technology and a meticulous attention to logistics. Special Operations Command Europe provides tremendous flexibility throughout a full range of military operations including combat, special operations, humanitarian assistance, non-combatant evacuations and joint-combined military operations.
United States Pacific Command

Mission: USPACOM protects and defends, in concert with other US Government agencies, the territory of the United States, its people, and its interests. With allies and partners, USPACOM is committed to enhancing stability in the Asia-Pacific region by promoting security cooperation, encouraging peaceful development, responding to contingencies, deterring aggression, and, when necessary, fighting to win.

The USPACOM Area of Responsibility (AOR) encompasses about half the earth's surface, stretching from the waters off the west coast of the US to the western border of India, and from Antarctica to the North Pole. There are few regions as culturally, socially, economically, and geo-politically diverse as the Asia-Pacific. The 36 nations that comprise the Asia-Pacific region are home to more than 50% of the world's population, three thousand different languages, several of the world's largest militaries, and five nations allied with the US through mutual defense treaties. Two of the three largest economies are located in the Asia-Pacific along with ten of the fourteen smallest. The AOR includes the most populous nation in the world, the largest democracy, and the largest Muslim-majority nation. More than one third of Asia-Pacific nations are smaller, island nations that include the smallest republic in the world and the smallest nation in Asia. USPACOM is one of six geographic Unified Combatant Commands of the United States Armed Forces. Commander, US Pacific Command (CDRUSPACOM) is the senior US military authority in the Pacific Command AOR. CDRUSPACOM reports to the President of the United States through the Secretary of Defense and is supported by four component commands: US Pacific Fleet, US Pacific Air Forces, US Army Pacific, and US Marine Forces, Pacific. These commands are headquartered in Hawai’i and have forces stationed and deployed throughout the region. US military and civilian personnel assigned to USPACOM number approximately 325,000, or about one-fifth of total US military strength. US Pacific Fleet includes six aircraft carrier strike groups, approximately 180 ships, 1,500 aircraft and 100,000 personnel. Marine Corps Forces, Pacific possesses about two-thirds of US Marine Corps combat strength, includes two Marine Expeditionary Forces and about 85,000 personnel assigned. US Pacific Air Forces is comprised of approximately 40,000 airmen and more than 300 aircraft, with about 100 additional aircraft deployed to Guam. US Army Pacific has more than 60,000 personnel assigned, including five Stryker brigades. Of note, component command personnel numbers include more than 1,200 Special Operations personnel. Department of Defense Civilians and Contractors in the Pacific Command AOR number about 40,000. Additionally, the US Coast Guard, which frequently supports US military forces in the region, has approximately 27,000 personnel in its Pacific Area.
United States Central Command

Mission: With national and international partners, USCENTCOM promotes cooperation among nations, responds to crises, and deters or defeats state and nonstate aggression, and supports development and, when necessary, reconstruction in order to establish the conditions for regional security, stability, and prosperity.

Located between the European and Pacific combatant commands, USCENTCOM’s AOR covers the “central” area of the globe and consists of 20 countries --Afghanistan, Bahrain, Egypt, Iran, Iraq, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kuwait, Kyrgyzstan, Lebanon, Oman, Pakistan, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, United Arab Emirates, Uzbekistan, and Yemen. There are also 62 coalition countries contributing to the war against terrorism.

United States Southern Command

Mission: Ready to conduct joint and combined full-spectrum military operations and support whole-of-government efforts to enhance regional security and cooperation.

USSOUTHCOM’s AOR includes the land mass of Latin America south of Mexico, waters adjacent to Central and South America, the Caribbean Sea, and a portion of the Atlantic Ocean. Encompassing approximately one-sixth of the land mass of the world, it includes the following 31 countries and 15 areas of special sovereignty. The Command’s headquarters is located in Miami, FL. Its component commands are the US Army South, US Air Forces South, US Marine Forces South, US Navy South, Joint Interagency Task Force-East (JIATF-E), the Joint Southern Surveillance Reconnaissance Operations Center, and JTF Bravo. USSOUTHCOM also has a subunified command, Special Operations Command South. Interagency operations and activities form an important part of USSOUTHCOM’s mission, including exercises with host nations, information sharing, and efforts to halt the flow of illegal drugs both at the source of production and in the transit zone. JIATF-E is responsible for conducting detection, monitoring, and handoff to appropriate law enforcement agencies of suspected drug trafficking events and coordinating support to counterdrug efforts in the region. Some examples of the successful counterdrug activities include; Operations CENTRAL SKIES and CAPER FOCUS in which coordinated efforts by DOD assets, US Coast Guard, US Customs, Drug Enforcement Administration assets, and host nation forces resulted in significant disruption of illegal drug movements in the eastern Pacific, Caribbean, and Central America transit zone regions.

United States Northern Command

Mission: USNORTHCOM partners to conduct Homeland Defense and Civil Support operations within the assigned area of responsibility to defend, protect, and secure the United States and its interests.
USNORTHCOM’s AOR is America’s homefront. USNORTHCOM partners to conduct homeland defense, civil support and security cooperation to defend and secure the United States and its interests. USNORTHCOM’s AOR includes air, land and sea approaches and encompasses the continental United States, Alaska, Canada, Mexico and the surrounding water out to approximately 500 nautical miles. It also includes the Gulf of Mexico, the Straits of Florida, portions of the Caribbean region to include The Bahamas, Puerto Rico, and the US Virgin Islands. The commander of USNORTHCOM is responsible for theater security cooperation with Canada, Mexico, and The Bahamas. USNORTHCOM consolidates under a single unified command existing missions that were previously executed by other DOD organizations. This provides unity of command, which is critical to mission accomplishment. USNORTHCOM plans, organizes and executes homeland defense and civil support missions, but has few permanently assigned forces. The command is assigned forces whenever necessary to execute missions, as ordered by the president or secretary of defense. Civil service employees and uniformed members representing all service branches work at USNORTHCOM’s headquarters located at Peterson Air Force Base in Colorado Springs, CO. The commander of USNORTHCOM also commands the North American Aerospace Defense Command (NORAD), a bi-national command responsible for aerospace warning, aerospace control, and maritime warning for Canada, Alaska and the continental United States. USNORTHCOM’s civil support mission includes domestic disaster relief operations that occur during fires, hurricanes, floods and earthquakes. Support also includes counter-drug operations and managing the consequences of a terrorist event employing a weapon of mass destruction. The command provides assistance to a Primary Agency when tasked by DOD. In providing civil support, USNORTHCOM generally operates through established JTFs subordinate to the command. An emergency must exceed the capabilities of local, state and federal agencies before USNORTHCOM becomes involved. In most cases, support will be limited, localized and specific. When the scope of the disaster is reduced to the point that the Primary Agency can again assume full control and management without military assistance, USNORTHCOM will exit, leaving the on-scene experts to finish the job.

United States Africa Command

Mission: USAFRICOM protects and defends the national security interests of the United States by strengthening the defense capabilities of African states and regional organizations and, when directed, conducts military operations, in order to deter and defeat transnational threats and to provide a security environment conducive to good governance and development.

This newest unified command allows a more integrated approach to operations in the area than existed under the outdated cold war arrangement where responsibility was divided between three combatant commands: USEUCOM, USCENTCOM, and USPACOM. During its first year of operation, it was designated as a sub-unified command under European Command.
**United States Special Operations Command**

The Commander of USSOCOM has over 46,000 active and reserve special operations forces (SOF) personnel organized into four component commands and one subordinate command: Air Force Special Operations Command (AFSOC), US Army Special Operations Command (USASOC), Naval Special Warfare Command (NAVSPECWARCOM), Marine Corps Special Operations Command and Joint Special Operations Command (JSOC).

**Mission:** Provide fully capable SOF to defend the United States and its interests. Synchronize planning of global operations against terrorist networks.

To fulfill its global mission, USSOCOM provides full spectrum SOF that are ready and capable of successfully conducting global special operations throughout the tactical and strategic operational continuum in support of the President and Secretary of Defense, geographic Unified Combatant Commanders, US Ambassadors, and other government agencies. In support of the national military strategy, SOF currently organize and train with three area priorities: Deter, Disrupt, and Defeat Terrorist Threats, Develop and Support People and Families, and Sustain and Modernize the Force.

The Nunn-Cohen Amendment created USSOCOM in 1987 and gave the USSOC Commander the authority to direct and control the majority of the fiscal resources necessary to pay, train, equip, and deploy SOF through the establishment of a separate major force program. The USSOC Commander can also exercise authority to function as a head of agency to develop and acquire SOF-peculiar equipment, materiel, supplies, and services. USSOCOM's mission effectiveness requires the support of the Services to provide quality personnel, common equipment, base operations support, logistical sustainment, and core skills training. This support allows the USSOC Commander to focus on providing a trained and ready SOF and to exercise command of selected special operations missions as directed by the President and Secretary of Defense.

**United States Strategic Command**

**Mission:** To conduct global operations in coordination with other Combatant Commands, Services, and appropriate U.S. Government agencies to deter and detect strategic attacks against the U.S., its allies, and partners and is prepared to defend the Nation as directed.

As part of the ongoing initiative to transform the US military into a twenty-first century fighting force, the DOD merged US Space Command into USSTRATCOM on 1 October 2002. The merger improved combat effectiveness and sped up information collection and assessment needed for strategic decision making. The merged command is responsible for both early warning of and defense against missile attack as well as long-range strategic attacks.
The commander, USSTRATCOM, serves as the senior commander of unified military forces from all four branches of the military assigned to the command. The commander of USSTRATCOM is the leader, steward, and advocate of the nation’s strategic capabilities. The command has worldwide functional responsibilities not bound by any single area of operations. The command’s scope of responsibilities includes the interrelated areas of space operations, information operations, computer network operations, and strategic defense and attack. Tying these areas together is a globally focused command and control, communications and intelligence, surveillance, and reconnaissance network (C3ISR). Associated responsibilities include the following:

- Deterring conflict by posturing forces to conduct operations in response to the threat of a major military attack on the United States.
- Employing forces as directed by the DoD and the President.
- Coordinating directly with other combatant commanders and supporting other commanders with assigned forces as directed by the DoD and the President.
- Conducting integrated strategic operational planning.
- Conducting worldwide strategic reconnaissance when appropriate.
- Coordinating with service component commanders and supporting combatant commanders on issues relating to the organizing, training, equipping and support of forces for USSTRATCOM missions.
- Providing a voice on all matters related to strategic policies, force structure, and modernization, as well as implications of arms control initiatives on that structure.

USSTRATCOM exercises combatant command and control of various task forces and service components that support the command’s mission. During daily operations, service component commanders retain primary responsibility for maintaining the readiness of USSTRATCOM forces and performing their assigned functions. USCYBERCOM is a subunified command under USSTRATCOM.

**United States Transportation Command**

**Mission:** Develop and direct the Joint Deployment and Distribution Enterprise to globally project strategic national security capabilities; accurately sense the operating environment; provide end-to-end distribution process visibility; and responsive support of joint, US government and Secretary of Defense-approved multinational and non-governmental logistical requirements.

As America’s single defense transportation system manager responsible for coordinating strategic transportation assets and personnel necessary to project and sustain US forces. USTRANSCOM supports worldwide military operations across the spectrum of conflict from exercises to humanitarian assistance, peacekeeping, to deterrence, and combat operations.
Today’s national military strategy increases our reliance on our ability to project our forces when and where needed. Strategic mobility is the instrument that allows the United States to play upon the world stage at whatever level is chosen by our national leadership. With fewer and fewer US forces permanently stationed overseas, we must increase our capability to project military power abroad. When coupled with our overseas presence, credible power projection serves as a deterrent to potential adversaries, and gives national leaders additional time and increased flexibility when responding to a crisis. Our ability to rapidly project power worldwide depends on increased airlift capability, additional prepositioning of heavy equipment afloat and ashore, increased surge sealift capacity, and improved readiness and responsiveness of the Ready Reserve Force. Although many changes have occurred, the requirement remains for an integrated, balanced force of air, land, and sea assets.

**Conclusion**

The Unified Combatant Commanders ensure that US military forces actively shape the international environment and respond as needed across the full spectrum of crises. These commanders conduct operations around the world, from peace enforcement operations in Bosnia, to humanitarian relief operations throughout Africa, from counterdrug operations in Latin America and the Caribbean, to combat operations in the Middle East to counter terrorism operations worldwide. Finally, the Unified Combatant Commanders—both geographical and functional—remain fully prepared to conduct, support, and prevail in major theater warfare in the event that deterrence does not succeed. Working as a team with the geographic commands, the functional commands provide essential support for virtually all of these operations.

**Bibliography:**

Cognitive Lesson Objective:
• Apply Tongue & Quill (T&Q) guidance to develop and deliver a professional military briefing.

Cognitive Samples of Behavior:
• Develop a military briefing using the Seven Steps to Effective Communication.
• Practice techniques to overcome anxiety in speaking.
• Describe the differences between Impromptu, Prepared (formerly Extemporaneous), and Manuscript briefings.
• Develop slides for your briefings that include the following basic slides: Title/Name slide, Overview slide, slides for Main Points, and Summary slide.
• Demonstrate the following elements for a successful briefing: content (introduction, body, conclusion), verbal expression, movement, gestures, eye contact, organization, transitions, personal appearance, and use of visual aids (e.g., slides).

Affective Lesson Objective:
• Respond to the importance of developing and delivering a professional military briefing.

Affective Samples of Behavior:
• Actively participate in class discussion.
• Refer to the T&Q for guidance when preparing any type of Air Force communication, including military briefings.
BASICS OF BRIEFING

Why study speech, or more specifically, the military briefing? Why attempt to improve your oral communication skills? If for no other reason, speech is important because we use speech more than any other medium of communication, except for listening. About 80 percent of language activity takes the form of speaking and listening. The fact that children may speak 30,000 words a day before they can write half a dozen words dramatizes a condition that prevails throughout most of life. The world is, for most people, a speaking and listening world.

Most people agree—preparing a military briefing is time-consuming but relatively easy, as compared to actually giving a military briefing. However, no matter how well prepared or interesting your material is, you can’t be a successful briefer unless you can convey the message to your audience. The outcome of your presentation rests squarely on your delivery—making your verbals and nonverbals complement each other, rather than work against each other. An effective briefing must always be delivered with an “urge to communicate,” with directness and vigor. In an Air Force briefing, the emphasis is on a direct, conversational style of speaking rather than an artificial, oratorical style. Think of your delivery as “amplified conversation” spiced with military respect and bearing instead of “public speaking,” and you should find it easier to face your audience.

HOW TO GIVE A WINNING MILITARY BRIEFING

Dr. John A. Kline

Commanders say that one of the most important skills officers need is the ability to brief effectively. The good news is that any officer can become an outstanding briefer. The disturbing news is that many never do. Here is what you need to know to be able to give winning briefings—the kind that communicate and get desired results.

Before preparing a military briefing, you need a clear objective or idea of just what you expect the listeners to think, feel, or do after hearing your briefing. Next, you must decide if you are giving a briefing to inform or one that seeks to persuade or advocate. Finally, you must commit to adhere to the ABCs of briefing—accuracy, brevity, and clarity. Now, you are ready to begin.

There are three things to know about preparing and presenting a military briefing. The acronym OSD (which also stands for Office of the Secretary of Defense) will help you remember them. They are Organization, Support, and Delivery.
Organization

**Beginning.** Here is where you tell them what you are going to tell them. Military briefings have a standard beginning. For example, if I were briefing you on how to give a military briefing here is how I would begin: “Good Morning, I am Dr. John Kine. Today I will brief you on ‘How to Give a Military Briefing.’ More specifically we will look at three things--how to organize, how to support, and how to deliver a briefing.”

**Body.** Here is where you tell them. Main points in briefings are most often organized according to one of the standard patterns of organization: chronological, spatial, cause/effect, problem/solution, pro/con, and topical. The bottom line of effectively organizing a briefing is to organize logically so that it helps you present the information and, above all, helps your audience listen and retain it.

**Ending.** Here, you tell them what you told them. I would end this way: “Sir/Ma’am, today I briefed on how to give a briefing. We looked at three things--how to organize, how to support, and how to deliver a briefing. Sir/Ma’am, this concludes my briefing. Are there any questions?”

Support

**Verbal Support.** Since a briefing is by definition, brief, support is generally limited to factual data carefully selected to accomplish the “need to know.” Still each of the standard types of verbal support is important. Definitions are often needed to explain new or unfamiliar terms or acronyms. Examples provide specific or concrete instances that help clarify general or abstract ideas. Comparisons and contrasts between the familiar and unfamiliar help audiences grasp new ideas more readily. Statistics and Testimony or quotations from expert and trustworthy sources help to prove the points you are making.

**Visual Support.** Somebody once said, “A picture is worth a thousand words.” Visual aids can dramatize, amplify, or clarify the points you are trying to get across to your audience. Most often you will use Power Point with your briefings. But whatever visual support you use, keep a few things in mind. Make it relevant, simple, and large enough to be seen by your audience. And don’t let it draw either your attention or the attention of the audience away from what you are saying.

Delivery

Although preparing the briefing can be laborious, delivery is the most difficult part for most people. But it doesn’t need to be. If you know your subject and have prepared well, then presenting briefings can be an exhilarating experience. The secret is to be well organized, have the right supporting information, and then practice-practice.
**Method.** Most of your briefings will be delivered extemporaneously--p. 122 in the T&Q refers to this as a prepared briefing. You will plan them idea-by-idea rather than word-by-word. Then you will just carry a brief outline or a few notes to the lectern when you speak. This method requires you to prepare carefully, yet it will enable you to adjust to your audience and sound more spontaneous and conversational.

**Eye Contact.** You will want to look directly at people, clearly including all listeners. Effective eye contact will keep the audience’s interest, allow you to adjust to nonverbal feedback, and make you appear more credible to your listeners.

**Body Movement.** You will find yourself in a variety of situations (room types, equipment availability, etc.) that you’ll need to adapt your body movements. Oftentimes, military briefings are presented from behind the podium. Be careful not to lean on the lectern, sway, rock, or move out of the range of a microphone if there is one. Use body movement to compliment your briefings; therefore, avoid movements that distract your audience from your message.

**Gestures.** Use them. The hands, arms, shoulders, head, and face can reinforce what you are saying. Although gestures can be perfected with practice, they will be most effective if you make a conscious effort to have them appear natural and spontaneous rather than planned.

**Voice.** Three vocal characteristics are important. First is quality. Although you should strive to be pleasing to listen to and attempt to use your voice to its best advantage, rest easy in knowing that some of the very finest briefers anywhere have only average voices. Second is understandability. Your audience must be able to understand you. Give special attention to articulation—how you form sounds, pronunciation—how you say words, and avoidance of stock expressions such as “okay,” vocalized pauses such as “uh,” “um,” or “and uh,” and, above all, poor grammar. The third characteristic is variety. Effective briefers vary the rate, volume, force, pitch, and emphasis.

**Transitions.** One mark of a winning briefing is how well the parts are tied together. Effective transitions aid listening, provide a logical flow, and add a professional touch. In written documents such as the one you are reading now, bold print or space between sections lets you know that I am transitioning from one point to another. Briefers do the same thing with the words they use and the way they say them. For example, suppose I was briefing and wanted to transition from the first point, “Organization” to the second point, “Support.” I might say, “Not only is it important to organize our points effectively, it is also important that we choose the right kind of information to support the points we are making.” Notice how I led you from one point to another. Attention should be given toward supplying transitions between the beginning and the body, the body and the ending, between main points, from main points to sub points and even between sub points. Effective transitions help your listeners to follow your trail of ideas while adding polish and professionalism to your briefing.
Conclusion

Military briefings are commonly used in the Air Force to share information, promote positive behaviors, and accomplish the mission. Because we hear so much information through briefings, your audiences will appreciate the time and attention you commit to give a professional presentation. During training, you saw many briefings. During this course, you'll have opportunities to practice briefing techniques. Whenever someone does a great job in delivering a briefing, try to analyze the techniques that he/she used to be successful. Military briefings is a skill; you'll get better with practice!

Bibliography:
Cognitive Lesson Objective:
• Know the basic mission and organization of the Department of the Army.

Cognitive Samples of Behavior:
• State the Army mission.
• List the major components of the Department of the Army.
• Know the definition of landpower.
• List the strategic roles of the Army.

Affective Lesson Objective:
• Respond to the importance of the US Army’s role in the national security process and develop an appreciation for the other services within our military.

Affective Sample of Behavior:
• Voluntarily participate in classroom discussions.
Our Service

During the first year of the American Revolution, on 14 June 1775, the Second Continental Congress established “the American Continental Army.” The United States Army is the senior Service of the Armed Forces. As one of the oldest American institutions, it predates the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution. For almost two and a half centuries, Army forces have protected the Nation. The Army flag is adorned with over 180 campaign and battle streamers, each one signifying great sacrifices on behalf of the Nation. Because of the Army, the United States is an independent and undivided nation. The Army explored the Louisiana Purchase, ended slavery on the battlefields of the Civil War, helped build the Panama Canal, played a major part in winning two world wars, stood watch throughout the Cold War, deposed Saddam Hussein, and took the fight to Al Qaeda.

No major conflict has ever been won without boots on the ground. Strategic change rarely stems from a single, rapid strike, and swift and victorious campaigns have been the exception in history. Often conflicts last months or years and become something quite different from the original plan. Campaigns require steady pressure exerted by US military forces and those of partner nations, while working closely with civilian agencies. Soldiers not only seize, occupy, and defend land areas, they can also remain in the region until they secure the Nation’s long-term strategic objectives. Indeed, inserting ground troops is the most tangible and durable measure of America’s commitment to defend American interests, signaling the Nation’s intent to protect friends and deny aggression.

US forces operate in the air, land, maritime, space, and cyberspace domains. The land domain is the most complex of the domains, because it addresses humanity—its cultures, ethnicities, religions, and politics. War begins and ends based upon how it affects the land domain. The Army provides the United States with the landpower to prevent, shape, and win conflicts in the land domain. US law, Department of Defense directives, and the nature of landpower mold the Army’s mission.

Mission

The Army derives their mission from the intent of Congress and through the laws governing the Armed Forces. The Constitution of the United States gives Congress the authority to determine the size and organization of the Army, and gives the President overall command of the Armed Forces. Title 10, United States Code (USC), regulates the Armed Forces and states that the Army includes land combat and service forces, and such aviation and water transport as may be organic therein. Title 10 also states that Army forces are to be organized, trained, and equipped primarily for prompt and sustained combat incident
to operations on land. “Prompt” requires the Army to be able to provide combat-ready forces immediately; “sustained” requires the Army to maintain forces in the fight until the President says otherwise.

The Army mission is refined based on Department of Defense Directive 5100.01. This directive assigns specific responsibilities to the Armed Forces. In common with all of the Services, the Army provides “conventional, strategic, and special operations forces to conduct the range of operations as defined by the President and the Secretary of Defense.” Yet, unique to the Army is the responsibility of preparing the land forces necessary to effectively prosecute war except as otherwise assigned. It is also responsible, in accordance with integrated joint mobilization plans, for its expansion to meet the needs of war. Based on Title 10, USC, and Department of Defense Directive 5100.01, the Army’s mission becomes:

The mission of the United States Army is to fight and win the Nation’s wars through prompt and sustained land combat, as part of the joint force.

This mission is accomplished by—

- Organizing, equipping, and training Army forces for prompt and sustained combat incident to operations on land;
- Integrating our capabilities with those of the other Armed Services;
- Accomplishing all missions assigned by the President, Secretary of Defense, and combatant commanders;
- Remaining ready while preparing for the future.

### ORGANIZATION OF THE US ARMY

#### Components

The Army, as one of the three military departments (Army, Navy, and Air Force) reporting to the Department of Defense, is composed of two distinct and equally important components: the active component, which is the Regular Army, and the reserve component, which is made up of the United States Army Reserve and the Army National Guard.

**Active Component.** The Regular Army is a federal force consisting of full-time Soldiers and Army civilians. Both are assigned to the operational and institutional organizations engaged in the day-to-day Army missions. Congress annually determines the number of Soldiers the Army can maintain in the Regular Army.
Reserve Component. The Army Reserve is the Army’s primary federal reserve force. It is a complementary force consisting of highly trained Soldiers and units able to perform a vast range of missions worldwide. Their primary role is to provide the specialized units, capabilities, and resources needed to deploy and sustain Army forces at home and overseas. The Army Reserve is also the Army’s major source of trained individual Soldiers for augmenting headquarters staffs and filling vacancies in Regular Army units. The Army Reserve provides a wide range of specialized skills required for consequence management, foreign army training, and stability and reconstruction operations. Many of its Soldiers are civilian professionals. The Army National Guard has a dual mission that includes federal and state roles. In its federal role, the National Guard provides trained units able to mobilize quickly for war, national emergencies, and other missions. In its state role, it prepares for domestic emergencies and other missions as required by state law. National Guard Soldiers serve as the first military responders within states during emergencies. National Guard units are commanded by their state executive (usually the governor) unless they are mobilized for a federal mission. Members of the National Guard exemplify the state militia traditions of citizens answering the call to duty. Their selfless service reflects America’s values and inspires others to the noble calling that serves freedom.

Missions

Regardless of component, the Army conducts both operational and institutional missions. Soldiers and Army civilians serve in two functionally discrete entities known as the institutional Army and the operational Army.

Institutional Army. The institutional Army supports the operational Army. Institutional organizations provide the infrastructure necessary to raise, train, equip, deploy, and ensure the readiness of all Army forces. The training base provides military skills and professional education to every Soldier—as well as members of sister services and allied forces. It also allows the Army to expand rapidly in times of war. The industrial base provides world-class equipment and logistics for the Army. Army installations provide the power-projection platforms required to deploy land forces promptly to support combatant commanders. Once those forces are deployed, the institutional Army provides the logistics needed to support them.

Without the institutional Army, the operational Army cannot function. Without the operational Army, the institutional Army has no purpose.

Operational Army. The operational Army consists of numbered armies, corps, divisions, brigades, and battalions that conduct full spectrum operations around the world.

• Numbered Armies (Field Army). The Field Army is the largest formation of land forces, usually consisting of two or more corps with supporting arms and services.
• **Corps. 20,000 To 40,000 Soldiers.** The Corps is the deployable level of command required to synchronize and sustain combat operations. It also provides the framework for multinational operations. The Corps provides command, control, and logistical support of two to five divisions. The Corps is commanded by a Lieutenant General (O-9) who is assisted by a Command Sergeant Major (E-9) and an extensive staff.

• **Division. 10,000 To 16,000 Soldiers.** The Division performs major tactical operations and can conduct sustained battles and engagements. Divisions are numbered (e.g., 1st Armored Division, 82nd Airborne Division) and are categorized by one of five types: Light Infantry, Mechanized Infantry, Armor, Airborne, or Air Assault. The Division is commanded by a Major General (O-8) who is assisted by two principal Brigadier Generals (O-7) who perform duties as Assistant Division Commanders – one for Maneuver and one for Support. The Command Sergeant Major (E-9) is the principal non-commissioned officer assistant. Divisions are comprised of three tactical maneuver (Infantry and/or Armor) Brigades and a Division base of combat support and combat service support elements.

• **Brigade/Group/Regiment. 1,500 To 3,200 Soldiers.** A brigade is a significantly large unit that can be employed on independent or semi-independent operations. The Brigade is normally commanded by a Colonel (O-6) although in some cases a Brigadier General (O-7) may assume command. The Command Sergeant Major (E-9) is the principal non-commissioned officer assistant. During combat operations, Infantry, Armor, and Cavalry Brigades normally have a field artillery battalion, engineer battalion, and combat service support branches (e.g., Engineer Brigade, Signal Brigade). Armored Cavalry units of this size are referred to as Regiments (e.g., 3rd Armored Cavalry Regiment). Ranger and Special Forces units of this size are referred to as Groups.

• **Battalion. 300 To 1,000 Soldiers.** The Battalion is a unit that is both tactically and administratively self-sufficient. In war fighting, Battalions are capable of independent operations of limited duration and scope. The Battalion is typically composed of four to six companies, and is commanded by a Lieutenant Colonel (O-5) with a Command Sergeant Major (E-9) as the primary non-commissioned officer assistant. The Commander has a Battalion Staff of officers and non-commissioned officers to oversee missions, training, administration, and logistics. A Battalion Task-Force is a Battalion-size unit with additional companies attached in direct support to enhance mission capability. An armored or air cavalry unit of equivalent size is referred to as a squadron.

• **Company/Troop/Battery. 60 To 200 Soldiers.** The Company is a cohesive tactical sized unit that can perform a battlefield function on its own. It is capable of receiving and controlling additional combat, combat support or combat service support elements to enhance its mission capability. The Company has a small headquarters element to assist the Commander. Typically, three to five platoons form a Company, with between 15-25 vehicles. The Company is normally
commanded by a Captain (O-3). A First Sergeant (E-8) is the commander’s principal non-commissioned officer assistant. Depending on the type of unit, a Company may be called a Troop or Battery. Ground or Air Cavalry units (armor and aviation units specifically trained for reconnaissance missions) refer to these elements as Troops. Field Artillery and Air Defense Artillery units refer to these elements as Batteries.

- **Platoon. 16 To 44 Soldiers.** The Platoon is the basic combat unit capable of maneuvering in the conduct of combat operations and is led by a Lieutenant (O-1/O-2) who is assisted by a Platoon Sergeant who is a Sergeant First Class (E-7). A platoon consists of two to four squads/sections depending on the type of unit.

- **Squad. Eight To 16 Soldiers.** Typically led by a Sergeant (E-5) or Staff Sergeant (E-6), the squad is the smallest element in the Army organizational structure. Its size is dependent on its function. In some units, two squads may compose a section led by a Staff Sergeant. In a light infantry (non-mechanized) squad, there are normally nine soldiers and a squad leader. In a mechanized infantry squad, there are up to 15 soldiers, organized into two teams. Each team is assigned to a tactical vehicle.

**LANDPOWER FOR THE NATION**

The Army gives the United States landpower. According to the US Army Doctrine Publication 3-0, **landpower is the ability**—by threat, force, or occupation—to gain, sustain, and exploit control over land, resources, and people.

Landpower includes the ability to—

- Impose the Nation’s will on an enemy, by force if necessary.
- Engage to influence, shape, prevent, and deter in any operational environment.
- Establish and maintain a stable environment that sets the conditions for political and economic development.
- Address the consequences of catastrophic events—both natural and man-made—to restore infrastructure and reestablish basic civil services.
- Secure and support bases from which joint forces can influence and dominate the air, land, and maritime domains of an operational environment.
The Land Domain

The distinguishing characteristic of the land domain is the presence of humans in large numbers. Humans live on the land and affect almost every aspect of land operations. Soldiers operate among populations, not adjacent to them or above them. They accomplish missions face-to-face with people, in the midst of environmental, societal, religious, and political tumult. Winning battles and engagements is important but alone is usually insufficient to produce lasting change in the conditions that spawned conflict. The Army's effectiveness depends just as much on their ability to manage populations and civilian authorities as it does on technical competence and employing equipment. Managing populations before, during, and after all phases of the campaign normally determines its success or failure. Soldiers often cooperate, shape, influence, assist, and coerce according to the situation, varying their actions to make permanent the otherwise temporary gains achieved through combat.

The influence Soldiers exert before and after campaigns—shaping—is more important than ever. Shaping is best understood as altering conditions that, if left unchanged, can precipitate international crisis or war. Geographic combatant commanders shape their regions through many cooperative actions with partner nations.

The equipment, training, and financial assistance the United States provides to partner nations improve their abilities to secure themselves. This assistance often improves access to key regions. Security cooperation also communicates our position to potential adversaries in that region. If necessary, combat-ready Army units can deploy to threatened areas, reinforcing host-nation forces, complementing American air and sea power, and communicating unmistakable American intent to partner and adversary alike. These are the tangible effects of the Army's role in security cooperation and assistance. Other benefits are less tangible, and are developed through face-to-face training involving our Soldiers and those of our partners. Working together develops trust between military partners. The impression we make upon multinational forces, local leaders, and other government agencies can produce lasting benefits.

Land Operations

Land combat against an armed adversary is an intense, lethal human activity. Its conditions include complexity, chaos, fear, violence, fatigue, and uncertainty. The battlefield often teems with noncombatants and is crowded with infrastructure. In any conflict, Soldiers potentially face regular, irregular, or paramilitary enemy forces that possess advanced weapons and rapidly communicate using cellular devices. Our enemies will employ terror, criminal activity, and every means of messaging to further complicate our tasks. To an ever-increasing degree, activities in cyberspace and the information environment are inseparable from ground operations. Successful land combat requires protected friendly networks (wired and wireless) while exploiting or degrading the enemy’s networks. The information environment, our use of it, and inform and influence activities continues to
increase. Because the land environment is so complex, the potential for unintended consequences remains quite high. In the end, it is not the quality of weapons, but the quality of Soldiers employing them that determines mission success.

Any mission can rapidly become a combination of combat, governance, and civil security. Most of the Army missions require combinations of lethal and nonlethal actions. This is inherent in the nature of land operations, usually conducted in the midst of noncombatants. When called upon, Soldiers accomplish nonlethal missions such as disaster relief and humanitarian assistance quickly and effectively. Regardless, their combat capability often underwrites their ability to provide assistance. Nobody in or outside the military profession should mistake the Army for anything other than a force organized, equipped, and trained for winning the Nation’s wars.

**Unified Land Operations** is the title of the Army’s basic operational doctrine, ADP 3-0. It emphasizes the necessity of synchronizing our capabilities with the other Services (joint), other government agencies (interagency), other international government partners (intergovernmental), and military forces from partner nations (multinational). The basic premise of unified land operations is that Army forces combine offensive tasks, defensive tasks, stability tasks, and defense support of civil authorities (DSCA) in concert with joint, interagency, intergovernmental, and multinational partners. Army operations conducted overseas combine offensive, defensive, and stability tasks. Within the United States, the Army supports civil authorities through DSCA. If hostile powers threaten the homeland, the Army combines defensive and offensive tasks with DSCA. The effort accorded to each task is proportional to the mission and varies with the situation. These combinations are labeled as decisive action because of their necessity in any campaign.

Civilian agencies of the United States Government are indispensable partners with landpower. These agencies operate on land and depend on landpower to create secure conditions in regions of conflict. Secure land areas allow them to work directly with local leaders to address the causes of conflict. The enemy often perceives the Army’s constructive actions in concert with these agencies as a significant threat, since we help isolate the enemy from popular support. In turn, the Army needs civilian agencies to provide expertise and resources needed to reconstruct facilities within war-torn regions and relieve Soldiers of the responsibility of administering to noncombatants.
STRATEGIC ROLES OF THE ARMY

The Army Vision states that, “The Army is globally engaged and regionally responsive; it is an indispensable partner and provider of a full range of capabilities to Combatant Commanders in a Joint, Interagency, Intergovernmental, and Multi-national (JIIM) environment. As part of the Joint Force and as America’s Army, in all that we offer, we guarantee the agility, versatility and depth to Prevent, Shape, and Win.”

The Army Vision captures the three strategic roles of the Army: prevent, shape, and win. Their roles are derived from the National Military Strategy and Department of Defense directives, and they clarify the enduring reasons for which the Army is manned, trained, and equipped.

**Prevent.** First, the Army must prevent conflict. Prevention requires a credible force. Friends and adversaries must believe that the Army is credible in order to prevent conflicts. Credibility equates to capability and is built upon combat-ready forces that can be tailored and deployed rapidly. Credible Army forces convince potential opponents that, committed as part of our joint force, the US Army is unbeatable. Partner nations under external threat need to understand that introducing US forces alters the regional military balance in their favor and bolsters their resolve to resist aggression.

Credible Army forces also reduce the risk of miscalculation by an adversary. The United States cannot depend upon our military reputation alone to dissuade adversaries. Our enemies must understand what we can do today and tomorrow, in a way that leaves no room for miscalculation. To convince any potential adversary, all military services need rigorous and realistic training, expert leaders, modern equipment, and quality personnel. Given that, the Army’s landpower becomes more than credible; combined with the Nation’s air, sea, and space-based power, it becomes preeminent.

**Shape.** Second, the Army must help shape the international environment to enable our coalition partners and contain our enemies. The Army accomplishes that by engaging with partners, fostering mutual understanding through military-to-military contacts, and helping partners build the capacity to defend themselves. Shaping the strategic security environment improves the chance for peace around the world. It diminishes regional tensions and is therefore vital to American security interests. Each geographic combatant commander develops programs to improve regional stability and promote peace through security cooperation. American military capabilities can reassure allies, while dissuading adversaries. Shaping by itself cannot prevent conflict, but it nudges global regions away from military confrontation and increases the effect of diplomatic, informational, and economic instruments of national power.

Soldiers are particularly important in this effort, since all nations have land security elements, even if lacking credible air and naval forces. To the degree that other nations see the US as the best army in the world, they gravitate to us to help them achieve the same high standards of military performance, or tie their security to the world’s most capable army. Soldiers deploy around the world to train with security forces of other
nations. Army special operations forces carry out a significant part of this effort; however, conventional units frequently train with foreign counterparts. Concurrently, Army Soldiers and Civilians train foreign military personnel at Army bases. This unobtrusive use of landpower quietly builds multinational partnerships that may be critical in war. It increases our partners’ capacities to provide for their own defense and is vital to ensuring we have access to regional bases should Army forces have to deploy to their region.

Win. Finally, the Army must be ready to win, and win decisively; to be able to attack and defend successfully against enemy ground forces. Joint force commanders require Army units that can destroy an enemy with all types of combat power. Land combat remains chaotic, lethal, and intensely human. The ability to prevail in ground combat becomes a decisive factor in breaking the enemy’s will. If the enemy cannot be defeated from a distance using Army and joint capabilities, then Soldiers close with and destroy the enemy—room to room, face to face. This requires skilled use of combined arms, the ability to fight using all available combat power in complementary ways. Combined arms multiply the effectiveness of Army units exponentially. If Army units cannot find, fix, close with, and destroy armed opponents in any terrain; exploit success; shatter opponents’ coherence; and break the enemy’s will to continue the fight, then neither the Army, nor the joint force, will be decisive. But lethality, by itself, is not enough. If Army forces do not address the requirements of noncombatants in the joint operational area before, during, and after battle, then the tactical victories achieved by firepower only lead to strategic failure and world condemnation.

For the Army, winning is especially important because historically, they commit the greatest number of personnel to the combat area and suffer the highest casualties. With so much at stake, the American people expect commanders to advise political leaders candidly on the military implications of any potential conflict beforehand. If US forces fight, the Nation expects our military to inflict a defeat of sufficient magnitude that will cause the enemy to abandon his objectives and agree to peace on our terms. In other words, Americans expect the Army to dominate and win decisively.

Conclusion

Prevent, shape, and win summarizes the Army’s roles as part of the joint force. Their roles depend upon their capabilities, depth, experience, and professionalism. Preventing and shaping are not episodic. The Army fulfills these roles continuously, based upon the requirements of combatant commanders. When the Army is committed, winning is their non-negotiable obligation to the Nation. As the Army adapts to future strategic challenges, they continue to be the force of decisive action.
Bibliography:
Cognitive Lesson Objective:
• Know the basic mission and organization of the Department of the Navy.

Cognitive Samples of Behavior:
• State the Navy’s mission.
• Know the principal components of the Department of the Navy.
• State the aspects of naval doctrine.

Affective Lesson Objective:
• Respond to the role played by the US Navy in US power projection.

Affective Sample of Behavior:
• Read the assigned student text.
For centuries, sea power has played a vital role in determining and supporting national strategies. We have progressed from sail to steam to nuclear power; from guns to missiles; from biplanes to supersonic aircraft to the space age. Still, sea power remains a fundamental factor in world strategy. Because of its great dependence on overseas sources for raw materials and because of its overseas allies, the United States must maintain naval forces capable of controlling the sea lines of communication and projecting its sea power across the oceans.

US national security cannot be assured without a balance of maritime superiority in favor of the United States and its allies. The United States Navy is the principle force to achieve and maintain the maritime superiority this nation requires.

**MISSION AND ORGANIZATION OF THE US NAVY**

The U.S. Navy was founded on 13 October 1775, and the Department of the Navy was established on 30 April 1798. The Department of the Navy has three principal components: The Navy Department, the operating forces, including the Marine Corps, the reserve components, and, in time of war, the U.S. Coast Guard (in peace, a component of the Department of Homeland Security); and the shore establishment.

**Mission**

The mission of the Navy is to maintain, train and equip combat-ready Naval forces capable of winning wars, deterring aggression, and maintaining freedom of the seas.

**Navy Department**

The Navy Department consists of executive offices mostly located in Washington, D.C.. Some of the offices include the Secretary of the Navy, Chief of Naval Operations, Naval Inspector General, and the Judge Advocate General of the Navy.

- **The Secretary of the Navy (SECNAV)**
  SECNAV is responsible for, and has the authority under Title 10 of the United States Code, to conduct all the affairs of the Department of the Navy, including recruiting, organizing, supplying, equipping, training, mobilizing, and demobilizing. The Secretary also oversees the construction, outfitting, and repair of naval ships, equipment, and facilities.
SECNAV is responsible for the formulation and implementation of policies and programs that are consistent with the national security policies and objectives established by the President and the Secretary of Defense. The Department of the Navy consists of two uniformed Services: the United States Navy and the United States Marine Corps.

- **The Chief of Naval Operations (CNO).** The Chief of Naval Operations is the senior military officer in the Navy. The CNO is a four-star admiral and is responsible to the Secretary of the Navy for the command, utilization of resources, and operating efficiency of the operating forces of the Navy and of the Navy shore activities assigned by the Secretary.

A member of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, the CNO is the principal naval advisor to the President and to the Secretary of the Navy on the conduct of war, and is the principal advisor and naval executive to the Secretary on the conduct of naval activities of the Department of the Navy. Assistants are the Vice Chief of Naval Operations (VCNO), the Deputy Chiefs of Naval Operations (DCNOs) and a number of other ranking officers. These officers and their staffs are collectively known as the Office of the Chief of Naval Operations (OpNav).

**The Shore Establishment**

The shore establishment provides support to the operating forces (known as “the fleet”) in the form of facilities for the repair of machinery and electronics; communications centers; training areas and simulators; ship and aircraft repair; intelligence and meteorological support; storage areas for repair parts, fuel, and munitions; medical and dental facilities; and air bases.

**The Operating Forces**

The operating forces commanders and fleet commanders have a dual chain of command. Administratively, they report to the CNO and provide, train, and equip naval forces. Operationally, they provide naval forces and report to the appropriate Unified Combatant Commanders. As units of the Navy enter the area of responsibility for a particular Navy area commander, they are operationally assigned to the appropriate numbered fleet. All Navy units also have an administrative chain of command with the various ships reporting to the appropriate Type Commander. The Operating Forces include:
• US Fleet Forces Command (formerly Atlantic Fleet)—In collaboration with US Pacific Fleet, US Fleet Forces Command organizes, trains, maintains, and equips Navy forces, develops and submits budgets, and executes readiness and personnel accounts to develop both required and sustainable levels of Fleet readiness. Additionally, the command serves as the unified voice for Fleet training requirements and policies to generate combat-ready Navy forces per the Fleet Response Plan using the Fleet Training Continuum (FTC).

• The Pacific Fleet—Protects and defends the collective maritime interests of the United States and its allies and partners in the Asia-Pacific region. In support of US Pacific Command and with allies and partners, US Pacific Fleet enhances stability, promotes maritime security and freedom of the seas, deters aggression, and when necessary, fights to win.

• Military Sealift Command—Supports the United States by delivering supplies and conducting specialized missions across the world’s oceans.

• Naval Special Warfare Command—Characterized by the use of small units with unique ability to conduct military actions that are beyond the capability of conventional military forces. Mission areas include unconventional warfare, direct action, combating terrorism, special reconnaissance, foreign internal defense, information warfare, security assistance, counter-drug operations, personnel recovery and hydrographic reconnaissance. Units utilize a combination of specialized training, equipment, and tactics in completion of missions worldwide.

• US Naval Forces Europe/Africa—Area of responsibility covers approximately half of the Atlantic Ocean, from the North Pole to Antarctica; as well as the Adriatic, Baltic, Barents, Black, Caspian, Mediterranean, and North Seas. It encompasses 105 countries with a combined population of more than one billion people and includes a landmass extending more than 14 million square miles.

• Naval Network Warfare Command—Directs the operations and security of the Navy’s portion of the Global Information Grid (GIG). Delivers reliable and secure Net-centric and Space warfighting capabilities in support of strategic, operational, and tactical missions across the Navy.

• US Naval Forces Central Command—Conducts persistent maritime operations to forward US interests, deter and counter disruptive countries, defeat violent extremism and strengthen partner nations’ maritime capabilities in order to promote a secure maritime environment in the USCENTCOM area of responsibility.

• US Naval Forces Southern Command—Supports US Southern Command joint and combined full-spectrum military operations by providing a sea-based, forward presence to ensure freedom of maneuver in the maritime domain, to foster and sustain cooperative relationships with partners, and to fully exploit the sea to enhance regional security and cooperation.
• Naval Reserve Forces—Provide mission-capable units and individuals to the Navy/Marine Corps Team throughout the full range of operations from peace to war. The Navy Reserve represents 20 percent of the Navy’s total assets and is a significant force multiplier the fleet must have to meet its growing global commitments.

• Operational Test and Evaluation Forces—Conducts operational test and evaluation in a realistic operational environment and advises the Chief of Naval Operations on the operational effectiveness and suitability of new and improved warfighting systems, capabilities, tactics, and procedures.

DOCTRINE OF THE US NAVY

The art of naval warfare is to employ surface, submarine, and air forces in such a manner as to exploit the strengths and minimize the weaknesses of each. Naval Warfare doctrine serves as a guide in this endeavor. The special advantages and broad options of naval forces make them valuable to the national command authorities. Naval forces can respond to contingencies or crisis situations worldwide with the precise type and magnitude of force necessary. In achieving any objective, coordination is required between the various warfare specialties. The following paragraphs describe US Navy doctrine associated with each specialty.

Surface Warfare

Surface warfare (SUW) is the destruction or neutralization of enemy surface combatants and merchant vessels. Its aim is to deny the enemy the effective use of his surface warships and cargo carrying capability.

Surface warfare has evolved over the years but is still central to exercising sea control. Prior to World War I, enemy surface ships were sought out and engaged by other surface ships. They had numerous heavy guns that could effectively neutralize enemy shipping as well as his base support areas. With the advent of aircraft carrier warfare in World War II, the role of the surface ship changed to support fast carrier attack operations. The carrier and assigned aircraft, along with the submarine, assumed responsibilities of neutralizing enemy targets at great distances from the battle force. The Navy no longer concentrates its readiness resources to support a fixed deployment window. Instead, readiness is built and preserved throughout a Fleet unit’s operational cycle. This approach has provided a higher degree of agility and ability to generate readiness more efficiently.
Air Warfare

Air warfare involves the destruction of enemy air platforms and airborne weapons, whether launched from air, surface, subsurface, or land platforms. It comprises all the measures that are employed in achieving air superiority. The US Navy provides carrier-based, command and control (C2), and tactical aircraft; surface combatants; and land-based aircraft that are capable of integrating with the air defense (AD) systems in other services to defend those assets prescribed by the Joint Task Force (JTF) Commander.

The employment of air warfare measures must be coordinated and controlled to detect and defeat the enemy air threat. The Navy conducts a “layered” defense, in which enemy forces would be attacked in a series of engagements by different types of weapons systems. This maximizes the protection afforded to our forces, and makes it difficult for an enemy to overcome any one element of our defensive screen. Thus, while longer-range, outer-zone defenses provide a high degree of leverage to our air warfare effort; the Navy must also rely on strong local defenses in the immediate vicinity of naval task forces to protect against “leakers” that might penetrate our other defenses. As in all naval operations, the commanding officer remains responsible for the defense of his ship against attack from the air.

Undersea Warfare

Undersea Warfare (USW) is the destruction or neutralization of enemy submarines. The aim of USW warfare is to deny the enemy the effective use of submarines. USW operations include offensive and defensive anti-submarine warfare (ASW) and mine warfare (MIW) and are conducted to establish battlespace dominance in the underwater environment.

Having undersea superiority permits US and allied forces to accomplish the full range of their required missions and denies opposing forces the effective use of their underwater systems and weapons. Littorals provide challenging environment due to short detection ranges. A hostile submarine is one of the greatest threats to a surface ship. The prosecution of a submarine contact is a complex operation that involves many watch stations.

Amphibious Warfare

An amphibious operation is typically a joint service operation that is launched from the sea by an amphibious task force (ATF) embarked on Naval ships or craft. The primary purpose of the operation is to introduce a landing force (LF) ashore with sufficient air support and Naval gunfire to establish a lodgment with the assault echelon and then drive follow-on assault forces ashore to accomplish the assigned mission.

Amphibious operations can be designed for the following purposes:
• Achieving campaign objectives in one swift stroke by capitalizing on surprise and simultaneous execution of supporting operations. These operations are intended to strike directly at the enemy’s critical vulnerabilities and decisive points to defeat its operational or tactical centers of gravity.

• Serving as the initial phase of a campaign or major operation where the objective is to establish a military lodgment (beachhead) to support subsequent phases.

• Serving as supporting operations in a campaign to either fix enemy forces or deny the use of an area or facilities to the enemy in support of other combat operations.

• Supporting military operations other than war to accomplish the following: war deterrence, conflict resolution, promotion of peace and stability, and support for civil authorities in response to domestic crises.

The success of the operation depends upon the closest cooperation and detailed coordination among all participating forces. They must be trained together, and they must have a clear understanding of the mutual obligations and the special capabilities and problems of each component. The requirements in preparing for an amphibious operation tend to create problems that are more extensive than for other types of military operations.

**Mine Warfare**

Mine warfare is the use of mines and mine countermeasures to control or deny the use of sea or harbor areas through the laying of minefields and countering enemy mine warfare through the destruction or neutralization of hostile minefields. Using the not-so-glamorous, but highly effective method of mine warfare, enemy naval forces and merchant ships can be denied entry or exit from ports; passage through strategic chokepoints can be stopped or delayed; and amphibious warfare capabilities can be neutralized. Unless US naval forces maintain a highly sophisticated mine countermeasure capability, potential enemies can inflict these same limitations on American merchant and naval surface or submarine forces. Successful mine warfare operations require local air superiority and sea control to be achieved, and mine clearance is a time-consuming operation.

There are three branches of the mine warfare triad, but by combining the three branches the Navy is able to minimize the limitations and maximize the strengths of each platform.

• **Air**: MH-53E helicopters provide speed, flexibility, and mine location capability.

• **Surface**: Provides endurance, mine location, identification, and neutralization capabilities.

• **Undersea**: Provides accuracy in reacquisition and target identification/neutralization.
Strike Warfare

Strike warfare involves the destruction or neutralization of enemy targets ashore, destruction of enemy air and ground forces ashore, and interdiction of communication and transportation over a broad area via aircraft, submarines, and surface ships.

The aircraft carrier and its associated strike group continue to be the centerpiece for Navy forward presence. The Carrier Strike Group, or CSG, is composed of an aircraft carrier and its embarked air wing, surface combatants, submarines, and combat logistic ships. It operates as a contained, self-sustaining force, with little dependence on shore based support, able to operate for long periods of time in international waters and airspace.

Carrier Groups are trained and ready upon arrival in theater, and can perform the full spectrum of their warfare capabilities concurrently—from projecting power ashore, to providing missile protection to friendly forces and areas, to exercising control of the sea and airspace.

US MERCHANT MARINE

“[Mariners] have written one of its most brilliant chapters. They have delivered the goods when and where needed in every theater of operations and across every ocean in the biggest, the most difficult and dangerous job ever undertaken. As time goes on, there will be greater public understanding of our merchant’s fleet record during this war [World War II].”

President Franklin D. Roosevelt

Note: The following is excerpted from the US Merchant Marine Academy Web site

Although not part of the Department of the Navy, in time of war or national emergency, the US merchant marine becomes vital to national security as a “fourth arm of defense.” Our merchant ships bear the brunt of delivering military supplies overseas to our forces and allies. The stark lessons of twentieth century conflict prove that a strong merchant marine is an essential part of American seapower.

A glimpse at a map of the United States shows us that we are a maritime nation. To the east is the Atlantic Ocean; to the west, the Pacific; off our southern border, the Gulf of Mexico; in the north, the Great Lakes; and crisscrossing our states, great rivers like the Mississippi and other inland waterways.

Every hour of every day, ships of all types ply the waters in and around our nation. They leave our ports laden with US goods bound for foreign markets, or arrive in our harbors with merchandise and materials for American consumers.
There are tankers traveling along the west coast with raw petroleum for our refineries; Great Lakes vessels loaded with iron ore, coal or other minerals for America's industry; huge containerships in Eastern ports, their box-like containers filled with manufactured goods; general cargo ships in the Gulf unloading pallets of coffee and crates of fruit; tugboats pushing and pulling barges carrying the Midwest's grain.

These kinds of vessels, owned by US companies, registered and operated under the American flag, comprise the US merchant marine. This fleet of highly productive ships is a major part of our system of commerce, helping guarantee our access to foreign markets for sale of our manufactured goods.

The nation's economic and security needs met by the US merchant marine are compelling. Today, the United States imports approximately 85 percent of some 77 strategic commodities critical to America's industry and defense. Although we, as a nation, account for only six percent of the world population, we purchase nearly a third of the world's output of raw materials. Ninety-nine percent of these materials are transported by merchant vessels.

A ship at sea does not operate in a vacuum. It depends on a framework of shoreside activities for its operations. This industry includes companies which own and manage the vessels; ports and terminals where cargo is handled; yards for ship repair; services like marine insurance underwriters, ship chartering firms, admiralty lawyers, engineering and research companies; and increasingly today, intermodal systems of trucks and railroads to distribute goods around the country. But the most important element in a productive merchant fleet and a strong transportation industry is people—men and women who are intelligent, dedicated, well-educated, and competent. Consequently, the purpose of the US Merchant Marine Academy is to ensure that such people are available to the nation as shipboard officers and as leaders in the transportation field who will meet the challenges of the present and the future.

**Conclusion**

Every branch of the US military plays a vital part in our national security, and the Navy has a long and storied history in the annals of US History. Without its contributions the nation could not have come into existence, defeated the fascist regimes in World War II, or taken the battle to the Taliban. Although this reader was not designed to cover the history of the Navy, it is hoped that by reading about its role you will be interested enough to take your study of this sister service to the next level.
Bibliography:
Cognitive Lesson Objective:
• Know the organization and mission of the US Marine Corps.

Cognitive Samples of Behavior:
• List the missions of the Marines.
• Describe the Marines’ operational concepts of maneuver and combined arms.
• Identify the primary missions of Marine aviation.

Affective Lesson Objective:
• Respond to the important role played by the US Marine Corps in US national policy decisions.

Affective Sample of Behavior:
• Voluntarily participate in classroom discussion.
THE US MARINE CORPS

In a training environment, we stress the importance of readiness. The Marine Corps’ design and purpose embody the concept of readiness. Everything the Marines do is centered on this goal. Since the founding of the Marines in 1775, they have played a significant role in US military and diplomatic affairs. They may serve in purely “land” campaigns, but they are organized primarily as a naval expeditionary force. Perhaps former President Reagan said it best, “When trouble arises, the nation looks to her Marines.” In this lesson we’ll look at the Marines’ basic missions, structure, and operations.

A Short History of the United States Marine Corps

On 10 November 1775, the Continental Congress meeting in Philadelphia passed a resolution directing, “two battalions of Marines be raised” for service as landing forces with the fleet. This resolution, sponsored by John Adams, established the Continental Marines and marked the birth date of the United States Marine Corps. Serving on land and at sea, these first Marines distinguished themselves in a number of important operations, including their first amphibious raid into the Bahamas in March 1776, under the command of Captain (later Major) Samuel Nicholas. Nicholas, the first commissioned officer in the Continental Marines, remained the senior Marine officer throughout the American Revolution, and is considered to be the first Marine Commandant. The Treaty of Paris in April 1783 brought an end to the Revolutionary War and as the last of the Navy’s ships were sold, the Continental Navy and Marines ceased to exist.

Following the Revolutionary War and the formal reestablishment of the Marine Corps on 11 July 1798, Marines saw action in the quasi-war with France (1798-1800), landed in Santo Domingo (1800), and took part in many operations against the Barbary pirates along the “Shores of Tripoli” (1801-1815).

Marines participated in numerous naval operations during the War of 1812, participated in the defense of Washington at Bladensburg, Maryland (1814), and fought alongside Andrew Jackson in the defeat of the British at New Orleans (1815). The decades following the War of 1812 saw the Marines protecting American interests around the world, in the Caribbean (1821-1822), at the Falkland Islands (1832), Sumatra (1831-1832), and off the coast of West Africa (1820-61), and also close to home in the operations against the Seminole Indians in Florida (1836-1842).

During the Mexican War (1846-1848), Marines seized enemy seaports on both the Gulf and Pacific coasts. While landing parties of Marines and sailors were seizing enemy ports along the coast, a battalion of Marines joined General Scott’s army at Pueblo and marched and fought all the way to the “Halls of Montezuma,” Mexico City.
Marines served ashore and afloat in the Civil War (1861-1865). Although most service was with the Navy, a battalion fought at Bull Run and other units saw action with the blockading squadrons and at Cape Hatteras, New Orleans, Charleston, and Fort Fisher. The last third of the nineteenth century saw Marines making numerous landings throughout the world, especially in the Orient and in the Caribbean.

Following the Spanish-American War (1898) in which Marines performed with valor in Cuba, Puerto Rico, Guam, and the Philippines, the Corps entered an era of expansion and professional development. It saw active service in the Philippine Insurrection (1899-1902), the Boxer Rebellion in China (1900), and in numerous other nations, including Nicaragua (1899, 1909-1910, 1912-1913), Panama (1901-1902, 1903-1904), Dominican Republic (1903-1904, 1916-1924), Cuba (1906-1909, 1912, 1917), Mexico (1914), and Haiti (1915-1934).

In World War I, the Marine Corps distinguished itself on the battlefields of France as the 4th Marine Brigade earned the title “Devil Dogs” for heroic action at Belleau Wood, Soissons, St. Michiel, Blanc Mont, and in the final Meuse-Argonne offensive (1918). Marine aviation, which dates from the summer of 1912 when First Lieutenant Alfred A. Cunningham began aviation training, also played a part in the war effort, flying day bomber missions over France and Belgium. More than 30,000 Marines served in France in WWI; more than a third were killed or wounded in 6 months of intense fighting.

During the two decades before World War II, the Marine Corps began to develop in earnest the doctrine and organization needed for amphibious warfare. The success of this effort was proven first on Guadalcanal, then on Bougainville, Tarawa, New Britain, Kwajalein, Eniwetok, Saipan, Guam, Tinian, Peleliu, Iwo Jima, and Okinawa. By the end of the war in 1945, the Marine Corps had grown to include six divisions, five air wings, and supporting troops. Its strength in World War II peaked at 485,113. The war had cost the Marines nearly 87,000 dead and wounded, with 82 Marines earning the Medal of Honor.

While Marine units were taking part in the post-war occupation of Japan and North China, studies were being undertaken at Quantico, Virginia, which concentrated on attaining a “vertical envelopment” capability for the Corps through the use of helicopters. Landing at Inchon, Korea in September 1950, Marines proved that the doctrine of amphibious assault was still viable and necessary. After the recapture of Seoul, the Marines advanced to the Chosin Reservoir only to see the Chinese Communists enter the war. After years of offensives, counteroffensives, seemingly endless trench warfare and occupation duty, the last Marine ground troops were withdrawn in March 1955. More than 25,000 Marines had been killed or wounded during the Korean War.

In July 1958, a brigade-size force landed in Lebanon to restore order there. During the Cuban Missile Crisis in October 1962, a large amphibious force was marshaled, but not landed. In April 1965, a brigade of Marines landed in the Dominican Republic to protect Americans and evacuate those who wished to leave.
The landing of the 9th Marine Expeditionary Brigade at Da Nang in 1965 marked the beginning of large-scale Marine involvement in Vietnam. By summer 1968, after the enemy’s Tet Offensive, Marine Corps strength in Vietnam rose to a peak of approximately 85,000. The Marine withdrawal began in 1969 as the South Vietnamese began to assume a larger role in the fighting; the last ground forces were out of Vietnam by June 1971. The Vietnam War, the longest in the history of the Marine Corps, exacted a high cost, as well, with over 13,000 Marines killed and more than 88,000 wounded.

In July 1974, Marines aided in the evacuation of US citizens and foreign nationals during the unrest on Cyprus. The following year saw Marines evacuating embassy staffs, American citizens, and refugees in Phnom Penh, Cambodia, and Saigon, Republic of Vietnam. Later, in May 1975, Marines played an integral role in the attempted rescue of the crew of the SS *Mayaguez* captured off the coast of Cambodia.

The mid-1970s saw the Marine Corps assume an increasingly significant role in defending NATO’s northern flank, as amphibious units of the 2d Marine Division participated in exercises throughout northern Europe. The Marine Corps also played a key role in the development of the Rapid Deployment Force, a multi-service organization created to insure a flexible, timely military response around the world when needed. The Maritime Prepositioning Ships (MPS) concept was developed to enhance this capability by prestaging equipment needed for combat in the vicinity of the designated area of operations, and reducing response time as Marines travel by air to linkup with MPS assets.

The 1980s brought an increasing number of terrorist attacks on US embassies around the world. Marine security guards, under the direction of the State Department, continued to serve with distinction in the face of this challenge. In August 1982, Marine units landed at Beirut, Lebanon, as part of the multinational peacekeeping force. For the next 19 months these units faced the hazards of their mission with courage and professionalism. In October 1983, Marines took part in the highly successful, short-notice intervention in Grenada.

As the decade of the 1980s came to a close, Marines were summoned to respond to instability in Central America. Operation JUST CAUSE was launched in Panama in December 1989 to protect American lives and restore the democratic process in that nation.

Less than a year later, in August 1990, the Iraqi invasion of Kuwait set in motion events that would lead to the largest movement of Marine Corps forces since World War II. Between August 1990 and January 1991 some 24 infantry battalions, 40 squadrons, and more than 92,000 Marines deployed to the Persian Gulf as part of Operation DESERT SHIELD. Operation DESERT STORM was launched 16 January 1991, the day the air campaign began. The main attack came overland beginning on 24 February when the 1st and 2d Marine Divisions breached the Iraqi defense lines and stormed into occupied Kuwait. Meanwhile, the threat from the sea in the form of two Marine expeditionary brigades held in check some 50,000 Iraqis along the Kuwait coast. By the morning of 28 February, 100
hours after the ground war began, almost the entire Iraqi Army in the Kuwaiti theater of operations had been encircled, with 4,000 tanks destroyed and 42 divisions destroyed or rendered ineffective.

Overshadowed by the events in the Persian Gulf during 1990-91 were a number of other significant Marine deployments demonstrating the Corps’ flexible and rapid response. Included among these were noncombatant evacuation operations in Liberia and Somalia to rescue civilians and diplomats, and humanitarian lifesaving operations in Bangladesh, the Philippines, and northern Iraq.

In December 1992, Marines landed in Somalia, marking the beginning of a 2-year humanitarian relief operation in that famine-stricken and strife-torn nation. In another part of the world, land and carrier-based Marine Corps fighter-attack squadrons and electronic warfare aircraft supported Operation DENY FLIGHT in the no-fly zone over Bosnia-Herzegovina. During April 1994, Marines once again demonstrated their ability to protect American citizens in remote parts of the world when a Marine task force evacuated 142 US citizens from Rwanda in response to civil unrest in that country.

Closer to home, Marines went ashore in September 1994 at Cape Haitian, Haiti, as part of the US force participating in the restoration of democracy in that country. During this same period Marines were actively engaged in providing assistance to the Nation’s counter-drug effort, assisting in battling wild fires in the western United States, and aiding in flood and hurricane relief operations.

In 2003, Marines were an integral part of Operation IRAQI FREEDOM. The very next year 2000 Marines were called into action to step up the hunt for al-Qaeda and Taliban leaders in support of Operation ENDURING FREEDOM.

Today’s Marine Corps stands ready to continue in the proud tradition of those who so valiantly fought and died at Belleau Wood, Iwo Jima, Chosin Reservoir, and Khe Sanh. As stated by the Corps’ 31st Commandant, General Charles C. Krulak:

“Our war-fighting legacy is one of duty, strength, sacrifice, discipline, and determination. These themes are cornerstones of the individual Marine and of our Corps. Indeed, they are woven into the very fabric of our battle color. However, while we reflect on our past, let us also rededicate ourselves to a future of improvement. For, as good as we are now, we must be better tomorrow. The challenges of today are the opportunities of the twenty-first century. Both will demand much of us all.”

Combining a long and proud heritage of faithful service with the leadership and resolve to face tomorrow’s challenges will keep the Marine Corps the “best of the best.”
Organization

The United States Marine Corps is a separate armed service that falls under the Secretary of the Navy. There is no Secretary of the Marine Corps, but The Secretary of the Navy acts in this capacity. The focus of the Secretary is on nonoperational plans, programs, and procedures, and other areas that will provide the Commandant of the Marine Corps (CMC) with the needed manning and materials to fulfill the Marines’ mission. The Commandant fills a role similar to the Chief of Staff of the Air Force, in that he is focused on the operations of the Marines. The Commandant provides advice to the Secretary of the Navy on the administration, discipline, training, internal organization, requirements, and readiness of the Marine Corps. He is also in charge of other Marine activities as the Secretary may direct.

Because the Marines are considered a naval force and work in conjunction with the Navy, the CMC and Chief of Naval Operations (CNO) have a very close working relationship. There are times when Marine elements are assigned under the Operating Forces of the Navy. There are also cases in which members or organizations of the Navy are assigned to the Marine Corps. When this occurs, the marine and naval commanders will find themselves in charge of troops from both services. The CMC is also a permanent member of the Joint Chiefs of Staff, a co-equal with the other chiefs. In this capacity, he informs the Secretary of the Navy of all matters pertaining to the Joint Staff, and acts as an advisor to the Secretary of Defense and President. Today it’s apparent that the Marine Corps is a separate service, as the Marines are continuously assigned tasks not associated with naval campaigns.

The Marines are broken down into three broad areas: Headquarters Marine Corps, Supporting Establishment, and Operating Forces. We’ll take a look at each of these major subdivisions, focusing mainly on the operational forces.

Headquarters Marine Corps

Headquarters Marine Corps (HQMC), is in the executive branch of the Department of the Navy. It furnishes professional assistance to the Secretary of the Navy, accomplishes all military support duties that deal with the Marine Corps, coordinates actions of Marine Corps organizations, prepares instructions for execution of approved plans, and investigates and reports efficiency of the Marine Corps in support of combatant commands. During war, the CMC works with the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff in the communications chain of command between the Secretary of Defense, and the combatant commanders. The combatant commanders are those individuals who are in charge of US unified commands, such as US Transportation Command or US Central Command.
Supporting Establishment

The Supporting Establishment has about 28,000 personnel; it runs the training schools, Marine Corps Recruiting Command, the Marine Corps Combat Development Command, Marine Corps Systems Command, and Headquarters. Its contributions are vital to the readiness of the Corps.

Missions

The Marines' missions are to:

Organize, train, and equip to provide Fleet Marine Forces (FMF) of combined arms, together with supporting air components, for service with the fleet in the seizure or defense of advanced naval bases, and for the conduct of such land operations as may be essential to the prosecution of a naval campaign;

• Furnish security detachments and organizations for service on naval vessels of the Navy;
• Furnish security detachments for protection of naval property at naval stations and bases;
• Perform other duties as the President may direct; and
• Develop in coordination with the Army and Air Force, those phases of amphibious operations that pertain to the tactics, techniques, and equipment used by landing forces.

Marine Corps Doctrine

The way in which the Marine Corps fights its wars is based on two operational concepts: maneuver and combined arms.

Maneuver warfare is defined in Marine Corps Doctrinal Publication 1 as a warfighting philosophy that seeks to shatter the enemy's cohesion through a series of rapid, violent, and unexpected actions which create a turbulent and rapidly deteriorating situation with which he cannot cope. This concept recognizes that we will probably have lower numbers in force, strive for limited casualties, and have limited external support to draw from. These factors necessitate that we attempt to create the situation described above, in space and time, to achieve a quick victory. Maneuver warfare stresses the attempt to circumvent a problem and attack it from a position of advantage, rather than straight on. The goal is to apply the Marines' strengths to enemy weaknesses through the mastery of spatial relationships, and a faster relative tempo.
In space (meaning the area friendly forces occupy relative to the enemy forces), the Marines attempt to gain an advantage in positioning. An example would be if we were able to pin an enemy with the rear of their force against an impenetrable gap, while maintaining a position of higher elevation to fire upon them from. At the same time, friendly forces may have the only possible escape route for the enemy blocked off. Many films on warfare have depicted situations in which an enemy attacked their foe when he was in a river canyon, or some physical area of weakness. Taking advantage of relative positions to the enemy is part of maneuver warfare.

Tempo is a powerful tool and vital to the success of maneuver. Basically, tempo is the rate at which operations may be carried out. It attacks the enemy's physical strength as well as its morale. It targets the enemy's cohesion, organization, and psychological balance. To effectively use tempo, one must possess a great ability to read the tactical situation quickly and act decisively. While the enemy may react in a certain way to one form of attack, he may be making himself vulnerable to another. Quick recognition and action are needed to gain the edge. Through mastery of space and tempo, an inferior force may gain decisive superiority at the necessary time and place.

Use of the combined arms concept is what makes maneuver warfare effective. Marine employment of forces, and even their organization, is based upon their coordination together to produce a situation with which the enemy cannot cope. Combined arms is defined as the full integration of arms in such a way that in order to counteract one attack, the enemy must make themselves more vulnerable to another. In effect, we again give the enemy a no-win situation.

Here is an example: We use assault support (tactical airlift) to quickly concentrate superior forces for a breakthrough. We use artillery and close air support to support the infantry penetration, and deep air support to interdict enemy reinforcements. Targets that cannot be effectively suppressed by artillery are engaged by close air support. In order to defend against the infantry attack, the enemy must make themselves vulnerable to the supporting arms. If they seek cover from the supporting arms (meaning air support), our infantry can maneuver against them. In order to block our penetration, the enemy must reinforce quickly with their reserve. But in order to avoid our deep air support, they must stay off the roads, and thus can only move slowly. If they move slowly, they cannot reinforce in time to prevent our breakthrough. We have put them in a no-win dilemma. Combined arms are used in each aspect of the Marine Corps' operations. It is especially critical in the organization of the operating forces, as it allows each Arm of the force to enhance the other with great effectiveness.
Operating Forces

The operating forces are considered the heart of the Marine Corps. They provide capability to maintain a forward presence and respond to crisis, and fighting power to the combatant commanders. The major elements of these forces include: the Fleet Marine Forces (FMFs); Marine Corps Security Forces at installations and onboard ships; and the Marine Security Guard Battalion, with its detachments at embassies and consulates worldwide. These forces make up roughly 70 percent of all active duty Marines.

FMFs are an integral part of the two US Navy fleets, the Atlantic Fleet and Pacific Fleet. The responsibility for their readiness and performance is with the CMC. The CMC also retains administrative control over these units. When deployed, the FMFs are operationally under the authority of the fleet commander (a Navy person). The fleet commander also acts as the Marine forces component commander for geographic combatant commanders.

The FMFs are expeditionary in nature. This means that they are designed to be able to accomplish specific objectives in foreign countries. Thus, an expeditionary force describes the unit’s capability, not its structure. The FMFs are organized in a way that will give them the best chance for victory. This organization is known as a Marine Air Ground Task Force (MAGTF).

Marine Air-Ground Task Force

One of the missions of the Marines as mentioned previously, is to “provide forces of combined arms... for service with the fleet.” The MAGTF is designed to do just that. As an expeditionary force, the objective is to provide commanders with an effective means of dealing with the uncertainties of future threats, providing as it does forward deployed units that are inherently balanced, sustainable, flexible, responsive, expandable, and credible. MAGTFs (pronounced “mag-taffs”) operate forward from the sea as task-organized, combined arms components of naval expeditionary forces, and are equipped and trained to conduct forward presence and crisis response missions while operating in the littoral areas of the world.

A MAGTF is not an echelon of command such as a major command in the Air Force; rather, it is an organizational concept. MAGTF organization is based on the requirements for amphibious warfare, naval political reinforcement operations, interoperability and mutual support with other units of the fleet, and the principles of naval operational organization of which it is a part. It is a building block concept; the fleet/joint force commander’s operational requirement or task is analyzed, and type units are drawn from a Marine division, aircraft wing, and force service support group into an air-ground-logistics team under one commander to meet the task. The resulting MAGTF may be of any size; the relative percentage and composition of its component elements may vary, depending on the mission, and in conflict, the enemy situation.
To exploit the advantages of a closely integrated air and ground force, deployment must be under the command of a single commander. MAGTFs have a built-in capability to be deployed and use their own supplies for preplanned periods usually 60 to 90 days. They also take advantage of maritime prepositioning forces, which are strategically located, pre-loaded ships. These assets are vital to the first series of operations in the objective area. Massive amounts of supplies are needed to support Marine activities. Airlift gets the most time-critical cargo in position, but there are also other supplies that must arrive relatively quickly. Prepositioning allows the United States to overcome the slow response time of sealift. Lastly, the Marines also have equipment prepositioned in Norway to significantly reduce reaction time to emergencies.

In a time of expected crisis, MAGTFs embarked aboard amphibious ships, provide decision makers with the capabilities to:

- Move forces into crisis areas without revealing their exact destinations or intentions
- Provide continuous presence in international waters
- Provide immediate national response in support of humanitarian and natural disaster relief operations
- Provide credible but nonprovocative combat power just over the horizon of a potential adversary, for rapid employment as the initial response to a crisis
- Support diplomatic processes for peaceful crisis resolution, before employing immediately responsive combat forces
- Project measured degrees of combat power ashore, if required
- Introduce additional forces sequentially into a theater of operations
- Operate independent of established airfields, basing agreements, and overflight rights
- Conduct combat operations ashore, using inherent combat service support brought into the area of operations
- Enable the introduction of follow-on Army and Air Force units by securing staging areas ashore
- Withdraw rapidly at the conclusion of operations, or remain to help restore stability to the affected area
- Plan and commence execution of a mission within 6 to 48 hours of receiving a warning order (dependent on size)

In light of this, it's easy to understand why MAGTFs are so desirable to have. Regardless of size, all MAGTFs have the following capabilities:

- Operate as a component of a joint task force
• Enter a battle area at night
• Operate under adverse weather conditions
• Operate from over the horizon, without electronic emissions, by surface or air
• Locate the enemy and stabilize the situation
• Engage, kill, or capture the enemy in a rural or urban environment
• Operate in hostile nuclear, biological, and chemical environments
• Provide sea-based sustainment

Whatever the scenario, MAGTFs will include four major elements:

• Command Element: This is MAGTF headquarters. It provides the command, control, and coordination essential for effective execution of operations.
• Ground Combat Element: This element conducts and coordinates combat ground operations. Basically set up as an infantry, it works with artillery, reconnaissance, armor, and combat engineers.
• Aviation Combat Element: This element conducts and coordinates combat aviation operations.
• Combat Service Support Element: This element provides a full range of combat service support functions to the MAGTF.

Again, MAGTFs are considered expeditionary forces regardless of their size. The Marines have developed different sized MAGTFs that can be deployed worldwide on short notice. To provide a frame of reference for our purposes, MAGTFs can be categorized into four types:

• Marine Expeditionary Force (MEF)
• Marine Expeditionary Brigade (MEB)
• Marine Expeditionary Unit (MEU)
• Special-Purpose MAGTF (SPMAGTF)

**Marine Expeditionary Force**

The MEF is the principle war-fighting organization in the Marines. Normally commanded by a Lieutenant General and designed to handle a large crisis or contingency, MEFs deploy with a 60-day supply of materials. Their size can range from one to several infantry divisions (similar to Army infantry divisions), aircraft wings, and support groups. A MEF command element is capable of the mission of a joint task force headquarters, if needed. MEFs are the primary standing units of the Marines. There are only three MEFs in the whole active duty Marine Corps.
Marine Expeditionary Brigade

The MEB is a task organized MAGTF commanded by a Brigadier General and deploys with a 30-day supply of materials for operations. It’s normally composed of a reinforced infantry regiment, composite Marine Aircraft Group (MAG), and a brigade service support group.

These expeditionary brigades are capable of rapid deployment and employment via amphibious shipping, by strategic air or sealift, through marriage with prepositioned material, or any combination of the three.

Marine Expeditionary Unit

The MEU is commanded by a Colonel and deploys with a 15-day supply of materials for operations. It’s normally composed of a reinforced infantry battalion, composite helicopter squadron with AV-8B aircraft, and a combat support element.

Forward-deployed MEU embarked aboard Amphibious Ready Group (ARG) shipping operate continuously in the areas of responsibility of numerous unified commanders. These units are deployed as an immediately responsive, sea-based MAGTF to meet forward presence and limited power projection requirements.

Special Purpose MAGTF

The SPMAGTF is task-organized to accomplish specific missions for which the MEF or MEU would be inappropriate or too large to employ. SPMAGTFs can be organized, trained, and equipped to conduct a wide variety of expeditionary operations in response to a crisis or a peacetime mission. They are designated as SPMAGTF with a location: e.g., SPMAGTF (Liberia), SPMAGTF (Philippines), or SPMAGTF (Somalia). Their duties cover the spectrum from noncombatant evacuation to disaster relief and humanitarian missions.

Marine Division

Included in the FMFs are several subdivisions, which can be identified by the type of warfare they specialize in. These units make up the MAGTFs. The Marine division is the basic ground organization, or ground component. A division commander would be known as a type (type of unit) commander with respect to the MAGTF. They have sustained combat capability, and are assigned to execute amphibious assault operations and other actions as directed. Marine divisions consist of headquarters battalion, three infantry regiments, an artillery regiment, separate tank, reconnaissance, engineer, amphibious assault battalions, and a light armored infantry battalion. Divisions are employed in conjunction with Marine Aircraft Wings (MAW) as an integral part of a Marine Expeditionary force (MEF). When operations are sustained ashore, the division gets support from a force service support group (FSSG).
Marine Aircraft Wing

MAWs deploy in support of Marine divisions. They are task-organized, or tailored to specific types of missions. Marine Air Groups contain two or more tactical (operational) squadrons, a logistics, and an air base squadron. Squadrons are the basic unit of the MAW. Depending upon the type of aircraft assigned, a squadron may contain 12 to 24 airframes. (Marine fixed wing aircraft include:) AV-8B Harrier, F/A-18 Hornet, EA-6B Prowler, and KC-130 Hercules. Rotary wing aircraft include: AH-1W Super Cobra, UH-1N Huey, CH-46E Sea Knight, CH-53D Sea Stallion, CH-53E Super Stallion. All pilots are trained to serve aboard carriers in support of FMFs.

Marine aviation has two primary missions:

• Participate as the supporting air component of FMFs in the seizure and defense of advanced naval bases, and

• Conduct land operations essential to the prosecution of the naval campaign

A collateral mission of Marine aviation is to participate as an integral component of naval aviation in the execution of other Navy functions as the fleet commander directs.

On a broad scale, the purpose of Marine aviation is to support Marine Air-Ground Task Force operations. To accomplish this, the Marines fly six types of missions, similar to the missions the Air Force flies under the roles of air and space control, force application, and force enhancement.

• Offensive air support includes different types of close air support/interdiction.

• Antiair warfare missions include actions against enemy aircraft or missiles, their supporting forces, and their operating bases. In short, the aim is air superiority. This again falls in line with our role of air and space control.

• Assault support includes airlift support in area of operations. This includes rotary and fixed wing operations, refueling, air evacuation, logistical support, and battlefield illumination. This is similar to force enhancement.

• Aerial reconnaissance includes visual and electronic means of data collection. Again, similar to the force enhancement role.

• Electronic warfare involves using electromagnetic energy to determine, exploit, reduce, or prevent hostile use of the electromagnetic spectrum. Again, similar to the Air Force mission with the same objective.

• Aircraft and missile control comprises the capability of Marine aviation to exercise authority and direction of air support elements during operations.
Force Service Support Group

The Force Service Support Group (FSSG) is a composite grouping of functional components that provides combat support service (above the organic capability of supported units) to all elements of the MEF. The most significant attribute of the FSSG is that it is a permanently organized command charged with the responsibility to provide all major support functions for the MEF.

Security Forces

In addition to combat forces, the Marines provide security forces in a variety of scenarios. Currently, about 5,500 Marines are used to protect key naval installations and ships around the world. Fleet Antiterrorism Security Teams (FAST Teams) are used to deploy into high-threat areas, provide security for nuclear asset environments, and respond to other contingencies as needed. Lastly, Marines provide the Department of State with embassy security in 129 countries around the world.

Future Trends

The classic concept of amphibious assault is changing. The Marines and Navy have developed an over-the-horizon assault capability. Assaults may initiate beyond the horizon and quickly transit to shore before enemy forces can fire upon friendly forces. The use of tilt-rotor aircraft, air cushion landing craft, and advanced amphibian assault vehicle technology gives the needed speed and range to make this possible. Another advantage of an over-the-horizon assault is flexibility. A MAGTF 400 nautical miles off Norfolk, Virginia could land at any point on the coastline between New York and Florida. This ability to quickly attack such a wide area forces the enemy to spread out his defenses across that area, robbing him of the ability to mass his forces. It also allows our forces to have tactical surprise, and buys enough time for the critical consolidations of friendly forces, once ashore.

Conclusion

Their high level of preparedness and flexibility has made the Marines the force of choice in times of crisis. Indeed, they have been called "America’s 911 Force." Swift to respond with a wide range of combat capabilities, Marines have routinely provided the nation’s first answer to natural as well as man-made crises, from earthquakes and powerful storms to full scale hostile aggression across international boundaries. The Marine Corps’ unique blend of readiness, integrated air-ground-logistic structure, and versatility in expeditionary roles has been designed for the supremely challenging initial response to crisis. The Corps is ready to respond to any situation to maintain our national security. When deterrence fails, the mission of the Marine Corps is to put, and hold their fingers in the dike until other forces of the Army and Air Force can arrive and sustain operations.
Bibliography:
Cognitive Lesson Objective:
• Know the core missions of the United States Coast Guard (USCG).

Cognitive Sample of Behavior:
• State the USCG’s three core missions.

Affective Lesson Objective:
• Respond to the role played by the USCG.

Affective Sample of Behavior:
• Voluntarily read the assigned text.
THE UNITED STATES COAST GUARD

The United States Coast Guard is a military, multi-mission, maritime service within the Department of Homeland Security and one of the nation’s five armed services. Its core tenets are to protect the US maritime economy and environment, defend US maritime borders, and save individuals in peril. These roles are executed in all maritime regions over which the US has jurisdiction, including international waters where an agreement with foreign governments or international agencies has been reached.

The Coast Guard provides unique benefits to the nation because of its distinctive blend of military, humanitarian, and civilian law-enforcement capabilities. In order to execute these capabilities, the Coast Guard carries out 11 specific missions, covered by 3 core missions: Maritime Safety, Maritime Security, and Maritime Stewardship.

Maritime Safety: enforcing safe, secure, and environmentally sound operations of US flagged vessels throughout the world and foreign vessels operating in US waters, issuing licenses and documents to qualified mariners, conducting inspections of US and foreign vessels, and developing and monitoring vessel construction and performance.

A fundamental responsibility of the US government is to safeguard the lives and safety of its citizens. In the maritime realm, this duty falls mainly to the Coast Guard. In partnership with other federal agencies, state, local, and tribal governments, marine industries, and individual mariners, the Coast Guard improves safety at sea through complementary programs of mishap prevention, search and rescue, and accident investigation. Prevention activities include the development of standards and regulations, various types of plan review and compliance inspections, and a variety of safety programs designed to protect mariners.

Nearly all Coast Guard prevention activities are designed to protect mariners. For example, its commercial fishing vessel safety programs are designed to safeguard commercial fishermen, many of whom earn their living performing some of the most dangerous work in the world. The Coast Guard operates the International Ice Patrol to protect ships transiting the North Atlantic shipping lanes, documents and admeasures US flag vessels, and licenses commercial mariners.

However, the maritime domain is large and complex, and despite the Coast Guard’s best efforts, mariners sometimes find themselves in harm’s way. When they do, the Coast Guard has a long heritage and proud tradition of immediate response to save lives and property in peril. As the lead agency for maritime search and rescue (SAR) in US waters, they coordinate the SAR efforts of afloat and airborne Coast Guard units with those of other federal, state, and local responders. The Coast Guard also partners with the world’s merchant fleet to rescue mariners in distress around the globe through the Automated Mutual-assistance Vessel Rescue (AMVER) system. Using its Captain of the Port (COTP) authorities and responsibilities, the Coast Guard also coordinates response efforts on waterways after an incident or disaster. In addition to responding to a variety of maritime
accidents and emergencies, the Coast Guard investigates their causes; determining whether applicable laws have been violated, or whether changes should be made to improve safety through prevention programs. This work is often done in coordination with the National Transportation Safety Board (NTSB).

Coast Guard activities in support of maritime safety are often inseparable from those performed to protect the marine environment or secure the US Marine Transportation System (MTS). A routine inspection for safety compliance may uncover a serious risk to the environment. Coast Guard vessel traffic services not only reduce the risk of vessel collisions, but also provide maritime domain awareness, thereby improving security. A buoy tender working an aid to navigation may immediately divert to a search and rescue case. The integration of all Coast Guard missions has saved many thousands of lives, helped secure our citizens, and contributed to our national economic and environmental well-being.

In addition to commercial vessels, more than 76 million recreational boaters use our US waterways. As National Recreational Boating Safety Coordinator, the Coast Guard is focused on minimizing the loss of life, personal injury, property damage, and environmental harm associated with this activity. The Coast Guard Auxiliary, the civilian volunteer arm of the Coast Guard, is a key contributor to these boating safety efforts and has augmented our missions for over 60 years. The Coast Guard Auxiliary provides free boating safety courses, courtesy marine examinations for recreational boaters, verification for aids to navigation, and inspections of commercial facilities.

The Coast Guard is also America’s voice in the International Maritime Organization (IMO), which promulgates measures to improve shipping safety, pollution prevention, mariner training, and certification standards. They develop and enforce vessel construction standards as well as domestic shipping and navigation regulations. To ensure compliance, the Coast Guard reviews and approves plans for ship construction, repair, and alteration. The Coast Guard inspects vessels, mobile offshore drilling units, and marine facilities for safety. Its Port State Control program, aimed at eliminating substandard vessels from US ports and waterways, is a key element since the majority of the passenger and cargo ships operating in US waters are foreign flagged.

As the lead US representative to the International Maritime Organization, a specialized agency of the United Nations, the Coast Guard is the driving force behind the implementation of international safety and pollution standards. However, not every country enforces these standards. With the increase in so-called flags of convenience, has come an increase in the number of substandard vessels. The Coast Guard has developed a comprehensive US strategy to promote and improve the Port State Control program, an international effort to bring substandard ships into compliance with applicable international standards or remove them from the sea.
Maritime Security: suppressing violations of US drug, immigration, and fisheries law, as well as securing the nation from terrorist threats.

Maritime law enforcement and border control are the oldest of the Coast Guard’s numerous responsibilities. They date back to our founding as the Revenue Marine in 1790. The First Congress established the Revenue Marine specifically to patrol our coasts and seaports to frustrate smuggling and enforce the customs laws of the fledgling Republic. Over two centuries later, that early challenge has evolved into a global obligation for the maritime security of our nation. Our maritime law enforcement and border control duties require the interdiction of ships at sea. This core capability provides the foundation upon which today’s broader and more complex maritime security mission set has been built.

Because the Coast Guard has law-enforcement authority, it can apprehend foreign fishing vessels engaged in poaching, interdict vessels carrying illegal drugs and undocumented migrants, and stop unsafe boaters. Today, US national-security interests can no longer be defined solely in terms of direct military threats to America and its allies. Working under the necessarily broader current definition of national security, the Coast Guard is seeking to reduce the risk from terrorism to US passengers at foreign and domestic ports and in designated waterfront facilities, but it faces the extremely difficult challenge of enforcing increasingly complex laws against highly sophisticated adversaries. Coast Guard boarding teams deal continuously with violations of multinational fisheries agreements and foil high-tech attempts to smuggle drugs into the United States.

The Coast Guard is the designated lead agency for maritime drug interdiction under the National Drug Control Strategy and the co-lead agency for air interdiction operations with US Customs and Border Protection. As such, the Coast Guard defends America’s seaward frontier against a torrent of illegal drugs. For more than three decades, our cutters and aircraft have forward deployed off South America and in the drug transit zone. This six-million-square-mile area, roughly the size of the continental United States itself, includes the Caribbean, the Gulf of Mexico, and the Eastern Pacific. They have intercepted thousands of tons of cocaine, marijuana, and other illegal drugs from this zone that otherwise would have found their way to America’s streets.

Coast Guard undocumented migrant interdiction operations are law enforcement missions with an important humanitarian dimension. Migrants often take great risks and endure significant hardships in their attempts to flee their countries and enter the US. In many cases, migrant vessels interdicted at sea are overloaded and unseaworthy, lack basic safety equipment, and are operated by inexperienced mariners. Many of the undocumented migrant cases they handle actually begin as search and rescue incidents. Once again, this illustrates the interweaving of roles and missions. Between 1982 and 2007, the Coast Guard interdicted over 225,000 migrants, mostly from Cuba, the Dominican Republic, and Haiti.

Throughout its history, the Coast Guard has served with the US Navy to defend our nation. This began with the Quasi-War with France in 1798, and continued through the Civil War, the World Wars, Vietnam, the Persian Gulf War, and Operation Iraqi Freedom. Today, as a critical component of the US National Fleet, the Coast Guard maintains a high state of
readiness to operate as a specialized service alongside the Navy and Marine Corps. The close relationship among services has evolved over two centuries of cooperation. This enduring relationship is captured in the May 2008 agreement between the Secretaries of Defense and Homeland Security.

The agreement formalizes the use of Coast Guard competencies and resources in support of the National Military Strategy and other national-level defense and security strategies. It lists the following Coast Guard national defense capabilities: maritime interception and interdiction; military environmental response; port operations, security, and defense; theater security cooperation; coastal sea control; rotary wing air intercept; combating terrorism; and Maritime Operational Threat Response support. These support the unified combatant commanders and require the Coast Guard to execute essential military operations in peacetime, crisis, and war.

The Coast Guard’s domestic civil law enforcement and port security expertise are uniquely valuable today as combatant commanders work to build foreign nation capacity for security and governance. In recent years, combatant commanders have requested Coast Guard forces to conduct at-sea interception and antipiracy operations, foreign liaison, and other supporting warfare tasks in all key theaters. The Coast Guard has been responsible for the security of the ports and waterways of the US during times of war since the enactment of the Espionage Act of 1917. After World War II, the Magnuson Act of 1950 assigned the Coast Guard an ongoing mission to safeguard US ports, harbors, vessels, and waterfront facilities from accidents, sabotage, or other subversive acts.

Following the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, these authorities took on grave new importance. This includes denying terrorists the use of the US maritime domain and the US Marine Transportation System (MTS) to mount attacks on our territory, population, or critical infrastructure. The Coast Guard’s authorities were further strengthened with the passage of the Maritime Transportation Security Act of 2002. This designated Coast Guard Captains of the Port as the Federal Maritime Security Coordinators. The Coast Guard thus became the lead agency for coordinating all maritime security planning and operations in US ports and waterways. These activities encompass all efforts to prevent or respond to attacks.

Maritime security is a continuing theme running throughout the Coast Guard’s proud history of service to America. It requires a breadth of experience and skills—seamanship, diplomacy, legal expertise, and combat readiness. The Coast Guard has honed these skills for more than two centuries. No other federal agency offers this combination of law enforcement and military capabilities, together with the legal authorities to carry them out.
Maritime Stewardship: enforcement of US fisheries law and marine protected species regulations; stopping unauthorized hazardous materials dumping and responding to any hazardous materials incidents; protecting marine mammals; regulating introduction of invasive species to waterways; developing environmental regulations; aiding navigation services and maintaining safe passageways through US waters; and enforcing foreign vessel laws and regulations.

Our nation’s waters are vital to its well-being and economy. The marine environment of the US is one of the most valuable natural resources on Earth. It contains one-fifth of the world’s fishery resources. It is also a region of extraordinary recreation, energy and mineral resources, and transportation activities. Finally, it is an inseparable part of our national heritage and daily fabric of life in our coastal communities. The Coast Guard’s role in protecting natural resources dates to the 1820s when Congress tasked the Revenue Marine to protect federal stocks of Florida live oak trees. These trees were deemed critical to the security of our young nation because they provided the best wood for shipbuilding.

As the exploitation of the Nation’s valuable marine resources—whales, fur bearing animals, and fish—increased, the Coast Guard was given the duty to protect those resources as well. Today, US waters support commercial and recreational fisheries worth more than $30 billion annually, and the Coast Guard serves as the primary agency for at-sea fisheries enforcement. The Coast Guard, in coordination with other federal and state agencies, enforces marine resource management and protection regimes to preserve healthy stocks of fish and other living marine resources.

In 1976, Congress passed what is now known as the Magnuson-Stevens Fishery Conservation and Management Act, creating the US Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ). This legislation extended our exclusive rights out to 200 nautical miles for fisheries and other natural resources. The Coast Guard patrols these areas to uphold US sovereignty and protect precious resources. Today, international fisheries agreements have extended US jurisdiction to waters beyond the EEZ.

The Coast Guard’s stewardship role has expanded to include enforcing laws intended to protect the environment for the common good. As a result, they safeguard sensitive marine habitats, mammals, and endangered species. The Coast Guard also enforces laws protecting our waters from the discharge of oil, hazardous substances, and non-indigenous invasive species. To do all this, the Coast Guard conducts a wide range of activities. These include education and prevention; law enforcement; emergency response and containment; and disaster recovery. They also provide mission critical command and control support for forces responding to environmental disasters in the maritime domain.

Under the National Contingency Plan, Coast Guard Captains of the Port (COTP) are the pre-designated Federal On-Scene Coordinators (FOSC) for oil and hazardous substance incidents in all coastal and some inland areas. The FOSC is the President’s designated on-scene representative and, as such, is responsible for coordinating effective response operations among a diverse group of government and commercial entities in emotion-charged and often dangerous emergency situations.
While the health of our nation’s waters and marine resources is vital to our economy, our waterways are also an economic highway essential to the nation’s access to several billion tons of foreign and domestic freight annually. Waterborne trade generates tens of millions of jobs and contributes hundreds of billions of dollars to the US gross national product each year. The US Marine Transportation System (MTS) and its intermodal links support US economic prosperity, military strength, and national security. This complex system includes international and domestic passenger services, commercial and recreational fisheries, and recreational boating.

The Coast Guard also carries out numerous port and waterways management tasks. They are responsible for providing a safe, efficient, and navigable waterway system to support domestic commerce, international trade, and military sealift requirements for national defense. The Coast Guard provides long and short-range aids to navigation; navigation schemes and standards; support for mapping and charting; tide, current, and pilotage information; vessel traffic services; domestic ice breaking to facilitate commerce; and technical assistance and advice.

Finally, the Coast Guard operates the nation’s only Polar icebreakers. This enables projection of US presence and protects national interests in the Arctic and Antarctic regions. These Polar vessels are key components in re-supplying US Antarctic facilities. They support the research requirements of the National Science Foundation, and protect or advance other US interests in the Polar Regions.

Outside of US coastal waters, the Coast Guard assists foreign naval and maritime forces through training and joint operations. Many of the world’s maritime nations have forces that operate principally in the littoral seas and conduct missions that resemble those of the Coast Guard. The Coast Guard, due to its varied mix of assets and missions, is a powerful role model that is in ever-increasing demand abroad. The service’s close working relationship with other nations not only improve mutual cooperation during specific joint operations in which the Coast Guard is involved, but also support US diplomatic efforts in general: promoting democracy, economic prosperity, and trust between nations.

Bibliography:
Introduction to AS200

Cognitive Lesson Objective:
- Know the AS200 course material and the course requirements.

Cognitive Samples of Behavior:
- State the course objectives.
- Describe course concepts (overview).
- Identify proper classroom conduct and procedures.
- List student assignments and testing requirements.
- Describe the course grading criteria.

Affective Lesson Objective:
- Respond to the importance of the lesson overview.

Affective Sample of Behavior:
- Actively participate in classroom discussion.
Cognitive Lesson Objective:
- Know the key ideas and distinct features of the US Constitution and how it relates to servitude of the nation.

Cognitive Samples of Behavior:
- Define “servant” in terms of being a servant of the nation.
- Describe the relationship between servitude, the Constitution, and our second Core Value of Service Before Self.
- List the rights on which the Declaration of Independence is based.
- Describe the purpose of each article of the Constitution.

Affective Lesson Objective:
- Value the importance of the US Constitution to members of the US Armed Forces.

Affective Sample of Behavior:
- Defend the importance of the US Constitution as officers.
“If men were angels, no government would be necessary. If angels were to govern men, neither external nor internal controls on government would be necessary. In framing a government, which is to be administered by men over men, the great difficulty lies in this: you must first enable the government to control the governed; and in the next place oblige it to control itself. A dependence on the people is, no doubt, the primary control on the government; but experience has taught mankind the necessity of auxiliary precautions.”

~James Madison, The Federalist Papers, No. 51

The Constitution is our founding document—the backbone of our nation. As an officer in our United States Air Force, you will take an oath to support and defend our Constitution against all enemies, foreign and domestic. All officers must have a familiarity with this document and its content—it is what our nation is founded on.

DEFENDER OF THE CONSTITUTION AND SERVANT OF THE NATION

Excerpted from the Armed Forces Officer

By their oaths, members of the armed forces are defenders of the Constitution and servants of the nation. But theirs is a particular kind of Constitution and a unique kind of nation. The Constitution, with its Bill of Rights, is a compact of a self-governing people, providing for a framework of government by consent to complete work begun with an earlier statement of democratic principles, the Declaration of Independence. The Declaration’s assertion of unalienable rights established early on the spirit in which the rules of the Constitution would be administered:

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights that among these are Life, Liberty, and the pursuit of Happiness. That to secure these rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed.

The Constitution made implicit the principle of military subordination to civil authority, in recognition of the ultimate source of political sovereignty asserted in the Declaration of Independence. At the same time, it established the spirit that would govern the discipline of the American armed forces. General Washington emphasized military subordination to civil authority in his scrupulous deference to the Continental Congress in his role as military commander. The Declaration of Independence articulated the political expectations of the Soldiers Washington sought to turn into a disciplined regular force to serve the revolutionary effort. Both democratic expectations are as valid today as they were at the beginning of our nation.
In a famous military anecdote, Major General Friedrich Baron von Steuben, the Prussian drill master who transformed the rag-tag Continental army into an organized, disciplined fighting force at Valley Forge, captured an important trait of American Soldiers in a letter to an old European comrade: “In the first place, the genius of this nation is not in the least to be compared with that of Prussians, Russians, and French. You say to your soldier, ‘Do this, and he doeth it'; but I am obliged to say, This is the reason why you ought to do this and that: and then he does it.” Like their revolutionary counterparts, today’s Soldiers, Sailors, Marines, Coastguardsmen, and Airmen, must understand not only what they must do, but why they must do it. With this in mind, the rest of this chapter explores the concepts behind the phrase, “Defender of the Constitution and Servant of the Nation.”

The concept of being a “servant” is uncomfortable to most Americans. The word conjures an image of forced obedience, of slavery, or of menial servitude in contrast to our shared belief in individual freedom. Yet, an officer makes a voluntary choice to serve the nation, to place the nation’s interests ahead of his or her personal desires. It is this voluntary commitment that forms the core of the oath of office, the solemn pledge to support and defend the Constitution of the United States. American officers embrace the concept of “service before self.”

Officers in the United States armed forces swear to uphold the ideals and obligations embedded in our nation’s Constitution, laws, and elected representatives. With the oath of office as an anchor, officers agree to serve the country by fulfilling their duties to the best of their ability and to be loyal, not only to military superiors and branch of service, but to constitutionally elected and empowered leaders and, by implication, to the citizens of our great country. Officers view this concept of service with pride. Instead of menial domestics, they view themselves as “Servants of the Nation,” who commit their lives to serve a cause greater than themselves. They must trust willingly the judgment of elected officials and their fellow citizens. In this, officers pledge their abilities, their honor, and, when necessary, their lives. Officers subordinate themselves to civilian control, not as mere servants, but servant-leaders who set the example for their troops. Three historical examples further explain the chapter’s concepts: the actions of General George Washington at Newburgh in 1783, General of the Army Douglas MacArthur during the Korean War in 1950-1951, and Major John Key during the Civil War in 1862.

Throughout his command of the Continental Army, Washington exhibited great deference to the position of the Continental Congress. No incident illustrated his stand better, however, than one that came at the end of the war, when victory had been assured. In 1783, two years after the victory at Yorktown, General Washington provided the defining example of a “Servant of the Nation.”

As the Continental army began to disband, many officers faced a bleak future. Various states rejected legislation to provide adequate pensions and many officers had lost their property and personal wealth during the long Revolutionary War. These disheartened, disgruntled officers approached General Washington to lead the army to rectify their grievances; in the words of one, to use bayonets “to procure justice to itself.” Washington rejected the idea of a military coup in a letter and spoke in a surprise visit to his assembled
officers at their final encampment near Newburgh, New York. When his prepared words failed to quiet the gathering, Washington pulled a letter from his pocket to read in one last attempt. He stared at the letter in confusion and anxiety, and then pulled from his pocket something only a few had ever seen him use—a pair of glasses, stating, “Gentlemen, … you will permit me to put on my spectacles, for I have not only grown gray but almost blind in the service of my country.” This simple act broke the opposition. As old comrades wept, George Washington ended the threat to liberty and the ideals of the Revolution in his closing remarks:

And let me conjure you, in the name of our common Country, as you value your own sacred honor, as you respect the rights of humanity, and as you regard the Military and National character of America, to express your utmost horror and detestation of the Man who wishes, and who wickedly attempts to open the flood Gates of Civil discord, and deluge our rising Empire in Blood.

In maintaining the subordination of the Army to civilian authority, Washington inspired generations of American officers as the classic example an officer as the “Servant of the Nation.”

Somewhat more than a century and a half later, at the end of World War II, General of the Army Douglas MacArthur appeared to most Americans as the ideal “Defender of the Constitution.” Renowned for his courageous defense of the Philippines, daring escape from Corregidor, and brilliant “island-hopping” campaign to outmaneuver and outfight the Japanese, MacArthur ranked as the second most popular man in America. Indeed, MacArthur’s signature corn cob pipe and crushed, bemedalled service cap created a legendary image, not unlike the heroic image of George Washington. Little did the public expect that within five years, MacArthur would be embroiled in what some scholars called “the gravest and most emotional constitutional crisis” of the twentieth century.

According to John W. Spanier, “The issue at stake was no less than the continuation of civilian supremacy and of the President’s authority as Commander in Chief.” The Truman-MacArthur controversy shows that defending the Constitution means more than a willingness to risk your life in battle. It also entails that the officer must subordinate personal political, military, strategic, and social views to those of our nation’s elected leadership.

Even before the Korean War, General MacArthur challenged President Harry S. Truman's leadership. Following the euphoria of victory in World War II, the nation rode an emotional roller coaster as harsh realities of an emerging Cold War bucked the nation’s psyche. In light of the Iron Curtain, the Berlin crisis, the Communist victory in China, the Soviet explosion of an atomic bomb, and other events demonstrating the end of the wartime alliance, some Americans considered President Roosevelt's successor, Harry S. Truman, a political hack, both unsuited and unqualified for the awesome responsibilities of the office.
In contrast, General Douglas MacArthur’s flair, rhetorical skills, and proven battlefield leadership appeared worthy of a great president. MacArthur’s benevolent, enlightened rule of occupied Japan further enhanced his presidential appeal. Thus, MacArthur backers placed his name on the 1948 Republican primary ballots in Wisconsin and Nebraska, even while he served in uniform. Although MacArthur was never an official candidate and poor primary showings proved disappointing, the general remained a popular figure and symbol of leadership. The apparent contrast of unequal personalities—the heroic, dazzling MacArthur and the pedestrian, drab Truman—underscored one of the major civil-military crises in American history. Like Washington’s behavior at Newburgh, the Truman-MacArthur controversy helps define the concepts of “Defender of the Constitution and Servant of the Nation.”

When Communist North Korea launched a sudden, surprisingly effective invasion of South Korea in June 1950, Douglas MacArthur returned to the limelight as a battle leader. Although stung by early, humiliating defeats, American forces rallied, and MacArthur’s reputation soared with a spectacular amphibious assault at Inchon that turned the tide of the war.

Buoyed by success, General MacArthur made a series of public remarks critical of the Truman Administration’s conduct of the war. In a letter to the Veterans of Foreign Wars, the general, whose strategic responsibilities included affairs in China and Taiwan, repudiated the President’s policy to limit war to the Korean peninsula and described government officials as advocating “appeasement and defeatism.” Hesitant of rebuking a national hero, the president and Joint Chiefs of Staff (JCS) communicated their displeasure and attempted to restrain MacArthur’s policy statements in careful, guarded memoranda and messages. Apparently undeterred, or perhaps unsure of the president’s intent, General MacArthur continued harsh criticism of Truman’s strategic policies, in particular with regard to the administration’s attempt to fight a limited war.

In October 1950, President Truman met with MacArthur at Wake Island to clarify strategic issues and affirm his role as commander in chief. Skeptics thought the unpopular Truman was simply trying to cash in on MacArthur’s Inchon success. In their only meeting, MacArthur presented a wide range of strategic issues, apologized for his previous remarks, and assured the president that a United Nations advance into North Korea would not provoke the Communist Chinese into entering the war. After two days of talks, the president and his theater commander departed on good terms. President Truman remarked to reporters, “There was no disagreement between MacArthur and myself. It was a most successful conference.”

When a surprise Chinese onslaught smashed American and United Nations troops in November, MacArthur called for drastic measures to defeat the new enemy. Calling for air attacks against China and Manchuria, a naval blockade, the construction of air bases on Formosa, and the addition of Nationalist Chinese troops to Allied forces, MacArthur pressured Truman to widen the war at the same time the president sought to prevent escalation and a possible third world war. Despite the Wake Island meeting and formal guidance from the president and Joint Chiefs of Staff prohibiting unapproved public policy
statements, MacArthur sent a strong letter to House Minority Leader Joseph W. Martin denouncing the administration’s half-hearted conduct of the war. Representative Martin entered the letter into public debate by reading it to Congress. General MacArthur’s text directly violated the president’s directives and challenged the administration’s policies of restraint with its famous cry that “there is no substitute for victory.”

After ineffective attempts to rein in the celebrated general, President Truman relieved MacArthur from command on 11 April 1951, with the full support of his statutory military advisors, the Joint Chiefs of Staff. In his unexpected and unpopular announcement, President Truman stated, “I have, therefore, considered it essential to relieve General MacArthur so that there would be no doubt or confusion as to the real purpose and aim of our policy… General MacArthur is one of our greatest military commanders. But the cause of world peace is more important that any individual.”

Although historians debate whether MacArthur intended for Representative Martin to publicize his letter, the distinguished Soldier violated specific orders and the spirit of the commander-in-chief’s guidance. MacArthur described his own ideas of what constituted loyalty to the Constitution in a speech to the Massachusetts legislature following his dismissal:

I find its existence a new and heretofore unknown and dangerous concept, that the member of our armed forces owe primary allegiance or loyalty to those who temporarily exercise the authority of the Executive Branch of the Government rather than to the country and its Constitution which they are sworn to defend. No proposition could be more dangerous.

On the surface, this statement might seem consistent with “supporting and defending” the Constitution, but it is terribly flawed. It presumes to give to the military leader the right or obligation to judge the decisions of his political masters. Officers do not have this right. Wiser words had been offered 50 years before by General John Schofield, who observed before Congress, “Nothing is more absolutely indispensable to a good soldier than perfect subordination and zealous service to him whom the national will may have made the official superior for the time being.” (Emphasis added.) Distinguished British military thinker General Sir John Winthrop Hackett points out that MacArthur’s concept violates principles basic to any successful democracy:

That the will of the people is sovereign and no refusal to accept its expression through the institutions specifically established by it—whether in the determination of policies or in the interpretation of the constitution—can be legitimate.

No individual officer, not even a theater commander, possesses the right to determine the legitimacy of the president’s positions on national policies. Armed forces officers must serve loyally all elected officials even though those officials might “temporarily exercise the authority of the Executive Branch.” The American officer must refrain from individual interpretations of the Constitution. To be a “Defender of the Constitution and Servant of the Nation,” officers must promptly and effectively obey the chain of command, regardless of political party or ideological bent. An officer’s duty must be to implement state policy and
to execute without challenge the lawful orders of elected leadership, reserving advice for legitimate forums and restricting it to matters of professional competence. Officers must not publicly question the effectiveness or validity of national policy.

MacArthur, writes Professor John W. Spanier, “went beyond challenge by appealing over the heads of his civilian and military superiors to the opposition party in Congress and the American people themselves in an attempt to change that policy.” This act constituted the heart of a constitutional crisis that stands in striking contrast to Washington’s ending of the Newburgh conspiracy.

Washington, of course, was commander in chief of the Continental army at the moment of the nation’s birth. MacArthur was a legendary commander who had been chief of staff of the Army 10 years before the Second World War. What does “Defender of the Constitution and Servant of the Nation” mean at less exalted levels of the armed forces? Professor Eliot Cohen tells a story of a Major John J. Key, aide-de-camp to General Henry Halleck in 1862. President Abraham Lincoln cashiered Major Key for saying publicly that the object of military operations against the Confederacy intended no more than to draw out the war to the point where a compromise peace was possible. At the time, General George McClellan, many of his staff officers, and the opposition Democratic Party held these views.

Lincoln dismissed Key, observing: “It is wholly inadmissible for any gentleman holding a military commission from the United States to utter such sentiments as Major Key is within proved to have done.” Key’s disgrace, which Lincoln never reversed, was based on the president’s belief that Key represented some in the Army who were not fully committed to the defense of the Constitution and restoration of the sovereignty of the national government. By his action the president made clear that total commitment was expected.

By accepting the commission and swearing the Constitutional oath, American officers embrace the concept of civilian control of the military and pledge full loyalty and commitment to the policies of civilian leaders. Officers must strive to be nonpartisan in conduct, speech, and actions, so long as they wear the uniform. Toward the end of his life, MacArthur apparently recognized his previous errors when he reminded West Point cadets:

Others will debate the controversial issues, national and international, which divide men’s minds; but serene, calm, aloof you stand as the nation’s war-guardian, as its lifeguard from the raging tides of international conflict, as its gladiator in the arena of battle... Let civilian voices argue the merits or demerits of our processes of government; whether our strength is being sapped by deficit financing, indulged in too long, by federal paternalism grown too mighty, by power groups grown too arrogant, by morals grown too low, by taxes grown too high, by extremists grown too violent, whether our personal liberties are as thorough and complete as they should be. These great national problems are not for your professional participation or military solution.
Although this may be difficult advice to follow in today’s world of instant access to global communications and news media, it stands even more important. The American people trust their commissioned officers to carry out lawful orders energetically and implement public policies without hesitation. To be a “Defender of the Constitution and Servant of the Nation” means that you not only protect and obey the laws of our nation, but also the ideals expressed by the Declaration of Independence. American officers must safeguard the public trust in impartial, nonpartisan armed forces through their willing subordination and enthusiastic obedience.

**THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE**

*A TRANSCRIPTION*

Excerpted from the *Armed Forces Officer*

**IN CONGRESS, July 4, 1776.**

The unanimous Declaration of the thirteen united States of America,

When in the Course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the Laws of Nature and of Nature’s God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness. That to secure these rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed,—

That whenever any Form of Government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the Right of the People to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new Government, laying its foundation on such principles and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their Safety and Happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that Governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shewn, that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same Object evinces a design to reduce them under absolute Despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such Government, and to provide new Guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these Colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former Systems of Government. The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute Tyranny over these States. To prove this, let Facts be submitted to a candid world.
He has refused his Assent to Laws, the most wholesome and necessary for the public good. He has forbidden his Governors to pass Laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his Assent should be obtained; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has abdicated Government here, by declaring us out of his Protection and waging War against us. He has plundered our seas, ravaged our Coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people. He is at this time transporting large Armies of foreign Mercenaries to compleat the works of death, desolation and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of Cruelty & perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the Head of a civilized nation. He has constrained our fellow Citizens taken Captive on the high Seas to bear Arms against their Country, to become the executioners of their friends and Brethren, or to fall themselves by their Hands. He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavoured to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers, the merciless Indian Savages, whose known rule of warfare, is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes and conditions.

In every stage of these Oppressions We have Petitioned for Redress in the most humble terms: Our repeated Petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A Prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a Tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have We been wanting in attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them from time to time of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them by the ties of our common kindred to disavow these usurpations, which, would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They too have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity, which denounces our Separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, Enemies in War, in Peace Friends.

We, therefore, the Representatives of the united States of America, in General Congress, Assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the Name, and by Authority of the good People of these Colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these United Colonies are, and of Right ought to be Free and Independent States; that they are Absolved from all Allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain, is and ought to be totally dissolved; and that as Free and Independent States, they have full Power to levy War, conclude Peace, contract Alliances, establish Commerce, and to do all other Acts and Things which Independent States may of right do. And for the support of this Declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our Lives, our Fortunes and our sacred Honor.
The 56 signatures on the Declaration appear in the positions indicated:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Column 1</th>
<th>Column 2</th>
<th>Column 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>North Carolina:</td>
<td>Massachusetts:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Button Gwinnett</td>
<td>William Hooper</td>
<td>John Hancock</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lyman Hall</td>
<td>Joseph Hewes</td>
<td>Maryland:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>George Walton</td>
<td>John Penn</td>
<td>Samuel Chase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Carolina:</td>
<td>Edward Rutledge</td>
<td>William Paca</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Thomas Heyward, Jr.</td>
<td>Thomas Stone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Thomas Lynch, Jr.</td>
<td>Charles Carroll of Carrollton</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Arthur Middleton</td>
<td>Virginia:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>George Wythe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Richard Henry Lee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Thomas Jefferson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Benjamin Harrison</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Thomas Nelson, Jr.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Francis Lightfoot Lee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Carter Braxton</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Column 4</th>
<th>Column 5</th>
<th>Column 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pennsylvania:</td>
<td>New York:</td>
<td>New Hampshire:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robert Morris</td>
<td>William Floyd</td>
<td>Josiah Bartlett</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benjamin Rush</td>
<td>Philip Livingston</td>
<td>William Whipple</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benjamin Franklin</td>
<td>Francis Lewis</td>
<td>Massachusetts:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John Morton</td>
<td>Lewis Morris</td>
<td>Samuel Adams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>George Clymer</td>
<td>New Jersey:</td>
<td>John Adams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>James Smith</td>
<td>Richard Stockton</td>
<td>Robert Treat Paine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>George Taylor</td>
<td>John Witherspoon</td>
<td>Elbridge Gerry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>James Wilson</td>
<td>Francis Hopkinson</td>
<td>Rhode Island:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>George Ross</td>
<td>John Hart</td>
<td>Stephen Hopkins</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware:</td>
<td>Abraham Clark</td>
<td>William Ellery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caesar Rodney</td>
<td></td>
<td>Connecticut:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>George Read</td>
<td></td>
<td>Roger Sherman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thomas McKean</td>
<td></td>
<td>Samuel Huntington</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>William Williams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Oliver Wolcott</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>New Hampshire:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Matthew Thornton</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
We the People of the United States, in Order to form a more perfect Union, establish Justice, insure domestic Tranquility, provide for the common defense, promote the general Welfare, and secure the Blessings of Liberty to ourselves and our Posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

Article. I.

Section. 1.

All legislative Powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

Section. 2

The House of Representatives shall be composed of Members chosen every second Year by the People of the several States, and the Electors in each State shall have the Qualifications requisite for Electors of the most numerous Branch of the State Legislature.

No Person shall be a Representative who shall not have attained to the Age of twenty five Years, and been seven Years a Citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an Inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

Representatives and direct Taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective Numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole Number of free Persons, including those bound to Service for a Term of Years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other Persons. The actual Enumeration shall be made within three Years after the first Meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent Term of ten Years, in such Manner as they shall by Law direct. The Number of Representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty Thousand, but each State shall have at Least one Representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode-Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New-York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.

When vacancies happen in the Representation from any State, the Executive Authority thereof shall issue Writs of Election to fill such Vacancies.
The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker and other Officers; and shall have the sole Power of Impeachment.

Section. 3

The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof for six Years; and each Senator shall have one Vote.

Immediately after they shall be assembled in Consequence of the first Election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three Classes. The Seats of the Senators of the first Class shall be vacated at the Expiration of the second Year, of the second Class at the Expiration of the fourth Year, and of the third Class at the Expiration of the sixth Year, so that one third may be chosen every second Year; and if Vacancies happen by Resignation, or otherwise, during the Recess of the Legislature of any State, the Executive thereof may make temporary Appointments until the next Meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such Vacancies.

No Person shall be a Senator who shall not have attained to the Age of thirty Years, and been nine Years a Citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an Inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

The Vice President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no Vote, unless they be equally divided.

The Senate shall choose their other Officers, and also a President pro tempore, in the Absence of the Vice President, or when he shall exercise the Office of President of the United States.

The Senate shall have the sole Power to try all Impeachments. When sitting for that Purpose, they shall be on Oath or Affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside: And no Person shall be convicted without the Concurrence of two thirds of the Members present.

Judgment in Cases of Impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from Office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any Office of honor, Trust or Profit under the United States: but the Party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to Indictment, Trial, Judgment and Punishment, according to Law.

Section. 4.

The Times, Places and Manner of holding Elections for Senators and Representatives, shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by Law make or alter such Regulations, except as to the Places of choosing Senators.

The Congress shall assemble at least once in every Year, and such Meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by Law appoint a different Day.
Section. 5.

Each House shall be the Judge of the Elections, Returns and Qualifications of its own Members, and a Majority of each shall constitute a Quorum to do Business; but a smaller Number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the Attendance of absent Members, in such Manner, and under such Penalties as each House may provide.

Each House may determine the Rules of its Proceedings, punish its Members for disorderly Behavior, and, with the Concurrence of two thirds, expel a Member.

Each House shall keep a Journal of its Proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such Parts as may in their Judgment require Secrecy; and the Yeas and Nays of the Members of either House on any question shall, at the Desire of one fifth of those Present, be entered on the Journal.

Neither House, during the Session of Congress, shall, without the Consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other Place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.

Section. 6.

The Senators and Representatives shall receive a Compensation for their Services, to be ascertained by Law, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States. They shall in all Cases, except Treason, Felony and Breach of the Peace, be privileged from Arrest during their Attendance at the Session of their respective Houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any Speech or Debate in either House, they shall not be questioned in any other Place.

No Senator or Representative shall, during the Time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil Office under the Authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the Emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no Person holding any Office under the United States, shall be a Member of either House during his Continuance in Office.

Section. 7.

All Bills for raising Revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with Amendments as on other Bills.

Every Bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it become a Law, be presented to the President of the United States: If he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his Objections to that House in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the Objections at large on their Journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such Reconsideration two thirds of that House shall agree to pass the Bill, it shall be sent, together with the Objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two thirds of that House, it shall become a Law. But in all such Cases the Votes of both Houses shall be determined by yeas and Nays, and the Names of the Persons voting for and against the Bill shall be entered on the Journal of each House respectively. If any Bill shall not be returned by the President within
ten Days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the Same shall be a Law, in like Manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their Adjournment prevent its Return, in which Case it shall not be a Law.

Every Order, Resolution, or Vote to which the Concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of Adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the Same shall take Effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the Rules and Limitations prescribed in the Case of a Bill.

Section. 8.

The Congress shall have Power To lay and collect Taxes, Duties, Imposts and Excises, to pay the Debts and provide for the common Defence and general Welfare of the United States; but all Duties, Imposts and Excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

To borrow Money on the credit of the United States;

To regulate Commerce with foreign Nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian Tribes;

To establish an uniform Rule of Naturalization, and uniform Laws on the subject of Bankruptcies throughout the United States;

To coin Money, regulate the Value thereof, and of foreign Coin, and fix the Standard of Weights and Measures;

To provide for the Punishment of counterfeiting the Securities and current Coin of the United States; To establish Post Offices and post Roads;

To promote the Progress of Science and useful Arts, by securing for limited Times to Authors and Inventors the exclusive Right to their respective Writings and Discoveries;

To constitute Tribunals inferior to the supreme Court;

To define and punish Piracies and Felonies committed on the high Seas, and Offences against the Law of Nations;

To declare War, grant Letters of Marque and Reprisal, and make Rules concerning Captures on Land and Water;

To raise and support Armies, but no Appropriation of Money to that Use shall be for a longer Term than two Years;

To provide and maintain a Navy;

To make Rules for the Government and Regulation of the land and naval Forces;

To provide for calling forth the Militia to execute the Laws of the Union, suppress Insurrections and repel Invasions;
To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining, the Militia, and for governing such Part of them as may be employed in the Service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively, the Appointment of the Officers, and the Authority of training the Militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

To exercise exclusive Legislation in all Cases whatsoever, over such District (not exceeding ten Miles square) as may, by Cession of particular States, and the Acceptance of Congress, become the Seat of the Government of the United States, and to exercise like Authority over all Places purchased by the Consent of the Legislature of the State in which the Same shall be, for the Erection of Forts, Magazines, Arsenals, dock-Yards, and other needful Buildings;—And To make all Laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into Execution the foregoing Powers, and all other Powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States, or in any Department or Officer thereof.

Section. 9.

The Migration or Importation of such Persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the Year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a Tax or duty may be imposed on such Importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each Person.

The Privilege of the Writ of Habeas Corpus shall not be suspended, unless when in Cases of Rebellion or Invasion the public Safety may require it.

No Bill of Attainder or ex post facto Law shall be passed.

No Capitation, or other direct, Tax shall be laid, unless in Proportion to the Census or enumeration herein before directed to be taken.

No Tax or Duty shall be laid on Articles exported from any State.

No Preference shall be given by any Regulation of Commerce or Revenue to the Ports of one State over those of another; nor shall Vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay Duties in another.

No Money shall be drawn from the Treasury, but in Consequence of Appropriations made by Law; and a regular Statement and Account of the Receipts and Expenditures of all public Money shall be published from time to time.

No Title of Nobility shall be granted by the United States: And no Person holding any Office of Profit or Trust under them, shall, without the Consent of the Congress, accept of any present, Emolument, Office, or Title, of any kind whatever, from any King, Prince, or foreign State.
Section. 10.

No State shall enter into any Treaty, Alliance, or Confederation; grant Letters of Marque and Reprisal; coin Money; emit Bills of Credit; make any Thing but gold and silver Coin a Tender in Payment of Debts; pass any Bill of Attainder, ex post facto Law, or Law impairing the Obligation of Contracts, or grant any Title of Nobility.

No State shall, without the Consent of the Congress, lay any Imposts or Duties on Imports or Exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing it’s inspection Laws: and the net Produce of all Duties and Imposts, laid by any State on Imports or Exports, shall be for the Use of the Treasury of the United States; and all such Laws shall be subject to the Revision and Control of the Congress.

No State shall, without the Consent of Congress, lay any Duty of Tonnage, keep Troops, or Ships of War in time of Peace, enter into any Agreement or Compact with another State, or with a foreign Power, or engage in War, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent Danger as will not admit of delay.

Article. II.

Section. 1.

The executive Power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his Office during the Term of four Years, and, together with the Vice President, chosen for the same Term, be elected, as follows:

Each State shall appoint, in such Manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a Number of Electors, equal to the whole Number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress: but no Senator or Representative, or Person holding an Office of Trust or Profit under the United States, shall be appointed an Elector.

The Electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by Ballot for two Persons, of whom one at least shall not be an Inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a List of all the Persons voted for, and of the Number of Votes for each; which List they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the Seat of the Government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the Presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the Certificates, and the Votes shall then be counted. The Person having the greatest Number of Votes shall be the President, if such Number be a Majority of the whole Number of Electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such Majority, and have an equal Number of Votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose by Ballot one of them for President; and if no Person have a Majority, then from the five highest on the List they said House shall in like Manner choose the President. But in choosing the President, the Votes shall be taken by States, the Representation from each State having one Vote; A quorum for this purpose shall consist of a Member or Members from two thirds of the States, and a Majority of all the States shall be necessary to a Choice. In

every Case, after the Choice of the President, the Person having the greatest Number of Votes of the Electors shall be the Vice President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal Votes, the Senate shall choose from them by Ballot the Vice President.

The Congress may determine the Time of choosing the Electors, and the Day on which they shall give their Votes; which Day shall be the same throughout the United States.

No Person except a natural born Citizen, or a Citizen of the United States, at the time of the Adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the Office of President; neither shall any Person be eligible to that Office who shall not have attained to the Age of thirty five Years, and been fourteen Years a Resident within the United States.

In Case of the Removal of the President from Office, or of his Death, Resignation, or Inability to discharge the Powers and Duties of the said Office, the Same shall devolve on the Vice President, and the Congress may by Law provide for the Case of Removal, Death, Resignation or Inability, both of the President and Vice President, declaring what Officer shall then act as President, and such Officer shall act accordingly, until the Disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

The President shall, at stated Times, receive for his Services, a Compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the Period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that Period any other Emolument from the United States, or any of them.

Before he enter on the Execution of his Office, he shall take the following Oath or Affirmation: “I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the Office of President of the United States, and will to the best of my Ability, preserve, protect and defend the Constitution of the United States.”

Section. 2.

The President shall be Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, and of the Militia of the several States, when called into the actual Service of the United States; he may require the Opinion, in writing, of the principal Officer in each of the executive Departments, upon any Subject relating to the Duties of their respective Offices, and he shall have Power to grant Reprieves and Pardons for Offences against the United States, except in Cases of Impeachment.

He shall have Power, by and with the Advice and Consent of the Senate, to make Treaties, provided two thirds of the Senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the Advice and Consent of the Senate, shall appoint Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls, Judges of the supreme Court, and all other Officers of the United States, whose Appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by Law: but the Congress may by Law vest the Appointment of such inferior Officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the Courts of Law, or in the Heads of Departments.
The President shall have Power to fill up all Vacancies that may happen during the Recess of the Senate, by granting Commissions which shall expire at the End of their next Session.

Section. 3.

He shall from time to time give to the Congress Information of the State of the Union, and recommend to their Consideration such Measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary Occasions, convene both Houses, or either of them, and in Case of Disagreement between them, with Respect to the Time of Adjournment, he may adjourn them to such Time as he shall think proper; he shall receive Ambassadors and other public Ministers; he shall take Care that the Laws be faithfully executed, and shall Commission all the Officers of the United States.

Section. 4.

The President, Vice President and all civil Officers of the United States, shall be removed from Office on Impeachment for, and Conviction of, Treason, Bribery, or other high Crimes and Misdemeanors.

Article. III.

Section. 1.

The judicial Power of the United States shall be vested in one supreme Court, and in such inferior Courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The Judges, both of the supreme and inferior Courts, shall hold their Offices during good Behavior, and shall, at stated Times, receive for their Services a Compensation, which shall not be diminished during their Continuance in Office.

Section. 2.

The judicial Power shall extend to all Cases, in Law and Equity, arising under this Constitution, the Laws of the United States, and Treaties made, or which shall be made, under their Authority;—to all Cases affecting Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls;—to all Cases of admiralty and maritime Jurisdiction;—to Controversies to which the United States shall be a Party;—to Controversies between two or more States;—between a State and Citizens of another State;—between Citizens of different States;—between Citizens of the same State claiming Lands under Grants of different States, and between a State, or the Citizens thereof, and foreign States, Citizens or Subjects.

In all Cases affecting Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls, and those in which a State shall be Party, the supreme Court shall have original Jurisdiction. In all the other Cases before mentioned, the supreme Court shall have appellate Jurisdiction, both s to Law and Fact, with such Exceptions, and under such Regulations as the Congress shall make.
The Trial of all Crimes, except in Cases of Impeachment, shall be by Jury; and such Trial shall be held in the State where the said Crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the Trial shall be at such Place or Places as the Congress may by Law have directed.

**Section. 3.**

Treason against the United States, shall consist only in levying War against them, or in adhering to their Enemies, giving them Aid and Comfort. No Person shall be convicted of Treason unless on the Testimony of two Witnesses to the same overt Act, or on Confession in open Court.

The Congress shall have Power to declare the Punishment of Treason, but no Attainder of Treason shall work Corruption of Blood, or Forfeiture except during the Life of the Person attainted.

**Article. IV.**

**Section. 1.**

Full Faith and Credit shall be given in each State to the public Acts, Records, and judicial Proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general Laws prescribe the Manner in which such Acts, Records and Proceedings shall be proved, and the Effect thereof.

**Section. 2.**

The Citizens of each State shall be entitled to all Privileges and Immunities of Citizens in the several States.

A Person charged in any State with Treason, Felony, or other Crime, who shall flee from Justice, and be found in another State, shall on Demand of the executive Authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having Jurisdiction of the Crime.

No Person held to Service or Labour in one State, under the Laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in Consequence of any Law or Regulation therein, be discharged from such Service or Labour, but shall be delivered up on Claim of the Party to whom such Service or Labour may be due.

**Section. 3.**

New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the Jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the Junction of two or more States, or Parts of States, without the Consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.
The Congress shall have Power to dispose of and make all needful Rules and Regulations respecting the Territory or other Property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to Prejudice any Claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

Section. 4.

The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a Republican Form of Government, and shall protect each of them against Invasion; and on Application of the Legislature, or of the Executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened), against domestic Violence.

Article. V.

The Congress, whenever two thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose Amendments to this Constitution, or, on the Application of the Legislatures of two thirds of the several States, shall call a Convention for proposing Amendments, which, in either Case, shall be valid to all Intents and Purposes, as Part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three fourths of the several States, or by Conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other Mode of Ratification may be proposed by the Congress; Provided that no Amendment which may be made prior to the Year One thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any Manner affect the first and fourth Clauses in the Ninth Section of the first Article; and that no State, without its Consent, shall be deprived of its equal Suffrage in the Senate.

Article. VI.

All Debts contracted and Engagements entered into, before the Adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.

This Constitution, and the Laws of the United States which shall be made in Pursuance thereof; and all Treaties made, or which shall be made, under the Authority of the United States, shall be the supreme Law of the Land; and the Judges in every State shall be bound thereby, any Thing in the Constitution or Laws of any State to the Contrary notwithstanding.

The Senators and Representatives before mentioned, and the Members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial Officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by Oath or Affirmation, to support this Constitution; but no religious Test shall ever be required as a Qualification to any Office or public Trust under the United States.
Article. VII.

The Ratification of the Conventions of nine States, shall be sufficient for the Establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the Same.

The Word, “the,” being interlined between the seventh and eighth Lines of the first Page, the Word “Thirty” being partly written on an Erazure in the fifteenth Line of the first Page, The Words “is tried” being interlined between the thirty second and thirty third Lines of the first Page and the Word “the” being interlined between the forty third and forty fourth Lines of the second Page.

Attest William Jackson Secretary

Done in Convention by the Unanimous Consent of the States present the Seventeenth Day of September in the Year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and Eighty seven and of the Independence of the United States of America the Twelfth In witness whereof We have hereunto subscribed our Names,

G. Washington President and deputy from Virginia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Delaware</th>
<th>Maryland</th>
<th>Virginia</th>
<th>North Carolina</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Geo: Read</td>
<td>James McHenry</td>
<td>John Blair</td>
<td>William Blount</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gunning Bedford</td>
<td>Dan of St. Thos</td>
<td>James Madison</td>
<td>Richard Dobbs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jun</td>
<td>Jenifer</td>
<td>Jr.</td>
<td>Spaight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John Dickinson</td>
<td>Danl. Carroll</td>
<td></td>
<td>Hu Williamson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Richard Bassett</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jaco: Broom</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Carolina</td>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>New Hampshire</td>
<td>Massachusetts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J. Rutledge</td>
<td>William Few</td>
<td>John Langdon</td>
<td>Nathaniel Gorham</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charles Coates</td>
<td>Abr Baldwin</td>
<td>Nicholas Gilman</td>
<td>Rufus King</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>worth Pinckney</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charles Pickney</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pierce Butler</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connecticut</td>
<td>New York</td>
<td>New Jersey</td>
<td>Pennsylvania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wm Saml Johnson</td>
<td>Alexander Hamilton</td>
<td>Wil. Livingston</td>
<td>B. Franklin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roger Sherman</td>
<td></td>
<td>David Brearley</td>
<td>Thomas Mifflin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Wm. Peterons</td>
<td>Robt. Morris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Jona: Dayton</td>
<td>Geo. Clymer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Thos. FitzSimons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Jared Ingersoll</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>James Wilson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Gouv Morris</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
THE BILL OF RIGHTS

Excerpted from the Armed Forces Officer

The following text is a transcription of the first ten amendments to the Constitution in their original form. These amendments were ratified December 15, 1791, and form what is known as the “Bill of Rights.”

Amendment I

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances.

Amendment II

A well regulated Militia, being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear Arms, shall not be infringed.

Amendment III

No Soldier shall, in time of peace be quartered in any house, without the consent of the Owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

Amendment IV

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no Warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by Oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

Amendment V

No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a Grand Jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the Militia, when in actual service in time of War or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

Amendment VI

In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the Assistance of Counsel for his defence.
Amendment VII

In Suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury, shall be otherwise reexamined in any Court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

Amendment VIII

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

Amendment IX

The enumeration in the Constitution, of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

Amendment X

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

Bibliography:

Civilian Control of the Military

Cognitive Lesson Objective:
• Know the roles of the President, the executive branch, Congress, and civilian control of the military.

Cognitive Samples of Behavior:
• Summarize the growth of executive dominance in foreign affairs.
• Describe key Constitutional powers of the US Congress.
• List the major differences between the two legislative houses.
• Describe Louis Smith’s criteria that govern civil-military relations in democratic states.

Affective Lesson Objective:
• Respond to the importance of the Roles of the President, the executive branch, Congress, and civilian control of the military.

Affective Samples of Behavior:
• Willingly ask questions concerning the key issues behind the various roles discussed in this lesson.
• Discuss why comprehending these roles is important to the student as a member of the US Armed Forces.
“The executive Power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his Office during the Term of four Years, and, together with the Vice President chosen for the same Term, be elected, The President shall be Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, and of the Militia of the several States, when called into the actual Service of the United States; he may require the Opinion, in writing, of the principal Officer in each of the executive Departments, upon any Subject relating to the Duties of their respective Offices, …”

- Article II, Sections 1 and 2, of the US Constitution.

As an Air Force officer, it is your responsibility to understand the unique role of your Commander in Chief and the Executive Branch. Just as importantly, you must understand how Congress can impact the US military and why civilian control of the US military is imperative.

**President**

The power of the executive branch is vested in the President, who also serves as Commander in Chief of the Armed Forces. The President appoints the Cabinet and oversees the various agencies and departments of the federal government.

In order for a person to become President, he or she must be a natural-born citizen of the United States, be at least 35 years of age, and have resided in the United States for at least 14 years. Once elected, the President serves a term of four years and may be re-elected only once.

**Historical Background**

Established under Article 2 of the Constitution, the office of the President was unique and without precedent, although some of its features, including the designation “president,” were foreshadowed in several state constitutions. The principal architect was James Wilson of Pennsylvania, head of the faction at the Constitutional Convention calling for a strong executive on the ground that in a country as large as the United States, only a strong President could have influence in distant parts of the land. As chairman of the Committee of Detail, he proposed a single rather than a plural head, which would have control of foreign affairs and be able to exercise a legislative veto. Wilson’s view that the President must be a man of the people carried the day, though his desire that the President be elected directly by the people did not.

The question of how to choose the executive was commingled with the question of how to keep the office independent of the legislature. The outcome was the creation of an electoral college chosen by the state legislatures exclusively for the purpose of naming a president. The assumption that George Washington would be the first President and willing
to serve indefinitely implied that there should be no limit on the reelection of the President. The committee, appointed late in the convention to deal with unfinished business, fixed the length of the President’s term, much discussed, at four years.

Charged to see that the laws are faithfully executed, the President is head of the executive branch and Commander in Chief of the armed forces. Through the veto he exercises legislative power, and through his power to appoint judges and the requirement that he execute the laws, he exercises judicial power.

**Constitutional and Political Powers**

The executive branch of government has the major responsibility for the formulation and execution of foreign and national security policy. At the pinnacle of this system, of course, is the President, whose powers are both constitutional and political in nature. The President is assisted by relevant executive branch agencies, organized around, but not limited to, those advisers and agencies named by the National Security Act.

The constitutional responsibilities of the President in the national security area are stated succinctly in Article 2, Section 2 of that document. By constitutional provision, the President is designated as Commander in Chief of the armed forces, has the sole authority to negotiate treaties with foreign governments, and has the power to appoint and remove ambassadors and other officials. This short listing reflects both the compactness of the Constitution and the relative simplicity of the time in which it was written. In 1787, after all, governmental activity was considerably more restricted than it is today, and the international role of a young and physically isolated United States was marginal and circumscribed.

Presidential responsibilities have expanded as the United States’ role in the world has increased. As the size of American armed forces has increased and American commitments with security implications have become global, the President’s role as Commander in Chief has become much greater. The power of the President to act in this capacity, particularly in the actual employment of armed forces, is shared with Congress and is highly controversial. Important checks and balances are built into this role. For one thing, the President commands only those armed forces raised and maintained by Congress, and only Congress has the authority to declare war. This was originally a significant limitation of presidential power; but since nations now seldom formally declare war, it has become less important.

Such mechanisms as the controversial War Powers Act (which places reporting and approval requirements on the employment of American forces in combat) and the Arms Exchange Control Act (which limits the size of arms exchanges that can be undertaken without specific congressional approval) have been enacted to attempt to restore congressional power in this area.
The treaty-making power has also expanded. According to the Constitution, only the President or his representative (plenipotentiaries) can negotiate treaties with foreign governments. The framers of the Constitution assumed that agreements between the United States and other countries would be in the form of treaties and, as a result, gave Congress a check by requiring the President to secure the advice and consent of two-thirds of the Senate on any treaty.

The sheer volume of foreign affairs no longer allows all international interactions of the US government to be handled through the treaty process. Instead, the overwhelming majority of all formal relations now take the form of executive agreements, formal obligations between the United States and other governments that have the force of law but do not require senatorial approval. In these cases, the congressional check is informal. If the agreement requires spending American monies (they usually do), Congress can exercise the powers of purse; if not, Congress can retaliate against the president in some other area of public policy.

Another presidential power is the authority to appoint and remove officials. The advantage this confers to presidents is in helping to ensure the loyalty of key decision-makers and implementers. The power to appoint allows presidents to name those who share their views, and the power to remove assures continuing loyalty. Originally, the Constitution envisioned that this authority would apply mainly to ambassadors, but as the power and size of the federal government have expanded, so have the numbers of appointees. Now, literally thousands of so-called political appointees (presidential appointees who do not have civil service protection) are named at the senior and middle management levels of various cabinet and other agencies.

Once again, there is a congressional check in that almost all important presidential appointments require confirmation by the Senate. The confirmation process does not encompass the personal staff of presidents, which includes the professional staff of the National Security Council, an exemption that became controversial in the wake of the Iran-Contra affair. Congress, which does not have the time or resources to examine all appointees exhaustively, uses the check selectively and thus Congress reserves its detailed consideration for controversial positions and individuals.

If the constitutional prerogatives of presidents convey powers, their political powers can be even more impressive. Presidential political powers are in areas that are not subject to congressional checks and balances and thus can yield advantages over Congress. At least five such powers stand out.

The first is that the President is the only nationally elected official. Thus, the President is the only politician with a national constituency and the only person who can legitimately claim to be the representative of and speaker for “all the people.” By contrast, Senators and Representatives can only speak for their states or districts. Thus, their individual views are generally not accorded the same weight as that of the President.
The second advantage presidents have is that, at least nominally, the entire federal bureaucracy works for them. Although presidents rapidly learn the limits of their control over elements of the bureaucratic structures (especially those structures run by people with civil service protection), the advantage in terms of access to information and expertise on the range of public matters is great, since the resources available to Congress are considerably smaller.

The third advantage is the mantle of office. Simply occupying the presidency bestows prestige, credibility, and deference to the holder of the office. As the political leader of the world’s most powerful nation, the president is automatically a world leader. Aside from the prestige this provides, the position means presidents routinely have access to other world leaders and thus can claim personal, even intimate, knowledge of such contemporaries. At the same time, what presidents do and say is important simply because they are presidents.

The importance of the presidency and its occupants leads to a fourth advantage—unparalleled access to the electronic and print media. What any president does is news, and there is an entire White House press corps whose entire livelihood and success are based on its surmises about presidents. If a president wants publicity for a position that he does not wish to officially endorse, all he has to do is wander down to the press room, declare his remarks off the record (at which point the president becomes a “well-placed spokesman” or the like), and the total resources of the electronic and print media are at his beck and call. At times such attention may be closer than a president might like. On the other hand, no other public figure can command such media attention.

Fifth and finally, presidential power in the national security area has been enhanced by de facto delegation of authority from Congress. With certain high-profile exceptions, Congress does not enmesh itself in the day-to-day workings of national security policy, and with good reason. For one thing, national security affairs are almost invariably complex and multifaceted, and most congressmen have neither the expertise nor the interest to follow them in depth. For another thing, the sheer volume of national security affairs is beyond the capabilities of congressional scrutiny, especially since Congress must consider public affairs across the range of public policy areas. Finally, many security problems are time-sensitive. The structure and nature of Congress are best suited to situations that allow thorough deliberation and debate, both of which are time-consuming. National security situations often move faster than the pace of congressional debate, so that a president must act after only informal consultation with the leaders of the houses of Congress and the chairpersons of relevant committees.
The cumulative effect of the President’s constitutional and political position is dominance of the national security system. Generally speaking, presidential ascendency has been expanding throughout the period since World War II. Before that war, foreign and security policies were relatively uncomplicated. The chief, and virtually sole, institution responsible for carrying out foreign policy was the State Department. Concerns that we now routinely label as national security considerations were of comparatively minor importance.

**The Executive Branch**

The emergence of the United States as a major world power in competition with the Soviet Union after the war changed the executive branch. The national security implications of foreign policy became more important, and the terms foreign policy and national security policy came to be used interchangeably.

This change in orientation was recognized officially and organizationally in the National Security Act of 1947. In addition to creating an independent Air Force, the Central Intelligence Agency and the Department of Defense, the act provided a structure within which to fashion national security policy, known as the National Security Council (NSC). The members of the council are the President (who convenes it and serves as chair), the Vice President, the Secretary of State and the Secretary of Defense. In addition, the President may appoint additional members, and the act specifies that the Director of Central Intelligence (DCI) and the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff serve as advisers to the NSC. Finally, the act contains a provision for a professional staff to coordinate the council’s activities. The position of National Security Adviser (NSA) evolved from this provision.

In recent years presidents have had to wrestle with questions that were dealt with on the municipal or state levels. They are now involved with public health matters, homelessness, child care and innumerable other issues never dreamed of by the Founding Fathers. A consequence is that presidents have become, after a fashion, “super mayors” and “super governors,” drawing political fire they formerly were spared. To meet the nation’s myriad needs, the President must rely on an array of advisers, whom he selects on the basis of personal and political preference that is as varied as the presidents themselves.

The Cabinet, an extra constitutional body that came into existence in 1791, is the President’s “official family.” Originally consisting of the heads of the Departments of State, Treasury, and War and the Office of the Attorney General, today it has fifteen members, making it an unwieldy body for the making of decisions. The President relies heavily on in-house staff and particularly on the Chief of Staff, who is effectively the main consultant in generating policy.

**Brief History of the Senate**

The Congress of the United States was created by Article I, Section 1, of the Constitution, adopted by the Constitutional Convention on September 17, 1787, providing that:
“All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and a House of Representatives.”

The first Congress under the Constitution met on March 4, 1789, in the Federal Hall in New York City. The membership then consisted of 20 Senators and 59 Representatives. The two houses of Congress resulted from the “Great Compromise” between large and small states reached at the Constitutional Convention in 1787. Membership of the House of Representatives is apportioned according to a state’s population, while in the Senate each state has equal representation.

The Constitution assigns the Senate and House equal responsibility for declaring war, maintaining the armed forces, assessing taxes, borrowing money, minting currency, regulating commerce, and making all laws necessary for the operation of the government. The Senate holds exclusive authority to advise and consent on treaties and nominations.

The Constitution requires that senators be at least thirty years of age, citizens of the United States, and residents of the states from which they are chosen. Originally, the Constitution also provided that state legislatures would elect senators, but in 1913 the Seventeenth Amendment established direct election of senators by the people.

While the House in 1789 immediately opened its doors to the public, the Senate conducted its business in secret session for the first few years, when it met in New York and Philadelphia. Senators expected that they would act primarily as an advisory council to the president, and as a senior body perfecting, by amendment, legislation that came up from the House. However, public pressure encouraged the Senate to construct a visitor’s gallery, which opened in 1795. In 1800, when the federal government moved from Philadelphia to the newly created District of Columbia, both the House and Senate chambers provided public galleries.

A major turning point in the Senate’s history occurred with the passage of the 1946 Legislative Reorganization Act, which reshaped the committee system and provided the first professional staff for senators and committees. The Cold War brought an increase in legislation, with the expansion of the national defense program, foreign aid, and economic and military assistance to America’s allies. During the 1950s the Senate engaged in sharp debates over civil rights policies, which stimulated lengthy filibusters, but which eventually resulted in passage of the landmark Civil Rights Act of 1964 and Voting Rights Act of 1965. The Senate also divided over American involvement in the war in Vietnam. Although senators overwhelmingly approved the Gulf of Tonkin Resolution in 1964, they later disagreed over its application, and voted for its repeal. Senate concern over increased presidential powers in foreign affairs led to the passage of the War Powers Act of 1973, requiring Congressional notification and approval whenever American troops are sent into combat.

**Congress Today**
The Senate is composed of 100 Members, 2 from each State, who are elected to serve for a term of 6 years. There are three classes of Senators, and a new class is elected every 2 years.

The House of Representatives comprises 435 Representatives. Population determines the number representing each State, but every State is entitled to at least one Representative. The people elect members for 2-year terms, all terms running for the same period. Both the Senators and the Representatives must be residents of the State from which they are chosen. In addition, a Senator must be at least 30 years of age and must have been a citizen of the United States for at least 9 years; a Representative must be at least 25 years of age and must have been a citizen for at least 7 years.

A Resident Commissioner from Puerto Rico (elected for a 4-year term) and Delegates from American Samoa, the District of Columbia, Guam, and the Virgin Islands complete the composition of the Congress of the United States. Delegates are elected for a term of 2 years. The Resident Commissioner and Delegates may take part in the floor discussions, but have no vote in the full House or in the Committee of the Whole House on the State of the Union. They do, however, vote in the committees to which they are assigned.

**Committees:** Largely committees of both Houses of Congress do the work of preparing and considering legislation. Each House has standing committees, permanent groups conducting business throughout the Congress which focuses on a certain, long-lasting issue. In addition, there are select committees in each House, and various congressional commissions and joint committees composed of members of both Houses. Each House may also appoint special investigating committees.

The membership of the standing committees of each House is chosen by a vote of the entire body; members of other committees are appointed under the provisions of the measure establishing them.

Each bill and resolution is usually referred to the appropriate committee, which may report a bill out in its original form, favorably or unfavorably, recommend amendments, or allow the proposed legislation to die in committee without action.

**Sessions:** Section 4 of Article I of the Constitution makes it mandatory that “The Congress shall assemble at least once in every Year...” Under this provision, also, the date for convening Congress was designated originally as the first Monday in December, “unless they shall by law appoint a different day.” Eighteen acts were passed, up to 1820, providing for the meeting of Congress on other days of the year. From 1820 to 1934, however, Congress met regularly on the first Monday in December. In 1934, the Twentieth Amendment changed the convening of Congress to January 3, unless Congress “shall by law appoint a different day.” In addition, the President, according to Article II, section 3, of the Constitution “may, on extraordinary Occasions, convene both Houses, or either of them, and in Case of Disagreement between them, with Respect to the Time of Adjournment, he may adjourn them to such Time as he shall think proper...”
Powers Of Congress: Article I, section 8, of the Constitution defines the powers of Congress. Included are the powers to assess and collect taxes—called the chief power; to regulate commerce, both interstate and foreign; to coin money; to establish post offices and post roads; to establish courts inferior to the Supreme Court; to declare war; and to raise and maintain an army and a navy. Congress is further empowered “To provide for calling forth the Militia to execute the Laws of the Union, suppress Insurrections and repel Invasions;,” and “To make all Laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into Execution the foregoing Powers, and all other Powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States, or in any Department or Officer thereof.”

Prohibitions Upon Congress: Section 9 of Article I of the Constitution also imposes prohibitions upon Congress. “The Privilege of the Writ of Habeas Corpus shall not be suspended, unless when in Cases of Rebellion or Invasion the public Safety may require it.” A bill of attainder or an ex post facto law cannot be passed. No export duty can be imposed. Ports of one State cannot be given preference over those of another State. “No money shall be drawn from the Treasury, but in Consequence of Appropriations made by Law... ” No title of nobility may be granted.

Rights Of Members: According to Section 6 of Article I, Members of Congress are granted certain privileges. In no case, except in treason, felony, and breach of the peace, can Members be arrested while attending sessions of Congress “and in going to and returning from the same...” Furthermore, the Members cannot be questioned in any other place for remarks made in Congress. Each House may expel a Member of its body by a two-thirds vote.

Enactment Of Laws: All bills and joint resolutions must pass both the House of Representatives and the Senate and must be signed by the President, except those proposing a constitutional amendment, in order to become law, or be passed over the President’s veto by a two-thirds vote of both Houses of Congress. Section 7 of Article I states “If any Bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted), it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.”

When a bill or joint resolution is introduced in the House, the usual procedure for its enactment into law is as follows:

- Assignment to House committee having jurisdiction;
- If favorably considered, it is reported to the House either in its original form or with recommended amendments;
- If the bill or resolution is passed by the House, it is messaged to the Senate and referred to the committee having jurisdiction;
- In the Senate committee the bill, if favorably considered, may be reported in the form as received from the House, or with recommended amendments;
• The approved bill or resolution is reported to the Senate, and if passed by that body, is returned to the House;

• If one body does not accept the amendments to a bill by the other body, a conference committee comprised of Members of both bodies is usually appointed to effect a compromise;

• When the bill or joint resolution is finally approved by both Houses, it is signed by the Speaker (or Speaker pro tempore) and the Vice President (or President pro tempore or acting President pro tempore) and is presented to the President; and

• Once the President’s signature is affixed, the measure becomes a law. If the President vetoes the bill, it cannot become a law unless it is repassed by a two-thirds vote of both Houses.

### MAJOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE TWO HOUSES OF CONGRESS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HOUSE</th>
<th>SENATE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>435 members serving two-year terms</td>
<td>100 members serving rotating six-year terms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaker’s referral of bills to committee is hard to challenge.</td>
<td>Referral decisions easy to challenge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Committees almost always consider legislation first.</td>
<td>Committee consideration easily bypassed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rules Committee powerful; controls time of debate, admissibility of amendments.</td>
<td>Rules Committee weak; few limits on debate or amendments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Debate usually limited to one hour.</td>
<td>Unlimited debate unless shortened by unanimous consent or by invoking cloture.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-germane amendments may not be introduced from floor.</td>
<td>Non-germane amendments may be introduced (riders).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Constitutional Role of the Senate

The Senate was designed to protect against the passions of the moment by exercising thorough deliberation over the wishes of the majority of the people. Senators stand for election only every six years—meant to provide them some distance from popular opinion. Until 1913, Senators were not directly elected by the citizenry, but by the legislatures of each state. Adoption of the 17th Amendment to the Constitution changed the election of Senators by each state assembly to direct election by the people.
The Senate is considered a continuing body, meaning it never goes out of existence. Only one-third of its membership runs for re-election at any one time. The continuity and six-year terms were meant to allow the Senate to serve as a restraining influence on the House. Since a Senator represents an entire state, he/she has a more heterogeneous electorate and must be concerned with a broader range of views and interests than a Member of the House with a narrower constituency.

**Constitutional Duties**

The Senate was given advise and consent power by the US Constitution. It has the responsibility for ratifying treaties negotiated by the President with foreign countries and approving the President's nominees for such high-level federal positions as cabinet officers, ambassadors, and federal judges.

**Constitutional Officers**

The Constitution gives the Senate two presiding officers: the Vice President of the United States is the President of the Senate, and in his absence, the President pro tempore of the Senate presides. Both are addressed as Mr. President when in the Chair presiding. The Vice-President rarely presides, arriving only for ceremonial occasions or to break a tie vote. The President pro tempore is also often absent since he also serves on a committee.

**The House**

The House leadership is structured essentially the same as the Senate, with the members in the political parties responsible for the election of their respective leader and whips.

The elected officers of the House of Representatives include the Clerk, the Sergeant at Arms, and the Chaplain.

The Clerk is custodian of the Seal of the House and administers the primary legislative activities of the House. These duties include: accepting the credentials of the Members-elect and calling the Members to order at the commencement of the first session of each Congress, keeping the Journal, taking all votes and certifying the passage of bills, and processing all legislation. Through various departments, the Clerk is also responsible for floor and committee reporting services, legislative information and reference services, the administration of House reports pursuant to certain legislation including the Ethics in Government Act, the Federal Election Campaign Act, and the Federal Regulation of Lobbying Act; the distribution of House documents and supervision of the operations of the House Document Room; and administration of the House Page Program. The Clerk is also charged with supervision of the offices vacated by Members due to death, resignation, or expulsion.
The Sergeant at Arms maintains the order of the House under the direction of the Speaker, and is the keeper of the Mace. As a member of the US Capitol Police Board, the Sergeant at Arms is the chief law enforcement officer for the House, and serves as Board Chairman each even year. The ceremonial and protocol duties parallel those of the Senate Sergeant at Arms and include arranging the inauguration of the President of the United States, Joint Sessions of Congress, visits to the House of heads of state, and funerals of Members of Congress. The Sergeant at Arms enforces the rules relating to the privileges of the Hall of the House, including admission to the galleries.

The Chief Administrative Officer is charged with the administration of other House support services including: payroll, benefits, postal operations and internal mail distribution, office furnishings, office equipment, office supplies, and the administration of the House televised floor proceedings.

Special Powers Of The House Of Representatives: The House of Representatives is granted the power of originating all bills for the raising of revenue. Both Houses of Congress act in impeachment proceedings, which, according to the Constitution, may be instituted against the President, Vice President, and all civil officers of the United States. The House of Representatives has the sole power of impeachment, and the Senate has the sole power to try impeachments.

Constitutional Role of the House of Representatives

With its entire membership standing for election every two years, the House of Representatives is considered the chamber closest to the electorate. In constitutional theory, running so frequently for reelection is believed to allow Representatives to come to know their constituencies well. This enables House Members to accurately reflect the views of the local citizenry and better advocate the needs of each district. Members of the House are also likely to be more sensitive to changes in popular sentiment.

The House goes out of existence every two years, at the end of a Congress. With the beginning of each new Congress, it must reconstitute itself by readopting its rules and electing its leaders and officers anew.

Constitutional Duties

The House was given the authority to originate all revenue bills and over the years, tradition has extended this power of origination to spending bills as well. The House thereby sets the framework for the important questions of collecting taxes and raising money for the US treasury and then distributing it through legislative appropriations. However, the Senate must enact these same measures if they are to become law, and it is free to amend them. Language differences in the two versions must then be negotiated and agreed upon by both the House and Senate.
Constitutional Officer

The Constitution names the Speaker as the presiding officer of the House. Although it is true there is no requirement the Speaker be a member of the House, they always have been. In House tradition, both parties nominate a candidate for Speaker and the entire membership votes for their choice on the opening day of a new Congress. Because the majority party inherently has more votes than the minority party, the majority candidate for the post has always won.

The Speaker is not only the leader of the majority party; they are also the presiding officer of the entire chamber. In that capacity, they are given the power to recognize Members to speak, or to refuse recognition. The Speaker decides upon the legislative agenda, consulting with the Majority Leader, committee chairmen, and others. Given their many political responsibilities, the Speaker most often turns over the daily procedural responsibilities to a “Speaker pro tempore”, a majority party Member of the House appointed by the Speaker to be their designated substitute.

Civilian Control of the Military

Both houses of Congress and the President play a key role in one of our most important standards, ensuring the military serves the people. Balancing the people’s desire for liberty with the country’s need for security is a very challenging task. Democracies, both old and new, must continually meet this challenge. In a democracy, the people ultimately decide how that balance is to be achieved, and whether it has been achieved in a satisfactory manner. That is to say, the people ultimately determine the military’s purpose and whether that purpose has been fulfilled. The Armed Forces have a special responsibility to be held accountable to the people. The military must therefore solicit and maintain public trust. To achieve the balance between liberty and security in a democracy, society and the military which serves it must subscribe to shared values and a common purpose. Hence, there must be maximum free and open communication between the military and the society it is pledged to defend. It is up to you as an Air Force officer to understand the unique relationship between freedom, liberty and security.

EXCERPTS FROM DEMOCRACY AND DEFENSE: CIVILIAN CONTROL OF THE MILITARY IN THE UNITED STATES

by David F. Trask

In 1782, just after the Revolutionary War (1775 - 1781), certain officers who felt that they had received inadequate pay for wartime services in the victorious Continental Army contemplated a military revolt against the civilian government. These malcontents, hoping to secure the support of their commander, gathered in Newburgh, New York, to
hear the views of General George Washington. Before he offered his prepared remarks, Washington donned a pair of eyeglasses and said: “Gentlemen, you will permit me to put on my spectacles, for I have not only grown gray, but almost blind, in the service of my country.” Then he flatly refused to support a military mutiny, calling instead for disbandment of the army and continuing loyalty to the civilian government. Washington’s firm stance forestalled the mutiny.

Ever since, US military leadership has accepted civilian control. Military coups and arbitrary military control of government are entirely absent from the experience of the United States. Even during periods of warfare, the nation has conducted regularly scheduled political events, including presidential elections during the years of the Civil War, World War II, and the Korean and Vietnam conflicts.

This enviable record results from the unshakable conviction of the American people that civilian control of the armed services is an essential aspect of government of, by and for the people. In a democracy, public policy is decided by the majority, subject to the rule of law instead of brute force. Civilian control of the military helps to ensure that decisions concerning defense policy do not compromise fundamental democratic values, such as freedom of speech, freedom of the press and freedom of religion.

However, as George Washington recognized, democratic nations such as the United States must maintain armed forces. From time to time, external threats develop, and on occasion, internal conflicts also occur, such as the American Civil War, to which the government must respond by enlarging the military. These circumstances generated some tensions between military and civilian leaders, but the latter always prevailed.

Certain criteria govern civil-military relations in democratic states. These influence the governmental structure of the United States. A part of the American way of life from the beginning of the nation, they are completely unchallenged. Louis Smith, a leading student of civil-military relations, has summarized them effectively. They include:

- Civilian leadership of the executive branch of government. The national leadership is accountable to a popular majority through frequent and regular elections. Also, the chief executive may be removed by the exercise of well-established constitutional processes. For example, the Congress of the United States may discharge presidents from office, if they commit “high crimes and misdemeanors.”

- Statutory provisions to establish fundamental national security policies. Elected legislative representatives of the people enact laws that define the defense organization and policies of the nation. The chief executive enforces these directives. In the United States, the Constitution provides basic guidelines, and the Congress passes legislation that defines the scope of military activity.

- Judicial defense of civilian control. The judiciary prevents the military from compromising civil liberties, including those of the members of the armed services. In the United States, the Supreme Court is empowered to hear cases that involve military infringements on the rights of the citizenry.
How did the American people come to establish civilian control of the military? How did they manage to preserve such control despite significant challenges to national security at various points over the last two centuries?

**Fear of Standing Armies: Colonial and Revolutionary Eras**

Fear of military oppression motivated many of the Europeans who migrated to the New World prior to 1775. This was particularly true of the largest group who made the dangerous voyage across the Atlantic Ocean, those from the British Isles.

The English settlers remembered the disruptions associated with the revolutionary disturbances that had taken place in England between 1640 and 1689. Others—from Scotland, Wales and Ireland—retained powerful memories of their unsuccessful struggles to maintain independence. The experience of constant warfare and its hardships was no less important among immigrants from the European continent, especially Germans from central Europe. They opposed all forms of unfettered military activity.

Wrenching memories of the Old World lingered in the 13 original English colonies along the eastern seaboard of North America, giving rise to deep opposition to the maintenance of a standing army in time of peace. All too often the standing armies of Europe were regarded as, at best, a rationale for imposing high taxes, and, at worst, a means to control the civilian population and extort its wealth.

American colonists expressed antimilitary sentiments despite the fact that they often faced military dangers. There were conflicts with the Spanish and the French, and the colonists had to protect frontier areas from displaced Indian tribes. To meet most of these challenges, the colonists relied on a militia composed of male citizens between the ages of 18 and 45, who were called into temporary military service during emergencies. Militiamen provided their own equipment, including rifles and horses. They were occasionally mustered for limited training. However, during the four wars with France that took place between 1689 and 1763, the colonial legislatures turned to a volunteer force instead of the militia. Even then, England contributed the most important military and naval forces to these wars, especially during the last one, the French and Indian War (1754—1763), which ended French control of Canada and greatly weakened the hostile Indian tribes.

By 1775 the Americans found themselves in open revolt against English authority backed up by military might. It was reminiscent of the military tyranny they had come to the New World to escape. When the United States declared its independence in 1776, the Declaration of Independence singled out among colonial grievances a catalog of English military measures:

- The King [of England] has kept among us, in times of Peace, Standing Armies without the consent of our legislatures.
• He has affected to render the Military independent of and superior to the Civil Power.

• The King was also arraigned for quartering troops in the homes of the populace and for exempting them from trial in local jurisdictions when they committed crimes. Finally, he was charged with “transporting large Armies of foreign Mercenaries to complete the works of death, devastation, and tyranny.” (“Mercenaries” referred to German-speaking troops known as Hessians who were brought to America to reinforce the English troops assigned to quell the Revolution.)

**Conclusion**

At the end of the twentieth century, the presidency more than ever was what Theodore Roosevelt called it, a “bully pulpit” for the exercise of moral leadership and the impartation of national values. It remained the richest political prize in the world, quested after like no other. Congress has continued their efforts to maintain the Constitutional intent of “checks and balances.” An effective democracy requires the following:

• An effective democracy requires civilian control of the military.

• Civilian control of the military exemplifies the principle that military force is not an end in itself but a means that the civil authority can use to bring about certain political objectives.

• Civilian control means that tactical decisions regarding military operations in the field must serve the political and strategic goals established by the civil authority.

• The officers and enlisted personnel of the US armed services accept the principle of civilian control as a requirement of military professionalism.

• Reflecting views prevalent in the colonial period, the Constitution of the United States ensures effective civilian control of the military.

• The American public accepts military personnel for political office only if they retire from active military duty.

• The President is commander in chief of the armed forces, and civilians head the US Department of Defense and the individual service branches.

• In World Wars I and II, civilian officials were in charge of marshalling the resources needed to conduct successful combat operations.

• In the Cold War period, civilians ensured the development and maintenance of the forces necessary to deter the Soviet threat.

---

**Bibliography:**
Affective Lesson Objective:
• Respond to a discussion on the descriptions of air and space systems.

Affective Sample of Behavior:
• Respond with interest to the descriptions and characteristics of current air and space systems.
AIR AND SPACE
SYSTEMS CAPABILITIES

The Air Force was created for a specific purpose: the exploitation of a technology that had come of age—the manned combat aircraft—as a means of delivering weapons. Today, the US Air Force stands as the most powerful air force in the world. It has roughly 3,700 operational aircraft of all types, including bombers, cargo transports, ground-attack-fighter interceptors, and trainer aircraft. The Air Force also has a substantial number of helicopters for various missions such as search and rescue, cargo transport, and special operations.

It is important, regardless of your career field or Air Force Specialty Code, to understand the basics of these aircraft, their missions and their characteristics, in order to effectively operate and support them, as well as to procure their future replacements. Furthermore, in order for you to plan and execute an air campaign in preparation for the Air Force Employment Exercise (AFEX), you need to understand airpower systems and capabilities, missions and functions, and force packaging.

This article provides an outline of twenty-seven air and space systems to include variants. These systems are used directly or indirectly in the AFEX wargame. As you survey each system, focus first on the mission of the air and space system and then several characteristics that distinguish the system from other weapon systems.

Global Positioning System (GPS)

Mission: Constellation of orbiting satellites that provides positioning, navigation, timing and velocity information to military and civilian users worldwide

Characteristics:

- Satellites orbit the earth every 12 hours, emitting continuous navigation signals.
- Can detect nuclear detonations.
- Limitations: GPS receivers can be jammed.
- During Operation Iraqi Freedom, the GPS satellite constellation allowed the delivery of 5,500 GPS-guided Joint Direct Attack Munitions (JDAM) with pinpoint precision (to about 10 feet) and with minimal collateral damage.
Defense Meteorological Satellite Program (DMSP)

**Mission:** Collects weather data for US military operations.

**Characteristics:**
- Utilizes Operational Linescan System which provides continuous visual and infrared imagery of cloud cover over an area of 1,600 nautical miles.
- Global coverage is accomplished every 14 hours.
- Also measures space environmental parameters to monitor auroral activity and predict the effects of space environment on satellite operations.
- Tracking stations in New Hampshire, Greenland, Alaska, and Hawaii receive DMSP data and electronically transfer them to the Air Force Weather Agency at Offutt AFB Nebraska.

U-2S “Dragon Lady”

**Mission:** Provides high-altitude, all-weather surveillance and reconnaissance, day or night.

**Characteristics:**
- Routinely flies at extremely high altitudes (70,000+ feet).
- Capable of gathering a variety of imagery, including multi-spectral electro-optic, infrared, and synthetic aperture radar products which can be stored or sent to ground exploitation centers.
- Can fly unrefueled for over 14 hours – range of over 7,000 miles.
- In October 1962, the U-2 photographed the buildup of Soviet offensive nuclear missiles in Cuba, touching off the Cuban Missile Crisis. In more recent times, the U-2 has provided intelligence during operations in Korea, the Balkans, Afghanistan, and Iraq.
RC-135 “Rivet Joint”, “Combat Sent”, Cobra Ball”

**Mission:** Reconnaissance, surveillance and electronic warfare support.

**Characteristics:**

- Rivet Joint” can work with E-3 AWACS during combat to provide direct, near real time electronic warfare support and reconnaissance data to theater commanders and combat forces.

- “Combat Sent” can measure and analyze foreign electronic and infrared equipment.

- “Cobra Ball” self-contained Measurement and Signature (MASINT) intelligence collection platform. Has distinctive black wing.

- The RC-135 fleet has participated in every sizable armed conflict involving US assets during its tenure.

RQ-4A “Global Hawk”

**Mission:** High altitude reconnaissance, long endurance, unmanned aerial system (UAS).

**Characteristics:**

- Provides near-real-time high resolution imagery of large geographical areas all day and night in all types of weather.

- Can fly autonomously from takeoff to landing – missions are pre-programmed – can fly 1,200 miles and remain on station for 24 hours.

- Maximum altitude: 60,000 feet; payload: 3,000 lbs; wingspan: 130.9 feet.

- In 2001, became the first unmanned, powered aircraft to cross the world’s largest ocean when it landed in Australia after a 23-hour, 20 minute trip.
MQ-9 “Reaper”

**Mission:** Medium to high altitude, long endurance remotely piloted aircraft system that provides intelligence collection and strike against high-value and time-sensitive targets.

**Characteristics:**

- Integrates an infrared sensor, color/monochrome daylight TV camera, image-intensified TV camera, laser designator, and laser illuminator.
- Can employ four laser-guided missiles, Air-to-Ground Missile-114 Hellfire, which possess highly accurate, low-collateral damage, anti-armor and anti-personnel engagement capabilities.
- Maximum altitude: 50,000 feet; payload: 3,750 lbs; wingspan: 66 feet.

C-130 “Hercules”

**Mission:** Provides tactical and intra-theater airlift.

**Characteristics:**

- Can use short, rough runways.
- Up to 45,000 lbs cargo or 92 passengers or 74 litters.
- Compared to early models, the C-130J climbs faster and higher, flies farther at a higher cruise speed, and takes off and lands in a shorter distance.
- More than 40 variants.

MC-130P “Combat Shadow”

**Mission:** Provides air refueling and rescue.

**Characteristics:**

- Extended range Combat Search and Rescue (CSAR) variant – can stay aloft up to 18 hours and air refuel CSAR helicopters.
- Can deploy Special Operations Forces to a survivor, escort helicopter to a survivor, or airdrop survival equipment to a survivor.
- Also conducts leaflet drops in support of psychological operations.
• Flies night low-level, air refueling and formation operations using night vision goggles.
• Employment tactics incorporate no external lighting and no communications to avoid radar and weapons detection.

**MC-130 E/H “Combat Talon”**

**Mission:** Provide infiltration, exfiltration, and resupply of special operations forces and equipment in hostile or denied territory.

**Characteristics:**

• Equipped with terrain following and terrain avoidance radar.
• The primary difference between the MC-130E and MC-130H involves the degree of integration of the mission computers and avionics suite.
• Also, the MC-130E can carry 53 troops or 26 paratroopers and the MC-130H can carry 77 troops, 52 paratroopers, or 57 litter patients.
• In 2001, MC-130Hs were employed to seize an airfield in southern Afghanistan delivering U.S. Army Rangers to commence ground operations in Operation Enduring Freedom and later in 2003, the MC-130H was the first US aircraft to land at Bagdad International to initiate missions supporting Operation Iraqi Freedom.

**HH-60 “Pave Hawk”**

**Mission:** Infiltration, exfiltration and resupply of special operations forces in day, night or marginal weather conditions.

**Characteristics:**

• Highly modified version of the Army Black Hawk helicopter
• Features an upgraded communications and navigation suite that includes integrated inertial navigation/global positioning/Doppler navigation systems, satellite communications, and secure voice.
• Follows terrain contours and avoids obstacles by using forward looking infrared sensor, along with night vision goggles and cockpit displays.
• Two machine guns – either 7.62mm or .50 caliber.
• Can lift up to 8,000 lbs with external cargo hook.
• Can transport 11-14 troops or 6 litters.

**CV-22 “Osprey”**

**Mission:** Conduct long-range infiltration, exfiltration and resupply missions for special operations forces.

**Characteristics:**

• Tiltrotor combines the vertical takeoff, hover, and vertical landing qualities of a helicopter with the long range, fuel efficiency and speed characteristics of a turboprop aircraft.
• Versatile, self-deployable aircraft offers increased speed and range over other rotary wing aircraft, enabling USAF Special Operations Command aircrews to execute long range special operations missions.
• Can perform missions that normally would require both fixed wing and rotary wing aircraft.
• Has a range of 2,100 nautical miles with internal auxiliary fuel tanks or unlimited range with aerial refueling – the CV22 has a cruise speed of 230 knots.
• Can carry a maximum of 32 troops or 10,000 lbs internally – it has 2 pilots and 2 flight engineers.

**E-3 “Sentry”**

**Mission:** The Airborne Warning and Control System (AWACS) provides airborne surveillance, command, control and communications.

**Characteristics:**

• Airframe based on Boeing 707.
• Can perform airborne surveillance, early warning, target identification and tracking, weapons control, air battle management, and communications functions for a wide area.
• The aircraft provides an accurate, real-time picture of the battlespace to the Joint Air Operations Center.

• Can stay aloft for 8 hours, unrefueled.

• The large rotating radar dome on top is 30 feet (9.1 meters) in diameter, six feet (1.8 meters) thick, and is held 11 feet (3.33 meters) above the fuselage by two struts.

EC-130J “Commando Solo”

Mission: Military Information Support Operation (MISO), Psychological Operations, and civil affairs broadcasts in AM, FM, HF, TV, and military communications bands.

Characteristics:

• Flown by the Air National Guard out of Middletown PA.

• Broadcasted messages to the local Afghan population and Taliban soldiers during Operation ENDURING FREEDOM.

• Broadcasts aided in the transition from military rule to democracy in Haiti and helped prevent ethnic cleansing and assisted in the expulsion of Serbs in Kosovo.

EC-130H “Compass Call”

Mission: Conducts electronic warfare against enemy command and control networks and limits adversary coordination essential for enemy force management.

Characteristics:

• Primarily supports tactical air operations but also can provide jamming support to ground force operations.

• Part of a triad of jamming capability that includes the EA-6 Prowler and F-16CJ Fighting Falcon.
**EA-6B “Prowler”**

**Mission:** Supports all electronic countermeasures and jamming missions DoD-wide after the Air Force removed the EF-111 from service (The Prowler is operated by the US Navy).

**Characteristics:**

- Crew of 4 can consist of USAF, Navy, and/or Marine officers: pilot and 3 Electronic Countermeasures (ECM) operators who manually operate jammers.
- Specially fitted to deploy High Speed Anti-radiation Missiles (HARM).
- Can provide zone ECM to suppress enemy air defenses, providing protection for strike aircraft, ground troops, and ships by jamming enemy radar, electronic data links, and communications.

**F-16 “Falcon”**

**Mission:** Multi-role fighter; air to air and air to ground.

**Characteristics:**

- One vertical stabilizer (tail).
- One engine with mouth shaped inlet.
- F-16C has one crew member and the F-16D may have one or two crew members.
- In the Persian Gulf in 1991, flew more sorties than with any other aircraft - used to attack airfields, military production facilities, Scud missiles sites and a variety of other targets.
- Both F-16C and F-16CJ use LANTIRN for low altitude night attacks in bad weather.
- F-16CJ is specially fitted to deploy HARM to attack enemy surface to air missile (SAM) sites; HARM homes in on SAM site’s radar emissions.
- Limitations: If the enemy turns off the ground radar, HARM loses a key input into its guidance calculations (and can miss the target).
- Limitation: Comparatively short range and endurance.
F-15 “Eagle”

Mission: All-weather tactical fighter.

Characteristics:

• 2 parallel vertical “tails” perpendicular to wings.
• F-15C has one seat and F15E has two seats.
• F-15C carries air-to-air missiles.
• F-15E carries air-to-surface weapons – almost all weapons in the inventory.
• F-15E uses Low Altitude Navigation and Targeting Infrared for Night (LANTIRN) for low altitude night attacks in bad weather.
• Limitation: when carrying a heavy load of bombs, F15E loses some of its maneuverability.
• Limitation: Enemy radar can detect F-15s easier than it can detect other fighters, due to F-15’s size and shape.

F-22 “Raptor”

Mission: First look/first shot/first kill in all environments: contains a sophisticated sensor suite that allows the pilot to track, identify, shoot, and kill the threat before it detects the F-22.

Characteristics:

• In the air to ground configuration the aircraft can carry two 1,000 pound Guided Bomb Unit (GBU) 32 Joint Direct Attack Munitions internally and will use on board avionics for navigation and weapons delivery support. The Raptor will also carry two Airborne Intercept Missiles (AIM) 120s and two AIM-9s in the air to ground configuration.
• Engines produce more thrust than any current fighter engine – can efficiently cruise at supersonic airspeeds without an afterburner – characteristic known as super-cruise.
• Improved reliability and maintainability – F-22 squadrons will require less than half as much airlift as an F-15 squadron to deploy.
• Increased lethality and survivability: combination of stealth, integrated avionics, and super-cruise feature drastically shrinks SAM engagement envelopes and minimizes enemy capabilities to track and engage the F-22.

**AC-130H “Spectre”**

**Mission:** Provide Close Air Support (CAS), Air Interdiction, and Armed Reconnaissance.

**Characteristics:**

• Can destroy targets with 40mm and 105mm cannons visually or electronically with television sensor, infrared sensor, and radar.

• Can attack two targets simultaneously.

• Also carries a 25mm Gatling Gun.

• Has a crew of 14 – five officers (pilot, co-pilot, navigator, fire control officer, electronic warfare officer); nine enlisted (flight engineer, loadmaster, low-light TV operator, infrared detection set operator, five aerial gunners).

• AC-130 gunships have played a pivotal role in the recent uprisings in the Middle East. Gunships provide armed reconnaissance, interdiction and direct support of ground troops engaged with enemy forces.

**A-10 “Thunderbolt II”**

**Mission:** Close air support – forward air control.

**Characteristics:**

• Can loiter over target up to 2 hours unfueled.

• One 30mm Aircraft Gun Unit (AGU) 8/A seven barrel Gatling gun; can fire a max of 3,900 armor piercing rounds per minute.

• Can carry heat seeking air to air missiles.

• Can survive heavy ground fire; has self-sealing fuel tanks.
B-52 “Stratofortress”

**Mission:** Heavy bomber – eight engines – wide wingspan, swept back wings.

**Characteristics:**

- Longer unfueled range – up to 8,800 miles unfueled.
- Can perform strategic attack, close-air support, air interdiction, offensive counter-air and maritime operations.
- Can carry weapons both internally and externally (on wing pylons) – can launch cruise missiles from these pylons at high altitudes, then descend and drop bombs at low altitudes.
- Limitation: size and shape are easy for radar to detect.
- Limitation: requires a longer runway than B-1 and B-2.

B-1 “Lancer”

**Mission:** Long range, supersonic multi role heavy bomber.

**Characteristics:**

- Our only supersonic heavy bomber – top speed of 900 plus mph.
- It can carry more 2,400 lb JDAMs (24) than any other bomber.
- Carries heavier weapons load than B-2 or B-52.
- Automatic terrain following radar system.
- Forward wing settings are used for takeoff, landings, air refueling and in some high-altitude weapons employment scenarios. Aft wing sweep settings - the main combat configuration -- are typically used during high subsonic and supersonic flight.
- Limitation: history of very poor reliability and maintainability
B-2 “Spirit”

**Mission:** Multi role heavy bomber

**Characteristics:**
- Current principal weapon is the 2,000 lb JDAM, GBU-31
- Requires fewer crewmembers (2 pilots total) than B-1 (4 total) and B-52 (5 total)
- Low observability derived from a combination of reduced infrared, acoustic, electromagnetic, visual and radar signatures.
- The combat effectiveness of the B-2 was proven in Operation Allied Force, where it was responsible for destroying 33 percent of all Serbian targets in the first eight weeks, by flying nonstop to Kosovo and back.

C-5 “Galaxy”

**Mission:** Move outsized cargo (largest DoD aircraft)

**Characteristics:**
- Entire nose section hinges open.
- Can load and off-load simultaneously – nose and aft doors open to width/height of cargo area.
- Can carry every piece of Army equipment – 36 standard pallet positions.
- Up to 291,000 lbs cargo or max of 340 passengers (note: C-5 does not usually carry passengers in the cargo compartment – there are 73 seats available in the upper deck for passengers).
- Can air drop up to 42,000 lbs of cargo.
- Limitation: long runway requirements – fully loaded takes off within 8,300 feet and lands within 4,900 feet.
C-17 “Globemaster III”

Mission: Cargo and personnel transport

Characteristics:
- Advanced avionics – CONUS to battlefield – extremely versatile.
- Can taxi in reverse.
- Uses short, narrow fields.
- Up to 170,900 lbs of cargo – up to 18 standard pallet positions (2 rail systems).
- Up to 48 litters and 54 ambulatory patients and medical personnel.
- Can air-drop up to 60,000 lbs or 102 paratroopers w/equipment.
- Limitation: can’t carry the heaviest outsized items the C-5 can carry.

KC-135 “Stratotanker”

Mission: Boom or drogue refueling (unless wing pods are installed – then both are possible).

Characteristics:
- Based on Boeing 707 airframe.
- Up to 83,000 pounds cargo or up to 57 passengers.
- Refueling boom on underside of aft fuselage.
- Can refuel Navy, Marine, NATO and Allied aircraft that use the drogue system, and in the same mission Air Force aircraft with the boom system (but only if fitted with wing hose and drogue pods).

KC-10 “Extender”

Mission: – dual role tanker and cargo boom and drogue refueling

Characteristics:
- Based on DC-10 airframe.
- Fitted with both drogue and boom.
- Carries twice as much fuel as the KC-135.
• Up to 170,000 pounds cargo and up to 75 passengers.
• Cannot refuel helicopters.

Bibliography:
Activity Statement:
- Students will participate in a group exercise.

Affective Lesson Objective:
- Respond to a discussion on the intricacies of assembling an effective force package to achieve the objectives of air and space operations.

Affective Sample of Behavior:
- Value the synergy involved in force packaging.
Group #1: Counterair Operations Handout

Your group’s goal is to develop package(s) to attack the enemy airfield and gain air superiority for the pilot rescue operation.

Here is a map of the area to aid with your planning:
Group #2: Counterland Operations Handout

Your group's goal is to develop package(s) to attack enemy ground forces so that they are drawn away from the area where the pilot is located, and to support our own ground forces.

Here is a map of the area to aid you with your planning:
Group #3: Combat Search and Rescue Handout

Your group’s goal is to develop package(s) to rescue the downed pilot.

Here is a map of the area to aid with your planning:
Introduction to Leadership Theory

Student Preparation:
- Read Lorenz on Leadership (pp. 5-7) in AU-24, Concepts for Air Force Leadership.

Cognitive Lesson Objective:
- Comprehend the importance of leadership in the operation and success of any organization.

Cognitive Samples of Behavior:
- Define the concept of leadership.
- Explain the relationship between leadership and management.

Affective Lesson Objective:
- Value the importance of leadership in the operation and success of any organization.

Affective Samples of Behavior:
- Integrate the importance of possessing sound leadership principles into relevant classroom discussions.
- Assert how effective leadership leads to organizational success.
Cognitive Lesson Objective:
• Remember key principles of Air Force Leadership Doctrine.

Cognitive Samples of Behavior:
• Recognize the fundamental elements of Air Force leadership.
• Recall leadership components, institutional competencies and leadership actions.

Affective Lesson Objective:
• Receive the fundamental elements of Air Force leadership.

Affective Samples of Behavior:
• Recite principles of Air Force leadership.
Cognitive Lesson Objective:
• Remember the concepts of change management.

Cognitive Samples of Behavior:
• Name five key strategies to achieve change.
• List the steps that support change.

Affective Lesson Objective:
• Respond to the importance of understanding and using the principles and concepts of change management.

Affective Samples of Behavior:
• Assert the importance of effective change management.
• Actively participate in the practical exercises during the lesson.
Conflict Management

Cognitive Lesson Objective:
- Remember the principles and concepts of conflict management.

Cognitive Samples of Behavior:
- Identify sources of interpersonal conflict.
- Recognize the five personal management styles.

Affective Lesson Objective:
- Respond to the importance of understanding and using the principles and concepts of conflict management.

Affective Samples of Behavior:
- Assert the importance of effective conflict management.
- Actively participate in practical exercise during the lesson.
Followership

Cognitive Lesson Objective:
- Remember the traits and characteristics of an effective follower.

Cognitive Samples of Behavior:
- Recall Kelley’s Two-Dimensional Model of Follower Behavior.
- Identify the plausible follower competencies.

Affective Lesson Objective:
- Respond to the importance of effective followership.

Affective Sample of Behavior:
- Assert the benefits of being an effective follower.
Cognitive Lesson Objective:
• Remember principles of Full-Range Leadership.

Cognitive Samples of Behavior:
• Recall the concept of Full-Range Leadership.
• Identify elements of the Full-Range Leadership Model.

Affective Lesson Objective:
• Receive information on Full-Range Leadership.

Affective Samples of Behavior:
• Reply to questions about Full-Range Leadership principles.
Motivation

Cognitive Lesson Objective:
• Remember the basic concepts of the Contemporary Motivation model.

Cognitive Samples of Behavior:
• Identity the types of rewards in the Contemporary Motivation model.
• Recognize the level of commitment a person is displaying based on the Contemporary Motivation reward system.

Affective Lesson Objective:
• Receive the importance of understanding the concepts of motivation.

Affective Sample of Behavior:
• Defend the importance of understanding the concepts of motivation.
Power and Influence

Cognitive Lesson Objective:
• Remember the sources of power and the three ways to use power to influence others.

Cognitive Samples of Behavior:
• Identify the four sources of Personal Power.
• Identify the four sources of Positional Power.
• Recall the definition of the “Three Rs” used to influence others.

Affective Lesson Objective:
• Respond to the importance of understanding the use of power to influence others.

Affective Sample of Behavior:
• Assert the importance of the proper use of power.
Problem Solving

Cognitive Lesson Objective:
- Remember the Practical Problem Solving Method (PPSM).

Cognitive Samples of Behavior:
- Identify parts of the Practical Problem Solving Method.
- Recognize appropriate and inappropriate application of the steps in the Practical Problem Solving Method.

Affective Lesson Objective:
- Respond to the importance of the Practical Problem Solving Model.

Affective Samples of Behavior:
- Answer questions about the Practical Problem Solving Model.
- Tell the importance of systematic problem solving.
Stress Management and Resiliency

Cognitive Lesson Objective:
• Remember principles of stress management and resiliency.

Cognitive Samples of Behavior:
• Identify the various reactions to stress.
• Recognize the various coping strategies.

Affective Lesson Objective:
• Respond favorably to managing stress and building resiliency.

Affective Samples of Behavior:
• Discuss the benefits derived from reducing stress.
• Assert the importance of effective time-management techniques.
• Explain the importance of applying the domains of resiliency.