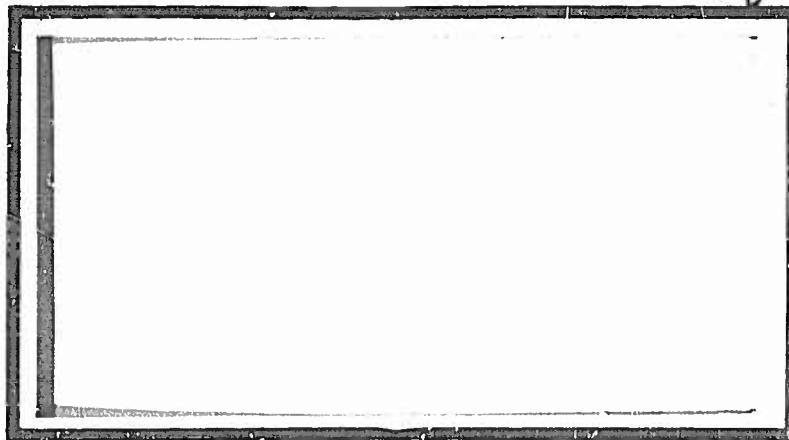


AD732193



Reproduced by
NATIONAL TECHNICAL
INFORMATION SERVICE
Springfield, Va. 22151

UNITED STATES AIR FORCE
AIR UNIVERSITY

AIR FORCE INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY
Wright-Patterson Air Force Base, Ohio

140

Unclassified

Security Classification

DOCUMENT CONTROL DATA - R & D

(Security classification of title, body of abstract and indexing annotation must be entered when the overall report is classified)

1. ORIGINATING ACTIVITY (Corporate author)

Air Force Institute of Technology (AFIT-EN)
Wright-Patterson AFB, Ohio 45433

2a. REPORT SECURITY CLASSIFICATION

Unclassified

2b. GROUP

3. REPORT TITLE

A Force Survival Model for Analysis of Strategic Bomber Basing
Concepts in the Prelaunch Survival Mode

4. DESCRIPTIVE NOTES (Type of report and inclusive dates)

AFIT Thesis

5. AUTHOR(S) (First name, middle initial, last name)

Douglas D. Cochard
Captain USAF

Robert E. Riggs
Captain USAF

6. REPORT DATE

September 1971

7a. TOTAL NO. OF PAGES

136

7b. NO. OF REFS

77

8a. CONTRACT OR GRANT NO.

b. PROJECT NO.

c.

d.

9a. ORIGINATOR'S REPORT NUMBER(S)

GSM/SM/71-3

9b. OTHER REPORT NO(S) (Any other numbers that may be assigned this report)

10. DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT

Approved for public release; distribution unlimited.

11. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES

12. SPONSORING MILITARY ACTIVITY

13. ABSTRACT

The prelaunch survival of strategic bombers will continue to be an important problem as long as they are to remain a viable part of the deterrent triad for the United States. Improving enemy technology and changing enemy strategies call for continued analysis of the problem. This study examines the parameters which govern prelaunch survival of strategic bombers. A model is developed to allow computation of total bomber force survival given the values for the necessary parameters. Several basing concepts and other means of improving force survival are analyzed with the aid of the model. Cost effectiveness analysis of the concepts discussed should be accomplished, and the results compared to other possible means of improving survival, e.g., ABM systems, before conclusions are made from the results of this study.

DD FORM 1473
1 NOV 65

Unclassified

Security Classification

PII Redacted

14 KEY WORDS	LINK A		LINK B		LINK C	
	ROLE	WT	ROLE	WT	ROLE	WT
Strategic Bomber Basing Prelaunch Survival SLBM Threat						

GSM/SM/71-3

A FORCE SURVIVAL MODEL FOR ANALYSIS
OF STRATEGIC BOMBER BASING CONCEPTS
IN THE PRELAUNCH SURVIVAL MODE

THESIS

GSM/SM/71-3

Douglas D. Cochard	Robert E. Riggs
Captain USAF	Captain USAF

Approved for public release;
distribution unlimited.

A FORCE SURVIVAL MODEL FOR ANALYSIS
OF STRATEGIC BOMBER BASING CONCEPTS
IN THE PRELAUNCH SURVIVAL MODE

THESIS

Presented to the Faculty of the School of Engineering
of the Air Force Institute of Technology

Air University
in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of
Master of Science

by

Douglas D. Cochard, B.S.
Captain USAF

Robert E. Riggs, B.S.
Captain USAF

Graduate Systems Management

September 1971

Approved for public release; distribution unlimited.

Preface

This study was originally conceived as an analysis of advanced bomber basing concepts which could be used to determine whether the B-1 could survive in the SLBM environment. A desire to write an unclassified paper limited the problem to simulated threat and reaction data. Therefore we decided to parameterize the data, using wide ranges which could include actual data without specific reference to it. This use of phenomenology allowed the development of a model capable of giving accurate results when provided with correct input data.

This model was then used in the analyses of basing concepts and other survival improvement techniques applicable to strategic bombers. As a result of the simulated data used, no real answers to the problem of prelaunch survival are given, but the model remains valid for operational analysis.

Most other studies in the area of prelaunch survival are classified, and the models used in their analyses require computer programs for calculation of results. Our model is relatively easy to understand, and calculations can be done by hand or with the aid of a small calculator. This allows one to get real answers rather easily to use in a comparison of concepts or for sensitivity analysis of the inputs.

Since cost data was not readily available and time did not allow the pursuit of cost effectiveness analysis

we feel it is important that further work be done in this area before conclusions on the merits of any of the concepts discussed are reached.

This study was suggested by Mr. L. Donald Seela of the Management Division, Systems Engineering Directorate, Deputy for Engineering, Aeronautical Systems Division, Wright-Patterson Air Force Base, Ohio. Major Kenneth E. Brant, also of the Management Division, and Mr. Seela served as our advisors on this project. We wish to express our appreciation for their invaluable advice and encouragement.

We would also like to acknowledge the help we received during early research at the Pentagon and in the Washington, D.C. area. Mr. N. Haller of the office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense for Systems Analysis (OASD/SA), provided direction and insight into the problem of doing this study unclassified. Mr. J.A. Englund, Chief of the Strategic Branch at Analytic Services Incorporated, and his associates, provided us with a background briefing and further explanation of their studies in the area of prelaunch survival of bombers. Messrs. Jerome Bracken and James T. McGill of the Program Analysis Division, Institute for Defense Analyses, explained their approach to the problem of optimizing an SLBM attack on bomber bases. Lt.Col. Vining of the Strategic Bomber Division, AFCSA, briefed us on the scope of the problem and the areas which could be analyzed in an unclassified study.

Lt. Col. R.H. Blinn of the Strategic Studies Division, AFRDQ, is well acquainted with the strategic tanker survival problem and gave us some insight into that area.

. Any errors contained in this thesis are our sole responsibility. We hope the information presented will prove useful to those who are responsible for decision making in this area, as well as to those who intend to do further studies on the problem of prelaunch survival of strategic bombers.

Douglas D. Cochard
Captain, USAF

Robert E. Riggs
Captain, USAF

Contents

	Page
Preface	ii
List of Figures	vii
List of Tables	ix
Notation	x
Abstract	xii
I. Introduction	1
II. Background	5
First-strike vs. Second-strike	5
Kennedy Era	6
Johnson Era	6
Nixon Era	7
Soviet Threat	8
United States Forces	9
Triad Concept	9
Soviet Technology	11
B-1	13
Objective	15
III. The Threat	16
Simultaneous Launch	17
Simultaneous Arrival of SLBM-ICBM	18
Simultaneous Detection	19
SLBM Pindown	22
Other Enemy Capabilities	23
Value Targeting	24
Future Developments	25
Threat Data	26
IV. The Model	31
Safe Escape Distance	31
Soft Targets	32
Computational Aids	35
Kill Probability and Circular	
Probable Error	36
Targeting Air Bases	38
Weapon Assumption	40
Optimal Burst Height	41
Mach Stem	41
Desired Flight Path	42
Shock Wave Travel Time	42
Escape Distance	45

Survival Time	54
Survival Equation	55
Survival Matrix	57
Example Problem	59
V. Analysis of Alternatives	64
All SAC Bases	65
All USAF Bases	66
All Military Bases	68
All Civilian plus All Military Fields	68
Shell Game	70
Launch Interval	70
Targeting Strategy	71
Grid of Austere Bases	72
Submarine Detection	74
Canadian Land	75
Runway Requirement	77
Airborne Alert	78
Takeoff Interval	79
Bomb Load	80
VI. Conclusions and Recommendations	84
Bibliography	87
Appendix A: General Principles of Nuclear Explosions	93
Appendix B: Summary of Airfield Data	120
Appendix C: Effect of SLBM Launch Interval	121
Vita	123

List of Figures

<u>Figure</u>		<u>Page</u>
1	Five Hypothetical SLBM Threats	27
2	200 Nautical Mile Contours from Coastlines .	28
3	Lethal Radius of Weapon	33
4	Aircraft Escape Path	33
5	General Firing Problem	34
6	Unfavorable Impact Location for Point Targets	38
7	Unfavorable Impact Location for Area Targets	39
8	Desired Aircraft Flight Path	43
9	Escape Distance (D), Worst Case for 1 MT & 2 MT	47
10	Escape Distance (D), Worst Case for 3x100 KT and 3x500 KT Weapons	48
11	3 psi Range, Direct Hit for 1 MT & 2 MT . .	50
12	3 psi Range, Direct Hit for 3x100 KT & 3x500 KT	51
13	Aircraft Flight Path for Worst Case	52
14	Effect of Aircraft Hardness on Escape Distance	53
15	Effect of Bomber Launch Interval on Survival	63
16	SLBM Targeting Strategy	71
17	200 Nautical Mile Contours with Gulf of Mexico Blockade	76
18	Runway Extension Diagram	78
19	Effect of Takeoff Interval on Aircraft Losses	80
20	Distribution of Energy in a Nuclear Air Burst	95

<u>Figure</u>		<u>Page</u>
21	Air Burst at 0.5 second After 20 KT Detonation and 1.8 seconds After 1 MT Detonation	98
22	Air Burst at 1.25 seconds After 20 KT Detonation and 4.6 seconds After 1 MT Detonation	98
23	Air Burst at 3 seconds After 20 KT Detonation and 11 seconds After 1 MT Detonation	100
24	Air Burst at 10 seconds After 20 KT Detonation and 37 seconds After 1 MT Detonation	100
25	Air Burst at 30 seconds After 20 KT Detonation and 110 seconds After 1 MT Detonation	101
26	Reflection of Blast Wave at Earth's Surface	105
27	Formation of the Mach Stem	106
28	Growth of the Mach Stem	107
29	Cube Root Scaling Factor	114
30	Peak Overpressure for 1 KT Surface Burst . .	115
31	Peak Overpressure on the Ground for a 1 KT Burst	117
32	Arrival Times on the Ground of Blast Wave for 1 KT Burst	118
33	Height of Mach Stem (Path of Triple Point) for a 1 KT Air Burst	119

List of Tables

<u>Table</u>		<u>Page</u>
I	Payoff Matrix	20
II	Threat vs. Time of Flight Data	29
III	Threat Summary	30
IV	Probability of a Hit Against a Single Point Target by a Single Weapon	37
V	Lethal Radius for Point Targets	37
VI	Required Lethal Radii for Area Targets (miles)	39
VII	Weapon Lethal Radii Available	40
VIII	Optimal Height of Burst	41
IX	Height of Mach Stem	42
X	Coaltitude Overpressure and Arrival Time .	45
XI	Range and Time for 3 psi	46
XII	Data to be Used in Example	49
XIII	Values of t_k and T	60
XIV	Summary of Basing Alternatives	82
XV	Summary of Survival Improvement Techniques	83
XVI	Time and Distance for Mach Effect	97
XVII	Height of Mach Stem	97

NotationAbbreviations

ABM	Antiballistic Missile
ASW	Antisubmarine Warfare
BMEWS	Ballistic Missile Early Warning System
CEP	Circular Probable Error
FOBS	Fractional Orbital Bombardment System
ICBM	Intercontinental Ballistic Missile
IRBM	Intermediate Range Ballistic Missile
KT	Kiloton
MIRV	Multiple Independently Targeted Reentry Vehicle
MRV	Multiple Reentry Vehicle
MT	Megaton
SAC	Strategic Air Command
SLBM	Submarine-launched Ballistic Missile
SSKP	Single Shot Kill Probability

Symbols

A	Aircraft Survival Matrix
a_{ij}	Number of Aircraft in Zone i Escaping Threat j
B	Bomber Beddown Matrix
b_i	Number of Airfields in Zone i Used for Bomber Beddown
D	Safe-escape Distance
F	Force Survival Matrix
f_j	Bomber Force Surviving Given Threat j
I	Aircraft Launch Interval (seconds)

Symbols

L	Lethal Radius of Weapon
M	Missile Time of Flight
P	Probability of Target Kill
R	Radius of Probability Circle
S	Shock Front Travel Time
T	Sum of Critical Survival Times
t_k	Each Critical Survival Time
W	Weapon Yield

Abstract

The prelaunch survival of strategic bombers will continue to be an important problem as long as they are to remain a viable part of the deterrent triad for the United States. Improving enemy technology and changing enemy strategies call for continued analysis of the problem. This study examines the parameters which govern prelaunch survival of strategic bombers. A model is developed to allow computation of total bomber force survival given the values for the necessary parameters. Several basing concepts and other means of improving force survival are analyzed with the aid of the model. Cost effectiveness analysis of the concepts discussed should be accomplished, and the results compared to other possible means of improving survival, e.g., ABM systems, before conclusions are made from the results of this study.

A FORCE SURVIVAL MODEL FOR ANALYSIS
OF STRATEGIC BOMBER BASING CONCEPTS
IN THE PRELAUNCH SURVIVAL MODE

I. Introduction

...the nub of deterrence (is) not
to have to fight, by virtue of be-
ing constantly prepared to do so.

John F. Loosbrock
Editor, Air Force Magazine
June, 1971
(Ref 40:10)

Virtually every major defense issue has complex diplo-
matic, political, strategic and economic implications
(Ref 53:114). The future of long range strategic bombers
is no exception to this rule. The problems currently
facing the approval and development of an advanced manned
bomber are not the lack of threats from Soviet missiles
or the presence of their air defense system. Its oppo-
sition is political and will be so until the bombers go
into production.

This paper will not attempt to cover all facets of
the B-1 proposal, or even give all the pros and cons of
long range bombers in general. Much is being written on
this topic and it is available for discussion and analysis.
Not so much is available in unclassified form on the
specific topic of survival of the manned bomber. This
then is an attempt to bring together as much information
as is available on this topic in unclassified form, so
that a meaningful analysis of the problem can be made.

Assuming that the triad concept continues to be the strategic deterrent policy of the United States, and that the decision is made to continue with the development and production of an advanced long range bomber, there are certain parameters governing its ability to survive a pre-launch attack, an attack enroute to the enemy's homeland, and penetration of the enemy's air defense screen. This paper will be concerned only with prelaunch survival and the associated variables affecting this survival.

The second chapter will give some background pertinent to the problem. This will be followed by a discussion of the threat and the various strategies available to the enemy. A mathematical model is then developed in the fourth chapter and used in the fifth chapter which is an analysis of various basing alternatives. Total force survival is looked at in each case rather than the survival of individual aircraft.

No anti-ballistic missile (ABM) defense systems will be considered, since the model serves to evaluate whether or not an advanced bomber could survive with improved reaction times and design characteristics.

Other models are available which include more variables, involve more complex calculations, and require computer power for solution. Of course, these models, as well as the one presented in this paper, depend on the accuracy of inputs for valid results.

One computer model originally built to analyze U.S.

bomber survivability against a Soviet SLBM attack is the COG Model developed by the Lambda Corporation. This model employs a generalized Lagrange multiplier approach and considers such factors as missile reliabilities, single-shot kill probabilities, firing rates, geography, salvo sizes, stockpile sizes, warning time, and time-of-flight curves (Ref 17).

A convex programming model for resource allocation with time-dependent objectives was developed by the Institute for Defense Analysis (IDA) to determine the expected number of bombers destroyed in an SLBM attack on bomber bases. Submarines are allocated to possible launch areas to find a targeting pattern that maximizes the number of bombers destroyed. The objective function is non-separable and concave and the constraints are linear (Ref 11). A nonlinear programming text (Ref 10) will aid the reader in understanding this model.

The linear programming approach of Analytic Services Incorporated (ANSER) maximizes the number of aircraft that can take off from their bases during a missile attack from enemy submarines. The mathematical model used is based on the assumption that each side has full knowledge of the total force strength of the other side. This model has been programmed for computer processing (Ref 77).

The model presented in this paper is simple enough for hand calculations and gives real answers, the accuracy of which depends on the inputs. All examples and the

associated data used to calculate them are hypothetical, due to the unclassified nature of the paper. They are, however, as realistic as they can be made using this information. The model is valid in the ranges of actual threats and could be used with inputs of known threat and reaction data to gain valid information for planning and operational purposes.

II. Background

...two legs of a three legged stool
do not give us the same stability,
even if greatly strengthened and
enlarged.

Robert C. Seamans
Secretary of the Air Force
Sept. 23, 1970
(Ref 63)

During the period following World War II and throughout most of the 1950's the United States monopoly of nuclear weapons and the capability to deliver them intercontinentally with long range bombers served as the deterrent to nuclear war. In the late 1950's it became apparent that the Soviet Union had the potential for developing a force of intercontinental ballistic missiles (ICBM) which could destroy this deterrent. The idea of a "missile gap" caused the United States to place part of its bombers on airborne alert and to order a crash missile program. The gap was closed but the development of the ICBM changed the strategic balance. During the early 1950's, the Strategic Air Command (SAC) had a first-strike capability. As Soviet strategic capabilities grew the United States developed a survivable command and control capability and the mission became a second-strike capability, i.e., a strategic policy of massive retaliation.

First-strike vs. Second-strike

To clarify terms, a "first-strike capability" is the ability to substantially eliminate the attacked nation's

retaliatory second-strike forces. A "second-strike capability" is the ability to absorb a surprise nuclear attack, and survive with sufficient power to inflict unacceptable damage on the aggressor (Ref 39:205-207).

Kennedy Era

In the period following 1961, the Kennedy Administration found it necessary to be prepared for war at many levels and adopted the policy of flexible (or selective) response. This meant the additional ability to fight a limited conventional war or controlled nuclear war. The Polaris submarine and Minuteman ICBM programs were accelerated and the number of nuclear bombers on 15-minute alert was increased from one-third of the force to one-half (Ref 50:190). These measures provided a clear margin of U.S. nuclear superiority for several years.

Johnson Era

After 1965 the Soviets began to construct their own Polaris-type force, as well as increasing their ICBM deployments and tests of multiple warheads. U.S. strategic superiority was being challenged again. This time it was determined to use restraint. The Johnson Administration reasoned that enemy nuclear superiority would have little military or political significance if U.S. retaliatory capability was not seriously jeopardized, and this became the theory of "assured destruction". This meant that the United States should be capable of destroying a significant

percentage of Soviet population and industry after the worst conceivable Soviet attack on U.S. strategic forces (Ref 53:118-119).

A more complete discussion of how the government determined that the U.S. had sufficient retaliatory power to maintain an assured destruction capability during this period is in the book How Much Is Enough by Alain C. Enthoven and K. Wayne Smith (Ref 20).

Nixon Era

After a review of this strategic doctrine, the Nixon administration view was that:

...the overriding purpose of our strategic posture is political and defensive: to deny other countries the ability to impose their will on the United States and its allies under the weight of strategic military superiority. We must insure that all potential aggressors see unacceptable risks in contemplating a nuclear attack, or nuclear blackmail, or acts which could escalate to strategic nuclear war, such as a Soviet conventional attack on Europe (Ref 53:122).

The policy the new administration developed was one of "strategic sufficiency" and was described as the "1½ war" strategy (as opposed to the "2½ war" principle of the 1960's). Under Nixon's strategy the U.S. would maintain in peacetime, general purpose forces adequate for simultaneously meeting a major Communist attack in either Europe or Asia, assisting allies against non-Chinese threats in Asia, and contending with a contingency

elsewhere (Ref 53:128-129).

In his statement before the House Armed Services Committee on the first Five-Year Defense Program of the Nixon Administration, Secretary of Defense Melvin R. Laird explains the strategy of "realistic deterrence". The U.S. foreign policy objectives of lasting peace and freedom are to be obtained through a national security strategy of realistic deterrence and a foreign policy strategy of vigorous negotiation. Strategic military forces help provide the strength, which together with partnership and negotiation form the three pillars of U.S. foreign policy.

Soviet Threat

The primary strategic threat to the United States is the capability of the Soviet Union to deliver long-range nuclear weapons against targets in the U.S. The Soviet Union currently has approximately twice the missile payload capacity of the United States, including ICBM's, IRBM's, and SLBM's. In addition their strategic threat still includes a large force of manned bombers. They have tested a fractional-orbit bombardment system (FOBS), multiple reentry vehicles (MRV), and new improved ICBM's and are testing a new bomber (Ref 45:246). In the spring of 1971 Gen. Bruce K. Holloway, commander in chief of the Strategic Air Command, said that the Soviet force is made up of 1400 intercontinental missiles, 650 medium-range ballistic missiles, 350 sub-launched ballistic missiles, 950 medium- and long-range strategic bombers, and the

largest and most sophisticated antiair and antimissile defense ever put together anywhere (Ref 32:526).

United States Forces

In contrast to this the U.S. has stabilized its ICBM force at 1000 Minuteman and 54 Titan missiles, a 41-boat Polaris/Poseidon submarine fleet, and a reconnaissance and weapons delivery fleet of 450 bombers. Improvements to this force in progress are 76 FB-111's now being delivered and modification of Minuteman silos for the Minuteman III intercontinental ballistic missile. Also, in June of 1970 the USAF awarded a contract for the engineering development of the B-1, an advanced manned bomber to be capable of operating from short runways at austere bases and to have a significantly improved reaction time (Ref 68:31-33).

Triad Concept

It can be seen then that both the U.S. and the USSR depend on a "triad" concept of strategic deterrent forces. This approach consists of land-based missiles, missile carrying submarines, and long-range bombers. Taken individually each system has its advantages. The land-based ICBM's are constantly on alert, reliable, accurate, and require approximately 30 minutes to reach their targets. The missile carrying submarines offer a difficult targeting problem to the Soviets, and their SLBM's have a very short flight time. The manned bomber

can be launched and then recalled or rerouted; it can be on airborne alert; it can strike a series of targets with varied weapons; and it can be reused.

Taken together these three systems offer the reliability inherent in multiple independent approaches, as well as complicating the enemy's defensive problems and offensive strategies. The concept is flexible enough to wage nuclear wars below the level of general war (Ref 59). With diversification of strategic forces there is not complete reliance on any single system which could be negated by an enemy technological breakthrough. If one system were to be relied upon, the consequences of technological surprise could be sudden defeat (Ref 43).

Another purpose of the diversified force is to make it impossible for the enemy to launch an attack against all three elements simultaneously without providing sufficient detection and warning time to enable one or more of the remaining elements of the triad to retaliate. For example, if they attempt to attack simultaneously with ICBM's and SLBM's, the ICBM's would have to be launched approximately fifteen minutes ahead of the SLBM's. This warning time allows the strategic bomber force on alert to launch and escape destruction. If bomber bases were to be a prime target for surprise attack by SLBM's, then they would have to delay launching their ICBM's to avoid them being detected before the SLBM's. This case allows adequate time for the decision to be made to

launch the U.S. ICBM force (Ref 46).

In a speech in Abilene on 7 May 1971 the Air Force Chief of Staff, General John D. Ryan, said:

In order to preserve the sufficiency of our strategic forces, it is vital that we preserve the special advantages of the strategic Triad...If the great flexibility of the manned bomber is to be available in the future, the B-1 will have to be available in the 1980's to do what the B-52 has done in the 1960's and 70's (Ref 46).

If the manned bomber is to remain a viable part of the triad it must be able to survive a surprise attack from the most severe enemy threat, survive enroute, and survive penetration of the defenses of the enemy's homeland. Each of these three modes of survival present different problems. One feature of all the problems though is that they become increasingly difficult to counter as technology improves.

Soviet Technology

Dr. John S. Foster, Jr., Director of Defense Research and Engineering and the government's ranking weapons technologist, said in an interview with Air Force Magazine that it can now be shown "with high confidence" that the Soviet Union's military technology effort is outstripping that of the United States, probably between 40 and 50% (Ref 67:28). Since 1968 the Soviet research and development budget has increased at 10% to 13% per year, while that of the U.S. has remained essentially constant.

It is felt that if this rate continues the Soviets could gain the technological lead by the mid-1970's. As a consequence, technological surprise could result in unexpected threats to strategic force survivability (Ref 36:56).

There are those who say that all missiles should be moved out to sea. In an interview in U.S. News and World Report, Dr. Foster said:

I do not agree, and for two reasons: First, from time to time, we find potential weaknesses in each of our weapons systems. We have found them in each of our three strategic systems --the land based missile, the sea-based missile and the long-range bomber. For a period of months or even a year or two, one system or another in the past has had faults which would have made them vulnerable to an enemy had he been aware of them. We cannot guarantee this will not continue to occur again and again in the future.

Second, the Polaris submarine could have an Achilles heel, so to speak. While they are currently judged to be the least vulnerable of our strategic forces --because they are in a sense hidden in the vastness of the oceans--we can't be sure we know everything about what the Soviets are doing to counter this invulnerability (Ref 21:29).

In line with these thoughts, it should be noted that if a breakthrough is made by the Soviets in ARM technology, this would affect all forms of ballistic missiles whether they are fired from silos, submarines, mobile ground launchers, or aircraft.

These technological considerations and the switch

from U.S. nuclear superiority to a policy of "realistic deterrence" over the past years has many people in the Defense Department worried. The primary reason for the current U.S. trend is economics. In the three years since 1968 the United States has reduced its technological efforts in the defense and space sector by approximately \$3 billion. This coupled with the level of competence which the public and the Congress attach to the management of weapons development during this period of reduced and reluctant funding of defense programs constitute problems of immense importance which must be resolved (Ref 67:31-32).

Secretary of the Air Force Robert C. Seamans at a National Security Seminar in 1970 said:

...I feel strongly that the major need of the Air Force today is a new strategic bomber to replace the venerable B-52 (Ref 64).

B-1

In January of this year Maj. Gen. Paul N. Bacalis, DCS/ Plans of Strategic Air Command, described the B-1 to a meeting of the American Ordnance Association in Orlando:

In 1980 the newest B-52 will be 18 years old. Even with a continuation of the extensive B-52 modification program, the endurance of its basic airframe cannot be prolonged indefinitely. With Soviet defenses increasing in both sophistication and numbers, the time that bombers require at very low altitude will eventually exceed the range possibilities of both the B-52 and FB-111.

In addition, automated offensive and defensive systems will be needed to prevent increasingly complex tasks from exceeding the abilities of the operator, and quicker reaction will be necessary to counter the growing Soviet SLBM threat (Ref 6).

As of 1 June 1970, according to Secretary of Defense Laird, the U.S. has 4200 nuclear weapons in its strategic force. Of these weapons 15% are carried by the Polaris SLBM force, 25% by the ICBM force, and the remaining 60% by bombers. If the ICBM and bomber forces are permitted to become vulnerable to surprise attack, the U.S. would be relying on the submarines at sea and on alert carrying less than 15% of these strategic weapons for retaliation (Ref 37).

The B-1 is currently scheduled to be the replacement for the B-52, which went into production in the 1950's with the technology of that period. The B-52 has been modified many times and is reaching the point where its safety and serviceability beyond 1980 is questionable (Ref 59). Since the time span to develop a new bomber and get it operational is 8 to 10 years, the B-1 program will have to continue at its present pace or be accelerated if it is to be usable in the 1980's.

As the first attack in a long-range formal program by the Members of Congress for Peace through Law (MCPL), the "B-1 Report", prepared by Senator George S. McGovern (D-S.D.) and Representative John F. Seiberling (D-Ohio), was released on 4 May 1971. Replies to this report are

just beginning to surface. Regardless of the merits of the report, which is said to contain a great number of careless statements of fact, it is evident that the B-1 will face a fight each year when the Congress considers the funding requests (Ref 76:14-16 and 73:20-21).

Objective

If an advanced, long range manned bomber, such as the B-1, is to be built, what will be the necessary requirements to insure its survival? The prelaunch survival of this weapons system will be the topic for analysis in this paper. The intent will not be to justify the requirement for a manned bomber, but rather to examine the parameters affecting its survival in the prelaunch mode of operations.

III. The Threat

'Tis best to weigh
The enemy more mighty than he seems.
Shakespeare:
King Henry V, 1598
(Ref 29)

The threat referred to throughout this chapter and subsequently throughout the entire report is the threat to prelaunch survival of manned bombers. Enroute and penetration problems which the safe-escape bombers will ultimately encounter are not within the scope of this paper.

With respect to warning time, the most severe current threat to the prelaunch survival of manned bombers is the sea-launched ballistic missile (SLBM). The ballistic missile early warning system (BMEWS) can provide 15 to 20 minutes of warning time for an ICBM attack. When the SLBM is considered, this time is drastically reduced. Depending on the distance at sea from which a missile is fired, possible warning time dwindles to from 4 to 8 minutes (Ref 41:252). These warning times could be reduced even more as advanced technology allows the development of depressed trajectory SLBM's yielding shorter flight times.

To aid in countering this reduced warning time, the U.S. Air Force has recently developed a seven site radar network to detect underwater launchings from the coastal waters around the United States. This system uses a

special computer at each site to compute the point and time of launch and predict the exact point and time of impact (Ref 65:3).

Whether or not long range bombers would be subjected to this worst case (SLBM attack) depends on the strategy the enemy chooses. There are, of course, threats from many countries, but the Soviet forces so overshadow those of all other potentially hostile nations that the Soviet Union can logically be used as the one nation against which U.S. capabilities must be measured (Ref 22).

Several possible strategies are summarized below, but it should be noted that this is not a totally exhaustive listing of enemy alternatives.

Simultaneous Launch

One attacking strategy to be considered is the case of a simultaneous launching of SLBM and ICBM weapons. In this case, if the enemy SLBM's are launched against U.S. missile sites, all of the U.S. bomber force could be safely airborne before the arrival of the first enemy ICBM. Should these SLBM's be targeted against the bomber bases, most U.S. missiles could be safely launched after some hits have been received (Ref 60).

Most authorities assume that the Soviets do not expect the United States to launch its missiles on warning, but rather to absorb a first strike. However, the enemy knows that there is no reason for the United States to hold back its bomber force. The bombers can be launched on warning

and then later recalled if the warning proved to be false (Ref 52:33).

In the cases mentioned above the arrival times of the SLBM would be somewhere in the neighborhood of 4 to 8 minutes after detection, depending upon submarine location and target area. While BMEWS provides 15 to 20 minutes of warning from an ICBM attack, the detection of SLBM's, given a simultaneous launch, would provide additional time for all untargeted forces to react. This time could be as great as perhaps 26 to 30 minutes.

Obviously, the two cases above could be mixed to some degree so that the most favorable targets in the eyes of the enemy would be targeted by the SLBM weapons. In any event, remaining forces would be subject to the conditions above.

Simultaneous Arrival of SLBM-ICBM

In the case of simultaneous arrival of SLBM's and ICBM's, BMEWS would detect the ICBM attack approximately 15 to 20 minutes in advance of weapon arrival. This would be before the actual launch of the SLBM's and thus all forces would have approximately 15 to 20 minutes to react. This would allow the United States to safely launch most manned bombers, depending on bomber beddown and alert status, and fire as many missiles as desired.

This alternative does not seem to be advantageous to the enemy since it gives more warning time to the United States' forces than other alternatives.

Simultaneous Detection

Simultaneous detection implies some timing between that of simultaneous launch and simultaneous arrival. In order for the enemy to initiate such an attack they would have to be familiar with the various warning systems in the United States. It may be assumed that this information could be in the hands of the enemy, and they should be able to approximate the required intervals to induce simultaneous detection.

In this case one can simply look at the shortest possible warning time, i.e., that of the SLBM attack, and insure that the bomber beddown is such that an adequate force level of bombers will reach the safe escape distance prior to the detonation of the earliest arriving warheads.

Note that the incoming ICBM force will arrive within a shorter interval after SLBM impact than in the case of simultaneous launch. Thus, from the standpoint of warning and reaction times, simultaneous detection appears to be a more favorable strategy for the enemy to use.

A decision model can be used to determine the attack strategy which appears to be the most advantageous to the enemy. When a payoff matrix is used, its values are frequently difficult to determine with any great accuracy. In particular, the problem presented here might require a determination of any or all of the following: target value; bomber versus missile value; safe escape payload in numbers and sizes of warheads, and the number of

targets which would be destroyed by this payload.

One means of establishing values for the payoff matrix is to use relative values based on some known criteria. For this example it is possible to use time as a baseline. The time available for launch and escape of U.S. missiles and bombers after detection of an enemy ICBM/SLBM attack will give the relative values needed. The theory is that the shorter the warning time, the higher the payoff to the attacker. This approach might yield values similar to those used in the following example:

ICBM time of flight 25 min.

Detection time 3 min.

Reaction time available ... 22 min.

SLBM time of flight 11 min.

Detection time 1 min.

Reaction time available ... 10 min.

The payoff matrix is shown in Table I.

Table I
Payoff Matrix

			TARGETING			
			SLBM vs. Bombers	ICBM vs. Missiles	SLBM vs. Missiles	ICBM vs. Bombers
			b_1	b_2	b_3	b_4
ATTACKER STRATEGIES	Simultaneous Launch	a_1	10	24	10	24
	Simultaneous Arrival	a_2	22	22	22	22
	Simultaneous Detection	a_3	10	22	10	22

Since it is desirable for the attacker to attempt to minimize the amount of warning time available to the attacked nation, strategy a_3 , simultaneous detection, dominates the other strategies and thus would be the most advantageous to him.

If certain values in the payoff matrix are changed (for purposes of illustration) so that strategy a_3 is no longer dominant in all cases, another decision rule must be used to determine the best strategy. Suppose the value for simultaneous launch and SLBM vs. missile bases (a_1b_3) is changed to 9 minutes. Then note that strategy a_3 still dominates a_2 , but not a_1 . If the attacker is assumed to be conservative, or even pessimistic, the minimax criteria can be used (Ref 48:380). This implies that the attacker wishes to minimize the maximum warning time available to the nation under attack. The minimax criteria again yields selection of strategy a_3 , simultaneous detection.

Note that strategy a_2 , simultaneous arrival, was dominated in both cases, and therefore ruled out as an optimal strategy with respect to the warning time criteria used in the example payoff matrix. If some other criteria were to be used as a baseline for relative values, it is certainly possible that the results might indicate some other strategy to be the optimal one.

In the example just given, the attacked nation had no choice of action, and his available reaction time to

escape the attack was shown as a state of nature or an assumed certainty (Ref 48:49). If some options were available to the nation under attack, as well as the attacker, and each side's action is assumed to be strictly competitive, i.e., one's gain is the other's loss, a two-person zero-sum game could be used to determine the most likely strategy for each to choose. In this case the decision maker assumes that his opponent will select his best counter course of action. Using this pessimistic assumption, the decision maker selects the safest course of action (Ref 58:501-506). For sample applications of game theory to military decision making refer to references 57 and 28.

Increased technology in detection systems could eventually force the interval between ICBM launch and detection to be comparable to the SLBM launch/detection interval, and thus the simultaneous launch strategy would become equivalent to that of simultaneous detection.

SLBM Pindown

A situation could possibly exist whereby high altitude nuclear detonations from SLBM's could force the postponement of U.S. ICBM firing sufficiently to allow for the arrival of enemy ICBM's. The much larger and more crippling warheads could then perhaps destroy the U.S. retaliatory capability via the ICBM. This strategy would require the enemy to commit most of its offensive forces against U.S. ICBM sites, thus

freeing bomber bases from attack and allowing the U.S. bomber force to escape.

This attack pattern might be based on the opinion of enemy strategists that their air defense forces could destroy attacking manned bombers enroute or during penetration.

It is questionable whether the enemy would have enough missiles to pin down U.S. forces. Also, the effectiveness of enemy air defense forces against low altitude bomber penetration is unproven.

Other Enemy Capabilities

One current capability of the Soviet Union is the multiple reentry vehicle (MRV). This is simply the case whereby one incoming missile deploys several warheads in a shotgun type pattern to increase the range of target destruction and allow for the use of decoys to confuse ABM defenses.

The multiple independently targeted reentry vehicle (MIRV), a more advanced system already tested by the Soviets, is a payload for a single missile and consists of a number of warheads or penetration aids that can be individually assigned to designated targets or spaced in arrival time to the same target (Ref 23). Both of these delivery concepts (MRV and MIRV) will be considered in Chapter V.

An even further development in missile capabilities is the fractional orbital bombardment system (FOBS).

This threat may involve the launching of Soviet missiles in a southerly direction instead of the much shorter northern route. The weapon could be placed in orbit and then de-orbited at the proper time to impact a target area in the United States. An advantage of this strategy to the enemy is that the U.S. does not have a large radar detection system such as BMEWS pointed to the south. Also, if the U.S. did detect the orbiting missile, it could not be immediately ascertained whether or not it was a warhead to be deployed against the U.S. until the de-orbit sequence began. This would allow an extremely short warning time.

Finally, advancements in the space programs could eventually lead to an orbiting launch pad capable of attacking any target on earth with very large payloads and very short warning times.

Value Targeting

It seems highly probable that several high value targets would be included in the target areas of the first wave of incoming enemy weapons. These areas include such places as Washington, D.C., SAC Headquarters, North American Air Defense Command (NORAD) Headquarters, BMEWS and other large radar installations, and other similar targets the destruction of which could severely hamper the U.S. capability to conduct a war of any magnitude.

While this strategy does not affect the initial

warning times available, it could surely hamper successive operations. This further points out the need to have retaliatory forces airborne before an initial attack is absorbed.

Future Developments

Future improvements in surveillance techniques, such as satellite detection systems, improvements in submarine detection and ASW techniques, improved reaction capabilities of men and machines, and the development of an ABM system could improve the survival conditions for the defending nation. Improved missile trajectories, payloads, ranges, guidance systems, and deployment could enhance the attacker's position.

Whatever the case, the most severe current and projected threat to the prelaunch survival of manned bombers, with respect to warning time, is the submarine launched ballistic missile. For purposes of this paper a range of possible SLBM threats has been chosen which should encompass current capabilities, as well as those extremely severe threats which are beyond the state of the art at this time.

While missile time of flight versus range data does not represent an exact linear relationship, it approximates a linear function in the ranges pertinent to this study. Linearity is not a requirement of the model to be developed, but it was assumed for simplicity in this paper.

Threat Data

The purpose for using the five threats shown in Figure 1 is to allow the reader to select any particular threat he may feel approximates one he is concerned with. If actual threat data is available, it may be used with a resulting increase in accuracy.

For analysis of the various threats in Chapters IV and V, it is convenient to construct six 200 nautical mile contour intervals on the continental United States from the coastline inwards. The result is shown in Figure 2.

Similarly, it is convenient to choose 100 nautical miles from the U.S. coastline as the enemy submarine location for missile launches. Given this deployment of submarines, every 200 nautical mile increment from the submarines is precisely the center of succeeding target zones. This allows one to calculate an average time of flight of an SLBM to all bases in any particular zone. The most interior point of the U.S. is 1100 nautical miles from the coastline and thus 1200 nautical miles from a submarine.

The maximum error which could be introduced by using these discrete zones is from 35 to 50 seconds, depending on the threat used. However, the distribution of bases about the mean distance for each zone tends to cancel this type error when determining total force survival. For bomber survival on individual bases, calculations can be made using the exact distance from the nearest

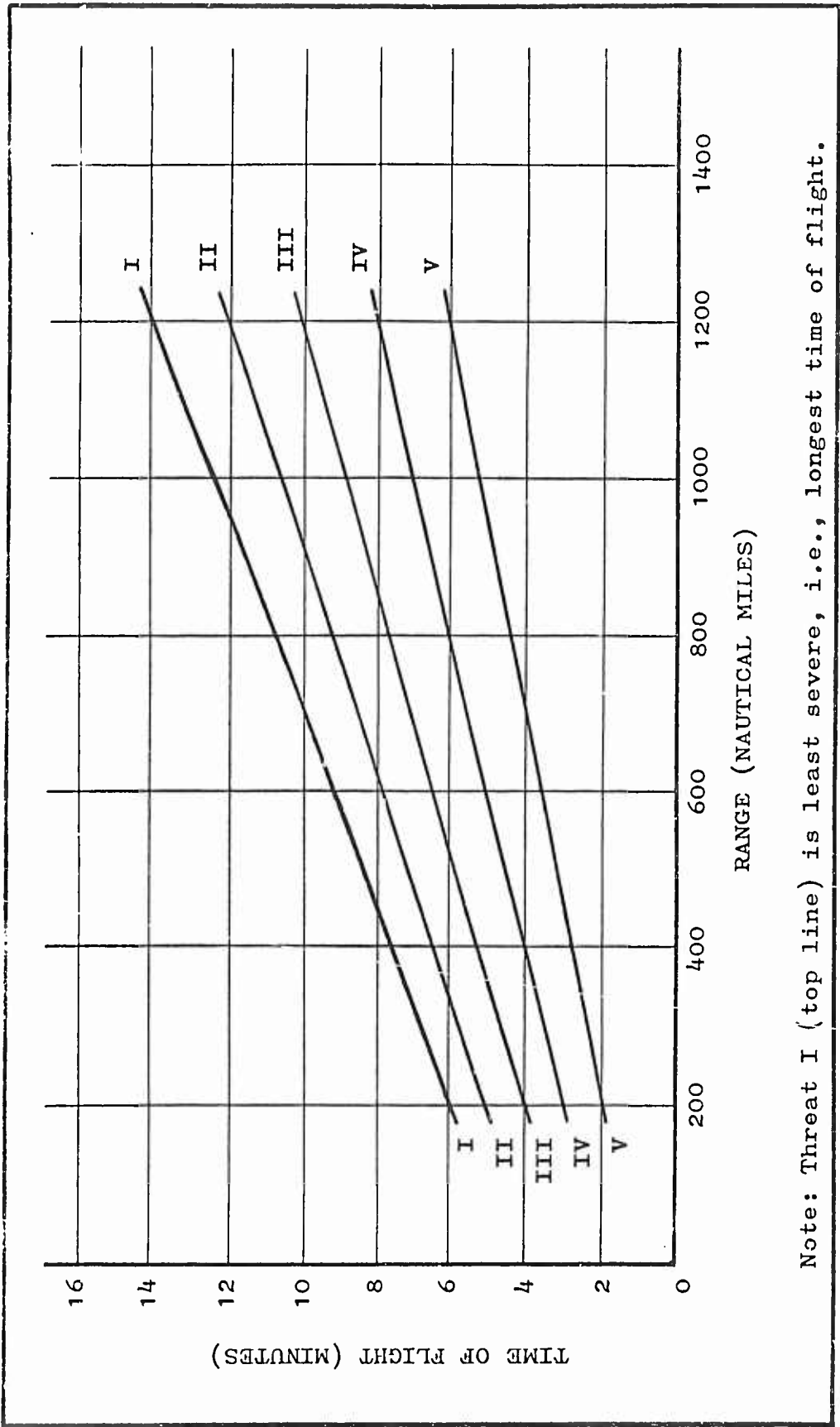


Figure 1. Five Hypothetical SLBM Threats

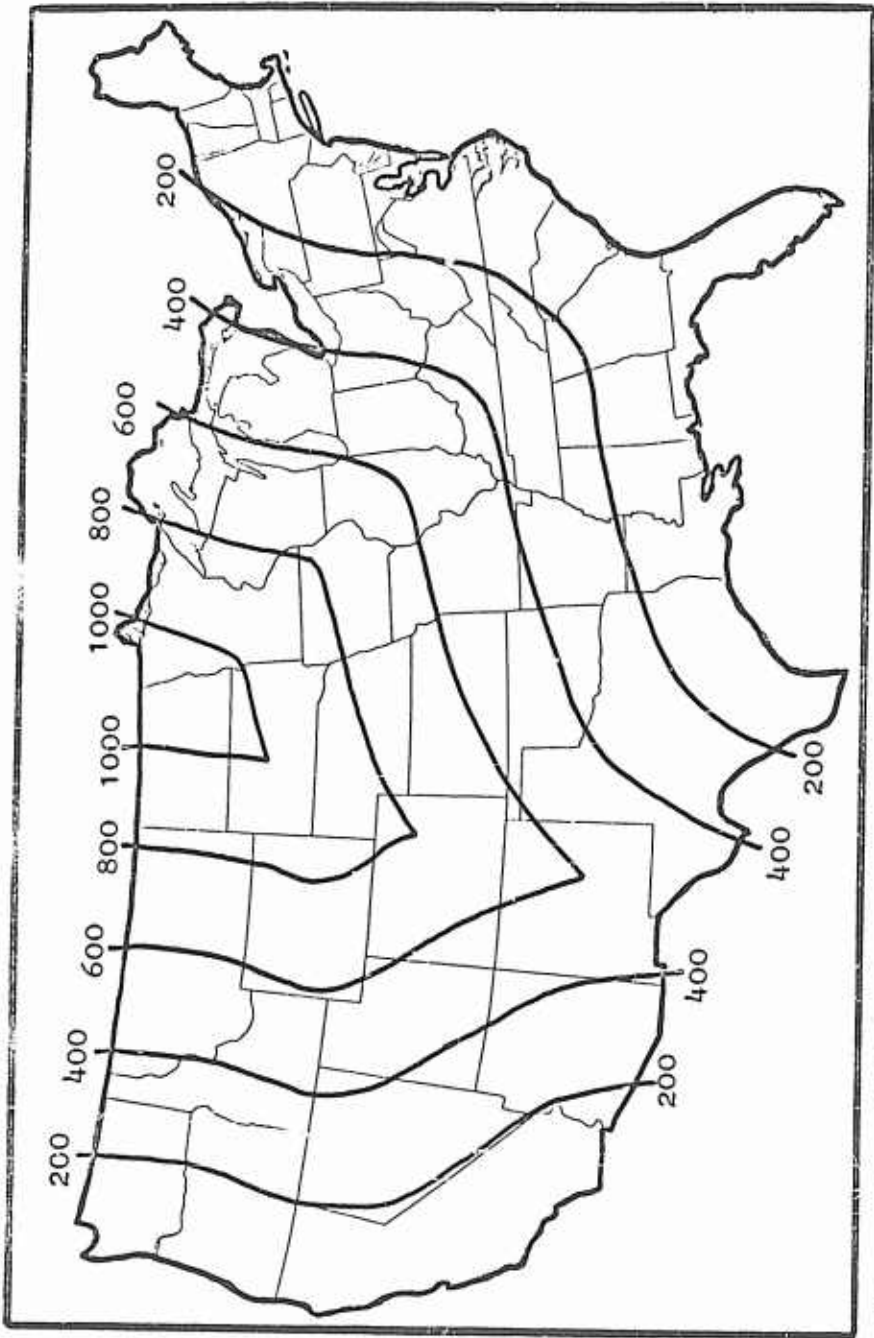


Figure 2. 200 Nautical Mile Contours from Coastlines

coastline, since the threat data is continuous. This is explained in greater detail with the development of the model in the next chapter.

Table II summarizes time of flight data for the five threats to the midpoints of the six zones, given an SLBM launch position 100 nautical miles from the U.S. coastline. These values are extracted from Figure 1 at 200 nautical mile increments. This data will be used extensively in the example problems and in the basing analysis. Table III summarizes the various threats and strategies discussed in this chapter.

Table II

Threat vs. Time of Flight Data

Threat	Missile Time of Flight in Minutes					
	Zone 1	Zone 2	Zone 3	Zone 4	Zone 5	Zone 6
I	6.00	7.50	9.25	10.75	12.50	14.00
II	5.00	6.50	7.75	9.25	10.50	12.00
III	4.00	5.25	6.50	7.75	8.75	10.00
IV	3.00	4.00	5.00	6.00	7.00	8.00
V	2.00	2.75	3.50	4.25	5.25	6.00

Table III

Threat Summary

THREAT	EFFECT
Simultaneous Launch:	
SLBM vs. Bombers	Safe-escape bombers airborne, most U.S. missiles launched after first hits received.
SLBM vs. Missiles	All U.S. bombers airborne, some missiles launched.
Simultaneous Arrival	All U.S. bombers airborne, missiles dependent on SLBM targeting.
Simultaneous Detection ...	Safe-escape bombers airborne, fewer U.S. missiles launched due to shorter interval between SLBM and ICBM arrival.
SLBM Pindown	All U.S. bombers airborne, enemy capability to pindown all U.S. missiles questionable.
Other Enemy Capabilities:	
MRV	Increased destruction area of single targets, use of decoys to confuse ABM defenses.
MIRV	Capable of destroying several targets with independently targeted warheads deployed from a single launch vehicle.
FOBS	Less warning time, few detection systems for penetration from the south.
Orbiting Launch Pad ...	Possible targeting of any place on earth, little warning time, no current vulnerability.
Value Targeting	Intended to cripple major U.S. information and communication systems, industries and population centers, and hamper ability of U.S. to conduct a war.

IV. The Model

A staff officer renders no service to the country who aims at ideal standards, and thereafter simply adds and multiplies until impossible totals are reached.

Winston Churchill
15 October 1940
Ref 29:254

A model will now be developed to aid in the analysis of force survival. This will allow the comparison of various basing alternatives, as well as sensitivity tests to determine the effects of changing the various parameters which can be controlled. The model will be relatively simple so that answers can be obtained without the aid of computers or calculators. If cost information were available, it would be feasible to determine where the greatest gain in force survival could be made for the least possible cost.

Safe Escape Distance

The first step will be to determine the distance (D) to which an aircraft must fly to be considered safe. This distance is governed by the size of the weapon used by the enemy and the ability of the aircraft to withstand the effects of a nuclear explosion. This capacity to resist the effects of blast, thermal flash, and initial radiation will be referred to as "hardness". For a more complete explanation of the various nuclear weapons effects, see Appendix A.

Figures 3 and 4 depict the required distance for an aircraft to fly to escape the lethal envelope. Figure 3 represents the lethal radius of the weapon if detonated at the center of the runway. Figure 4 shows the critical region with aircraft flight path, height of the mach stem, and the shock front.

Whether or not the aircraft is exposed to the higher overpressures in the mach region will be determined by its ability to climb above the height of the mach stem on its escape flight path. Also, the area just above the triple point would subject the aircraft to two shocks in rapid succession which could possibly be as undesirable as the mach stem.

Soft Targets

In military parlance, air bases are soft targets, meaning that all of the buildings and parked aircraft are extremely vulnerable to the effects of air blast. Tests in Nevada have indicated that complete destruction of aircraft occurs at peak blast overpressures in the vicinity of 5 pounds per square inch (psi). In addition, the light industrial type buildings and the residential construction characteristic of Air Force bases are damaged very severely, or destroyed completely, by this same blast overpressure. Thus, in general, the weapon to be used against an air base is selected to create at least 5 psi of blast overpressure over the entire working area of the base (Ref 38:167).

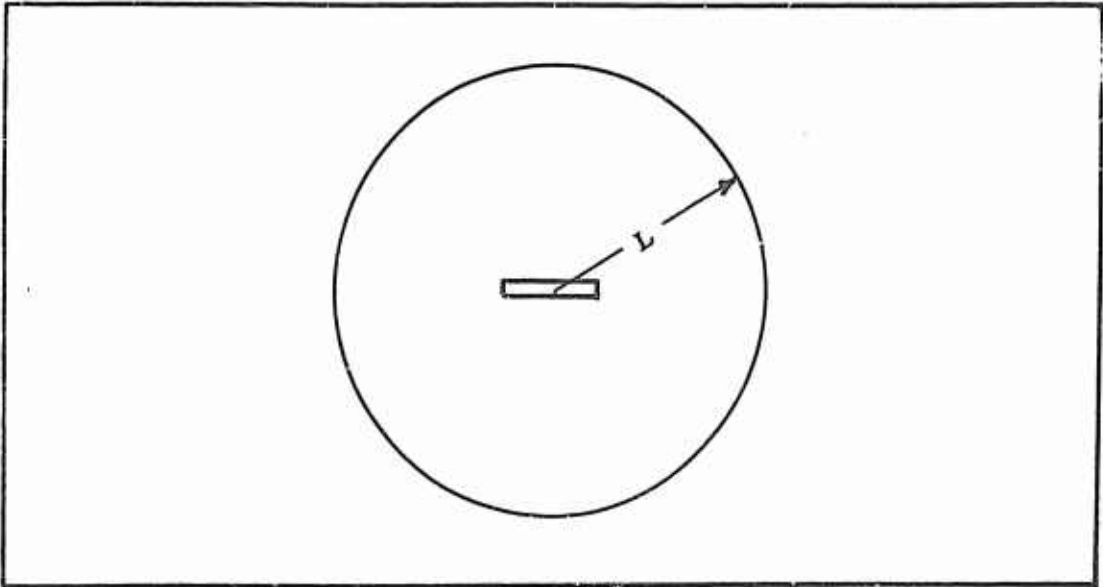


Figure 3. Lethal Radius of Weapon

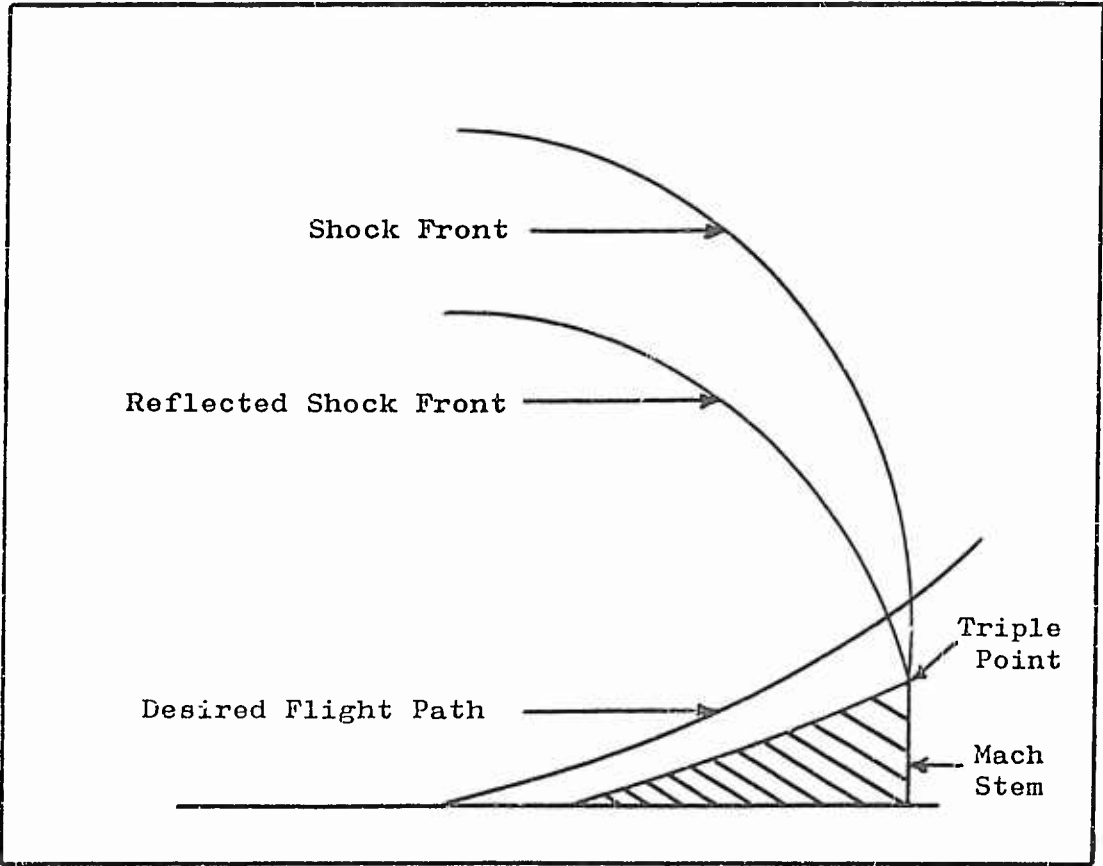


Figure 4. Aircraft Escape Path

The important target area of a typical American bomber base usually averages about 12 to 13 square miles. This corresponds to the area enclosed by a circle about 2 miles in radius (Ref 44:165).

The aiming point on each air base is taken to be the center of the principal runway. The bomb yield is then computed so that it creates a blast overpressure of at least 5 psi everywhere within the target area circle which has a radius of 2 miles.

Air bases are area targets, in contrast to point targets. The general firing problem against an air base is as shown in Figure 5.

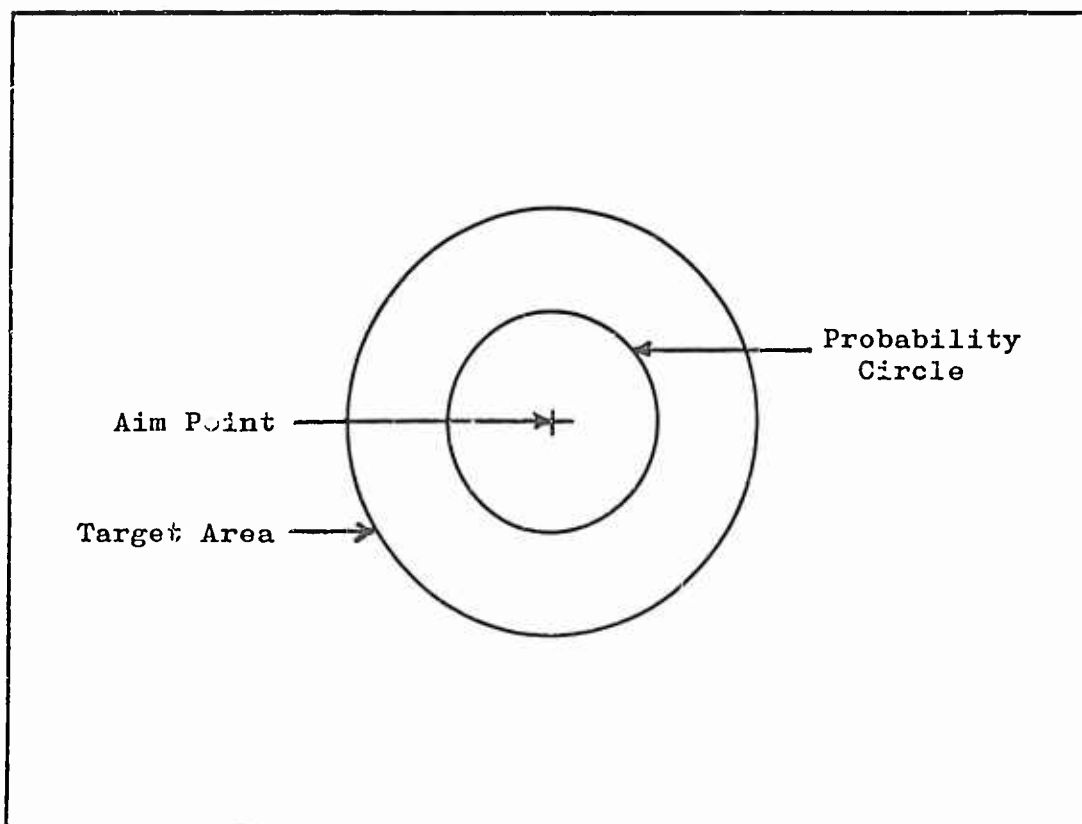


Figure 5. General Firing Problem

This shows the area of the air base as a circle with a radius of 2 miles drawn with the aiming point as its center. The smaller circle encloses the region of radius (R) within which there is a probability (P) that the weapon would strike (Ref 44:169-170).

Computational Aids

As a convenience to those interested in the effects of nuclear weapons, the Lovelace Foundation designed a circular computer to make effects data easily available. Taken from The Effects of Nuclear Weapons (Ref 26), the information on the computer shows the many environmental variations associated with nuclear detonations that present a potential hazard to man. The Lovelace computer was used throughout this study to simplify necessary calculations for the numerous situations presented. Many of the mathematical formulas and charts upon which the Lovelace computer is based are presented in Appendix A.

Another computer aid used in this study is "The Missile Effectiveness and CEP Calculator". It was developed by General Electric-Radio Guidance Operation, Defense Electronics Division, Syracuse, New York.

The purpose of the Missile Effectiveness and CEP Calculator is to provide the system designer with a means of quickly evaluating the effect of changes in various weapon system parameters on the performance of the system (Ref 47).

The Missile Effectiveness Calculator is used to show

the surface burst lethal radius of a weapon when used against point targets of specified hardness, and to convert this to a single shot kill probability (SSKP) for a range of circular probable errors (CEP). It also gives the cumulative kill probability when more than one weapon is fired against a target. The supporting mathematical details for the computer can be found in Appendix 6 of Strategy for Survival (Ref 44).

For any given CEP, the lethal radius in nautical miles for point targets (i.e. the center of an area target) can be obtained from the General Electric computer. The CEP, which also stands for the circle of equal probability, is the area within which 50% of the missiles will strike. The probability (P) of a hit with a single weapon against a single point target can be written in terms of the weapon lethal radius (L) and the CEP as:

$$P = 1 - e^{-0.693\left(\frac{L}{\text{CEP}}\right)^2}$$

This equation has been solved for various lethal radii and CEP's (solutions can also be obtained from the General Electric computer), and some of the results are shown in Table IV (Ref 44:335).

Kill Probability and Circular Probable Error

One must next determine what kill probability the enemy desires, and thus calculate the lethal radius (L) required for point target destruction. Table V gives the lethal radius required for selected enemy desired kill

probabilities (P) and various CEP's.

Table IV

Probability of a Hit Against a Single
Point Target by a Single Weapon

Lethal Radius	CEP = $\frac{1}{2}$ mile	CEP = 1 mile	CEP = 2 miles
0.50	50.0	16.0	4.0
0.75	79.0	32.0	9.0
1.00	94.0	50.0	16.0
1.50	99.8	79.0	32.0
2.00	99.9	94.0	50.0
2.50	100.0	98.0	66.0
3.00	100.0	99.8	79.0
4.00	100.0	100.0	94.0

Table V

Lethal Radius for Point Targets

Probability (P)	CEP = $\frac{1}{2}$ mile	CEP = 1 mile	CEP = 2 miles
80%	0.75	1.50	3.00
85%	0.83	1.65	3.40
90%	0.90	1.83	3.60
95%	1.10	2.10	4.20

Table V is similar to Table IV, except that in Table V the probability (P) is fixed and the required lethal radius is calculated for various CEP's. Table V indicates, for example, that for a CEP of one mile and a desired kill probability of 85%, the weapon used must

have a lethal radius of at least 1.65 miles. This radius corresponds to that of an 85% probability circle (similar to a CEP which is a 50% probability circle) centered at the aim point. The weapon size must allow for an impact anywhere in the circle, and the worst case is on the rim of the circle. Figure 6 shows the area of destruction when a weapon impacts on the rim of the probability circle. The minimum lethal radius of the weapon must equal the radius of the probability circle ($L = R$).

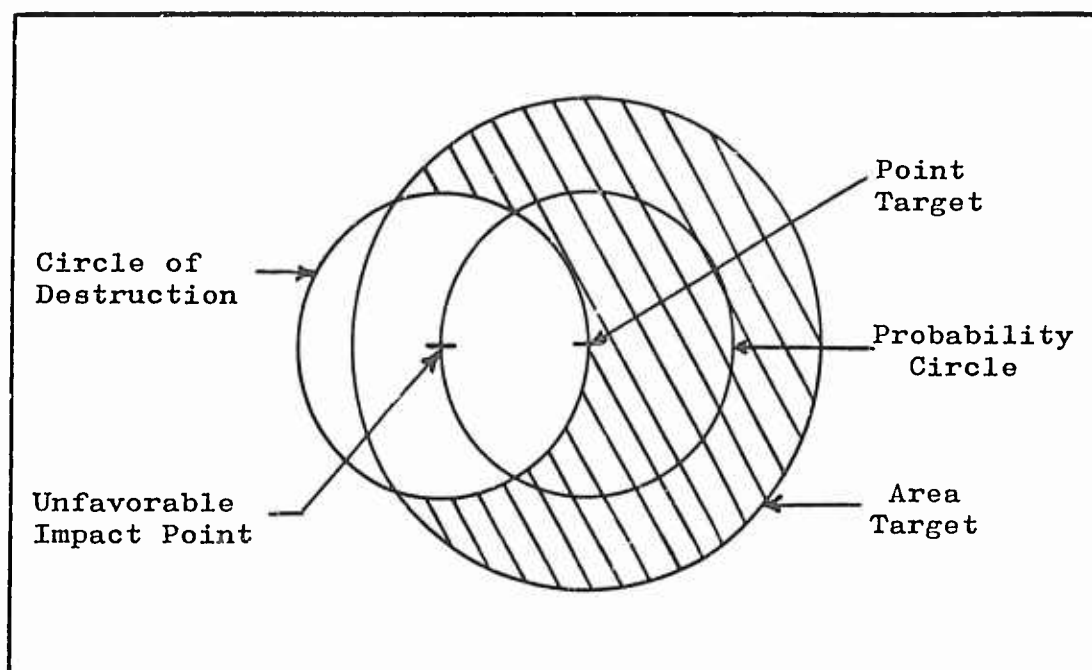


Figure 6. Unfavorable Impact Location for Point Target

Targeting Air Bases

Air Force bases are area targets. It is easily seen that the shaded part of the area target in Figure 6 will not be hit by the desired 5 psi under the above conditions. Therefore, for targeting air bases, the blast destruction

must reach from the most unfavorable impact point outward to the farthest point of the target area (Figure 7). This requires that the 5 psi blast overpressure be produced over a distance equal to the sum of the radii of the two circles, i.e., $L = 2 + R$ (Ref 44:170).

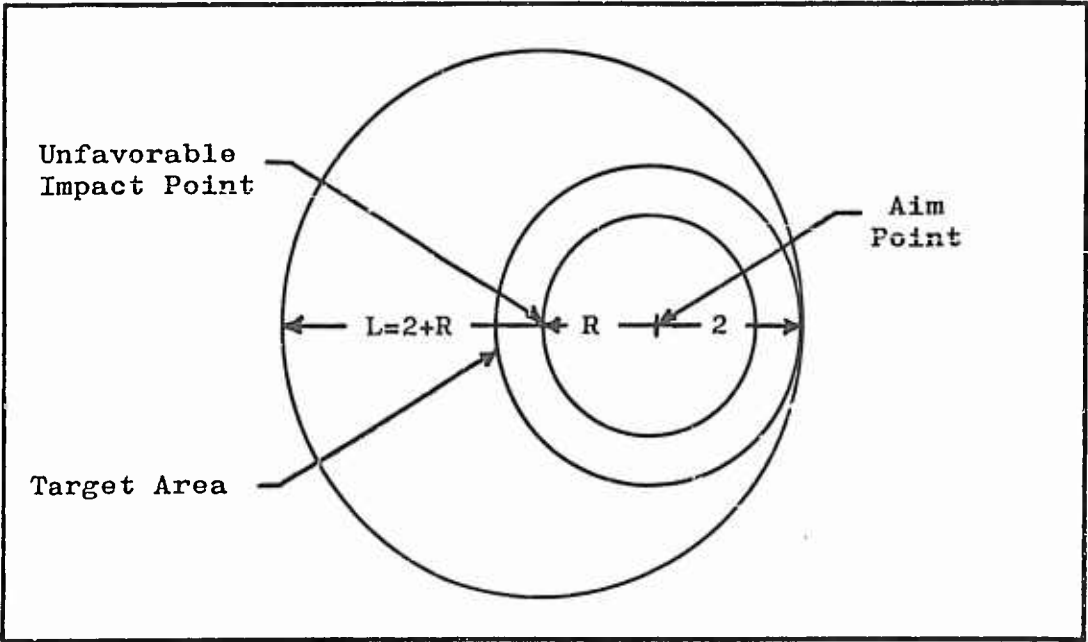


Figure 7. Unfavorable Impact Location for Area Targets

The required weapon lethal radii (L) for area targets then becomes two plus the values of Table V. Table VI gives these values.

Table VI

Required Lethal Radii for Area Targets (miles)

Probability (P)	CEP = $\frac{1}{2}$ mile	CEP = 1 mile	CEP = 2 miles
80%	2.75	3.50	5.00
85%	2.83	3.65	5.40
90%	2.90	3.83	5.60
95%	3.10	4.10	6.20

The lethal radius (L) in miles can be calculated for various weapon yields from the Lovelace computer. These radii are summarized in Table VII.

Table VII

Weapon Lethal Radii Available

Bomb Yield (MT)	Lethal Radius Air Burst(mi)	Lethal Radius Surface Burst(mi)
0.1	2.0	1.3
0.5	3.4	2.2
1.0	4.3	2.8
2.0	5.4	3.4
5.0	7.4	4.7
10.0	9.3	5.9

Weapon Assumption

A comparison of the lethal radii available (Table VII) and the required lethal radii (Table VI) indicates that destruction of a bomber base may be achieved by an air burst or a surface burst of 2 - 5 MT. Considering the payload capability of the SLBM, the air burst is more advantageous to the attacker since he could use bomb yields of 2 MT or less and destroy most bases.

With this in mind, the following assumption will now be made. A weapon of 2 MT or less yield will be detonated at optimal altitude to provide 5 psi over-pressure over the entire 2 mile radius of the target.

For a single warhead it can be seen that the escape distance (D) to which the aircraft must fly to be safe

for the worst case is $D = L + R$. For a cluster of warheads (MRV) the determination of escape distance is more complex and will be developed along with the determination of D for the single warhead case.

Optimal Burst Height

For purposes of this study a determination of the optimal burst heights must be made. From Figure 31 in Appendix A, the optimal height of burst for a 1 KT yield and 5 psi overpressure is 1000 feet, and the distance it reaches from ground zero is 2280 feet. This relationship scales as the cube root of the yield (Figure 29, Appendix A). These relationships and the Lovelace computer were used to calculate the heights of burst and lethal radii shown in Table VIII.

Table VIII

Optimal Height of Burst

Yield (MT)	Height (feet)	5 psi Radius (miles)
0.1	4,650	2.00
0.5	7,900	3.40
1.0	10,000	4.32
2.0	12,500	5.41

Mach Stem

The height of the mach stem can be calculated from the various weapon yields and lethal radii given in Table VIII (formulas in Appendix A). These values are

shown in Figure 33 of Appendix A for a 1 KT yield. This figure shows that the mach stem commences at 0.13 miles and the height of the mach stem is dependent upon the distance from the point of burst. Heights of the mach stem for yields other than 1 KT are shown in Table IX.

Table IX
Height of Mach Stem

Yield (MT)	5 psi Radius (miles)	Stem Height (feet)
0.1	2.00	650
0.5	3.40	1100
1.0	4.32	1400
2.0	5.41	1750

Desired Flight Path

It is readily seen that the height of the mach stem is small in relation to the distance from the point of burst. This implies that the escaping aircraft could be at an altitude greater than the height of the mach stem. The aircraft should plan its flight path so as to be sufficiently above the triple point to avoid receiving two shocks within a very short interval. This is illustrated in Figure 8.

Shock Wave Travel Time

Next it is necessary to compute the time for the shock wave to travel L miles and the change in over-pressure due to altitude (if any).

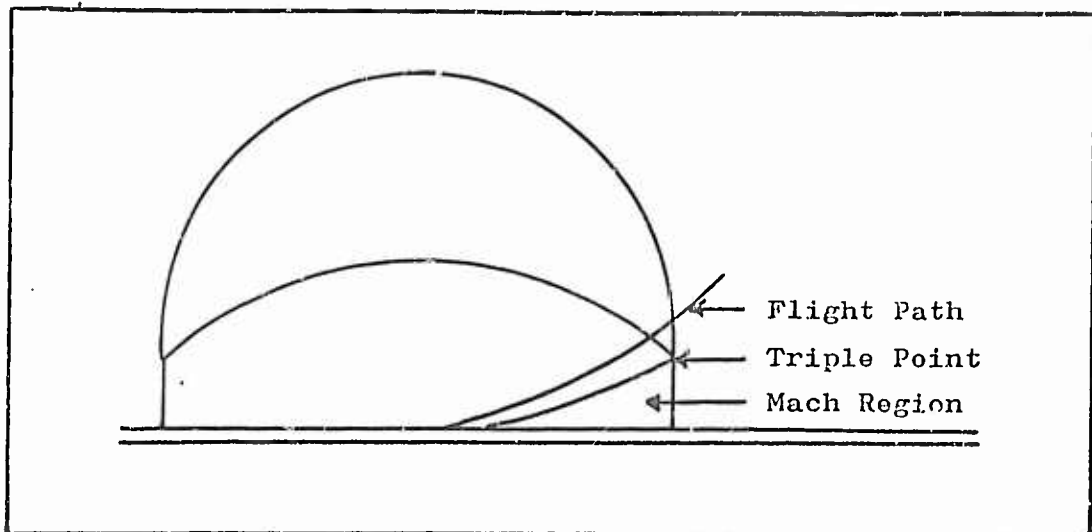


Figure 8. Desired Aircraft Flight Path

Note that for the 1 MT and 2 MT detonations the aircraft may not be near coaltitude with the center of the burst. Consequently, the time of arrival of the shock wave will be between the arrival time in the stem and the coaltitude time. Likewise, the overpressure at the height of the aircraft will be slightly greater than the coaltitude overpressure, yet somewhat less than the stem overpressure. A rough interpolation should be sufficient in this region due to the small range of allowable values.

It should also be noted that for the 100 KT and 500 KT detonations the optimal height of burst is between 4000 feet and 8000 feet. Since this would be near the height of the aircraft, no altitude corrections need be calculated.

The coaltitude pressure (p) and the shock arrival time (s) can be determined for various weapon yields and heights of burst using the following equations (for a more

complete description see Appendix A):

$$p = p_1 \left(\frac{p}{p_0} \right)$$

$$s = s_1 W^{1/3} \left(\frac{p_0}{p} \right)^{1/3} \left(\frac{T_0}{T} \right)^{1/2}$$

The coaltitude pressure can be calculated directly and the results for yields of 1 MT and 2 MT are shown in Table X. To find s , the shock arrival time, it is first necessary to determine s_1 , the shock arrival time for a 1 KT burst. For example, to compute the value of s for a 2 MT weapon, first compute the corresponding burst height for a 1 KT weapon:

$$h_1 = \frac{h}{W^{1/3}} = \frac{12500}{(2000)^{1/3}} = 1000 \text{ feet}$$

The corresponding distance from ground zero for 1 KT is:

$$d_1 = \frac{d}{W^{1/3}} = \frac{26400}{(2000)^{1/3}} = 2100 \text{ feet}$$

From Figure 32 (Appendix A) the shock arrival time for a 1 KT burst at a height of burst of 1000 feet and at a distance of 2100 feet from ground zero is approximately equal to 1.5 seconds. The corresponding arrival time for a 2 MT yield is:

$$s = s_1 W^{1/3} = 1.5(2000)^{1/3} = 18.75 \text{ seconds}$$

The coaltitude correction is:

$$s = s_1 W^{1/3} \left(\frac{p_0}{p} \right)^{1/3} \left(\frac{T_0}{T} \right)^{1/2} = 23 \text{ seconds}$$

These values are summarized in Table X.

Table X

Coaltitude Overpressure and Arrival Time

Weapon Yield (MT)	Stem Overpressure (psi)	Coaltitude Overpressure (psi)	Stem Arrival (sec)	Coaltitude Arrival (sec)
1	5	3.44	17.50	21
2	5	3.12	18.75	23

These values imply that the overpressure at the aircraft location is between the coaltitude values and the 5 psi in the stem. Also, the arrival time for the shock wave for each yield is between these tabled values. For purposes of illustration it is desirable to arbitrarily select an overpressure (hardness) which the aircraft in question can withstand. Because of the similarity in the coaltitude overpressures for the 1 MT and 2 MT yields, 3 psi is selected as the example aircraft hardness. The selection of this value is convenient as it allows a slight extension of the range specifications and the interpolated coaltitude times, thus approaching the actual coaltitude values calculated.

Determination of the 3 psi range and time for the 100 KT and 500 KT yields can be done by formula, or by the Lovelace computer. These results are summarized in Table XI.

Escape Distance

It is now possible to calculate the distance (D) to which an aircraft must travel to be safe, and the time (S)

Table XI
Range and Time for 3 psi

Weapon Yield (MT)	Lethal Radius (mi)	Overpressure at Aircraft (psi)	Shock Arrival (sec)
0.1	2.8	3	12
0.5	4.8	3	20
1.0	5.0	3	21
2.0	6.0	3	23

for the shock wave to travel this distance for the worst possible case. It is necessary to select arbitrary values for the CEP and the desired enemy kill probability (P). This will allow a determination of the required lethal radius (L) and the radius (R) which can be used in the various footprint patterns to determine the maximum escape distance required. For the purposes of this study, let the enemy selection of P be 95% and the CEP be one mile. This would give footprints of 5 psi over the target area and 3 psi lethal aircraft radius for the 1 MT and 2 MT cases as shown in Figure 9.

For smaller weapon cluster attacks, calculations for the MRV deployment are based on the center of the array of deployed warheads as ground zero. The Polaris A-3 SLBM is capable of carrying either a 1 MT warhead or three 200 KT warheads (Ref 2:73). Assuming that the clusters used by the enemy consist of either three 100 KT warheads or three 500 KT warheads, the footprints of the clusters would appear as shown in Figure 10.

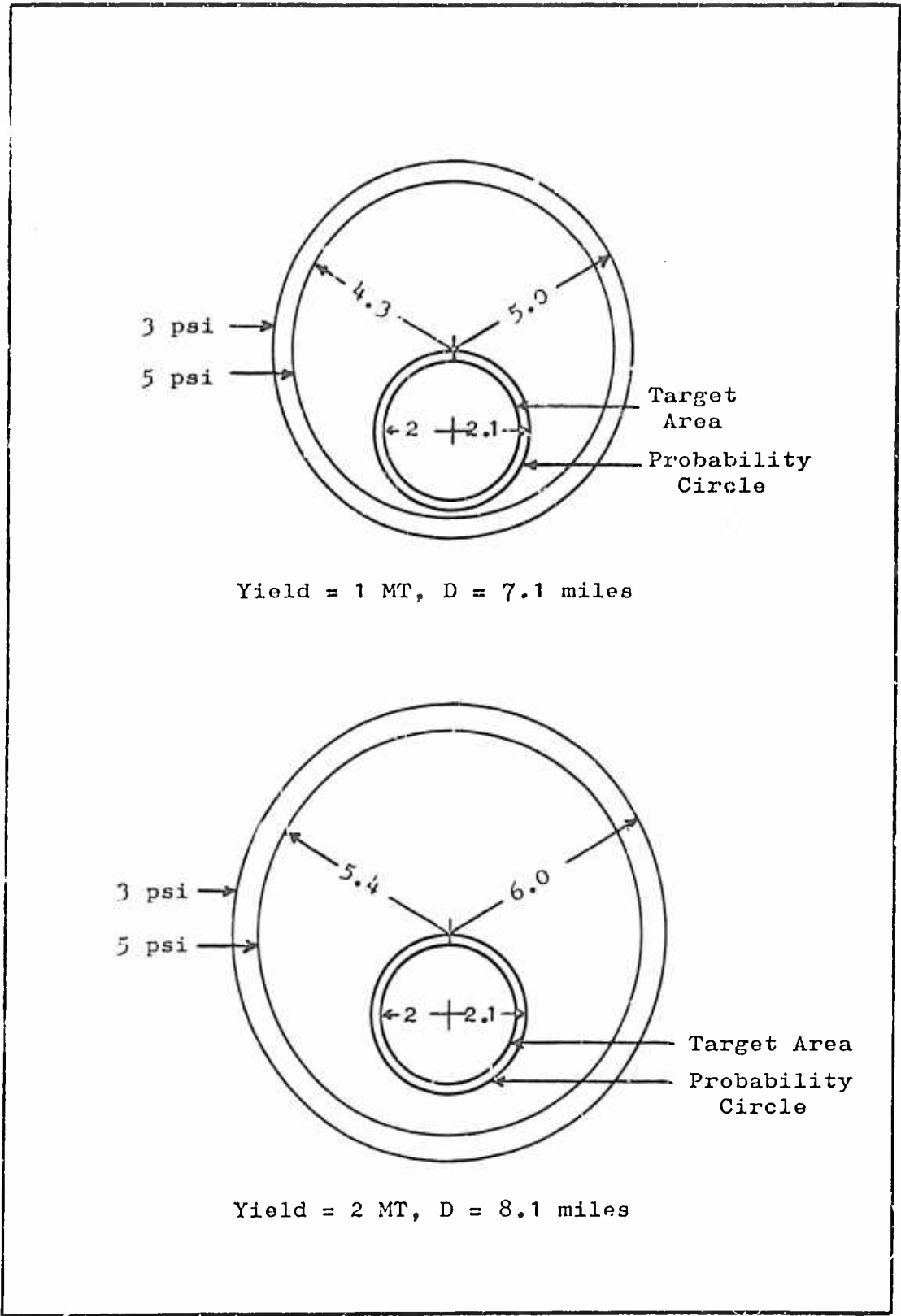


Figure 9. Escape Distance (D), Worst Case for 1 MT & 2 MT

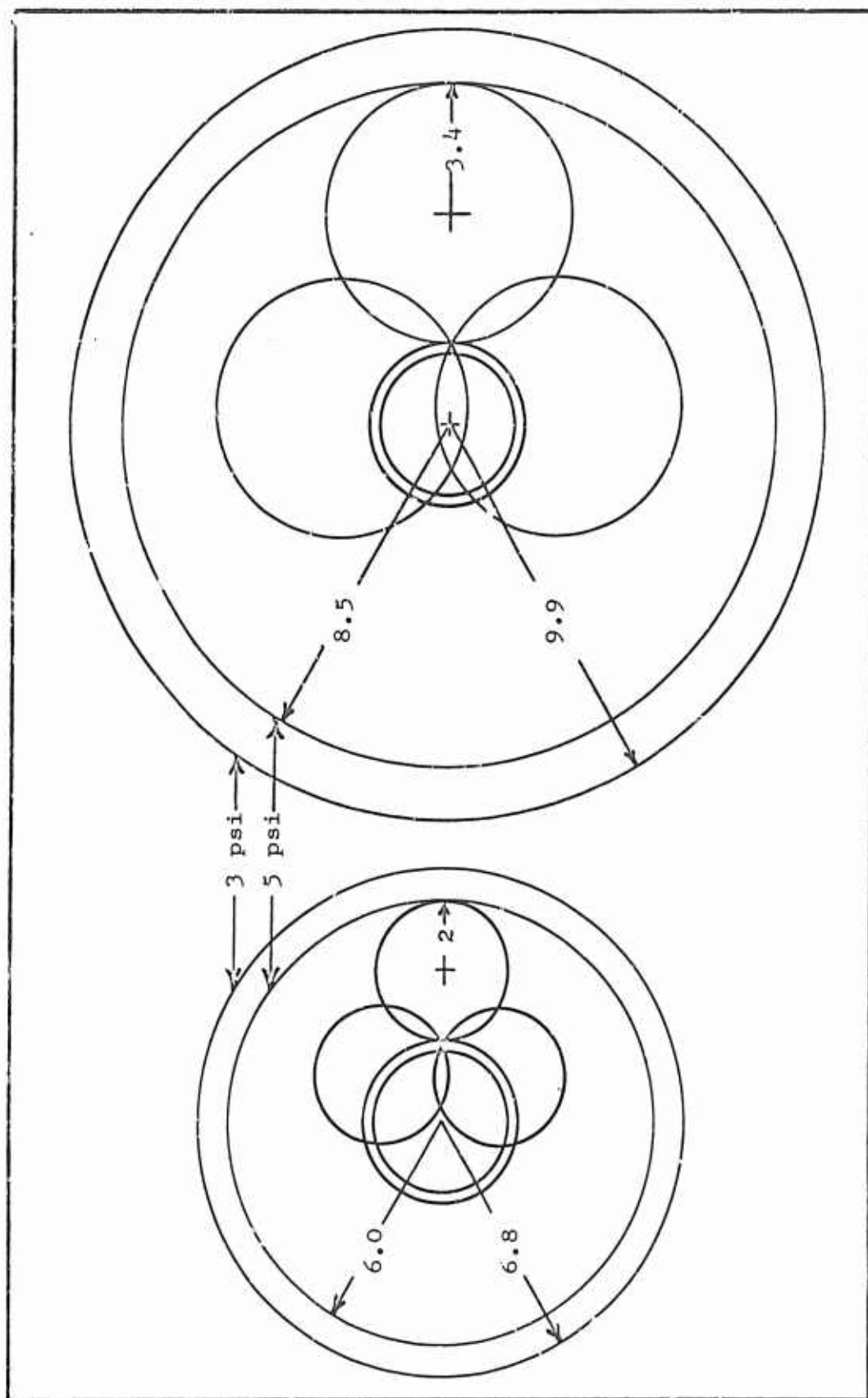


Figure 10. Escape Distance (D), Worst Case for 3x100 KT and 3x500 KT Weapons

It is apparent from each of these diagrams that the allowance for the worst case may be somewhat severe and unrealistic. For instance, the worst case for 1 MT calls for the detonation of the weapon on the outer ring of the probability circle, thus implying an escape distance of 7.1 miles (Figure 9). However, this is only going to be the case when the aircraft flight path is in the direction of the weapon detonation. Should the flight path be in any other direction, especially opposite the direction of the weapon detonation, the escape distance would be less. The same condition also holds for the cluster attack. For this reason it is desirable to assume a direct hit and calculate the escape distance (D) to be equal to the lethal radius (L) of the various weapon attacks. Then one can further show what the conditions would be if the aircraft were in fact flying in the worst case direction. Figures 11, 12 and 13 illustrate these concepts.

The distances in Figures 11 and 12 for the lethal radius and aircraft safe escape are shown in Table XII which summarizes data to be used in the remainder of this study.

Table XII

Data to be Used in Example

Weapon Yield (KT & MT)	Lethal Radius (miles)	Shock Arrival (seconds)
3x100 KT	5	12
3x500 KT	8	20
1 MT	5	21
2 MT	6	23

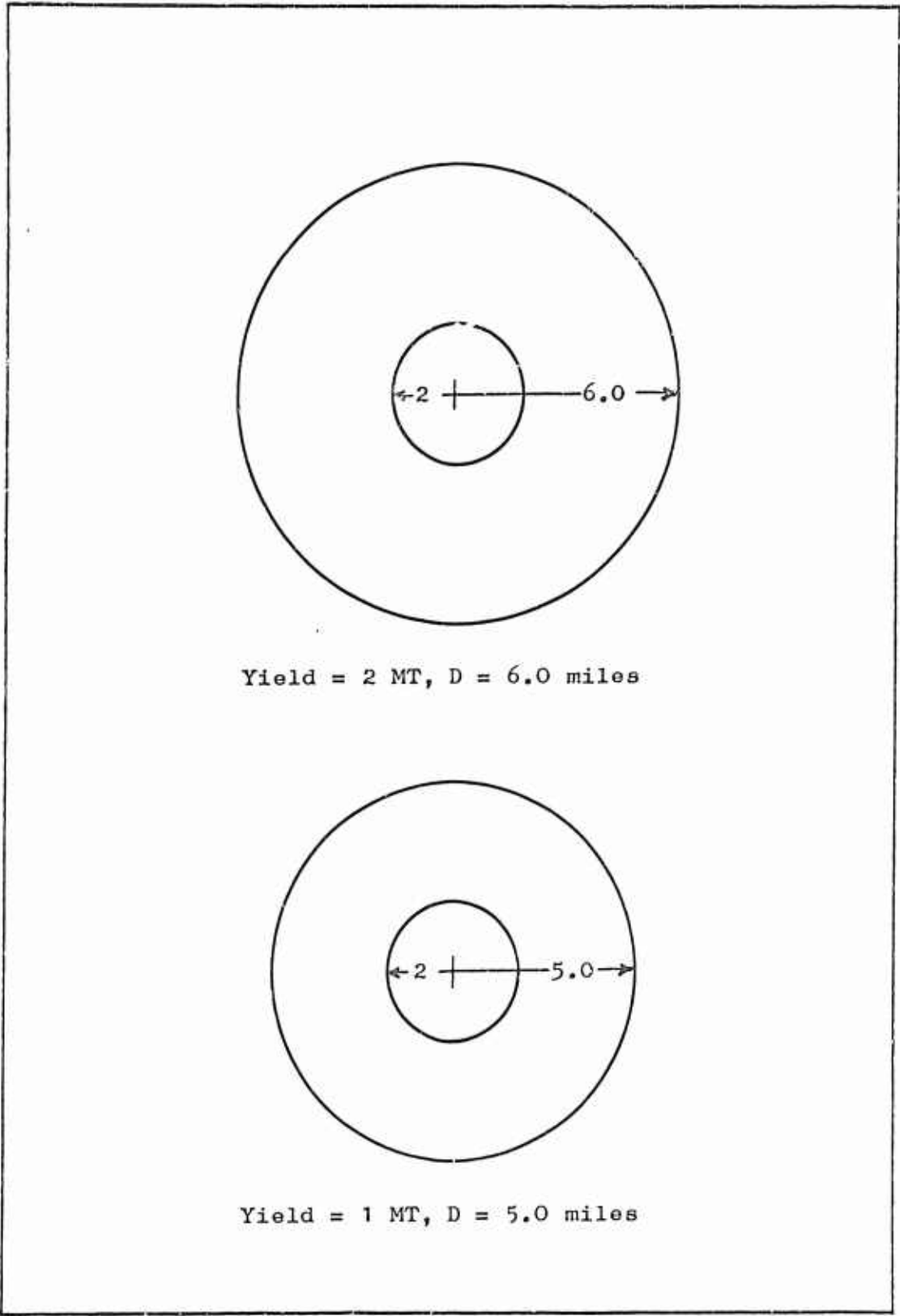
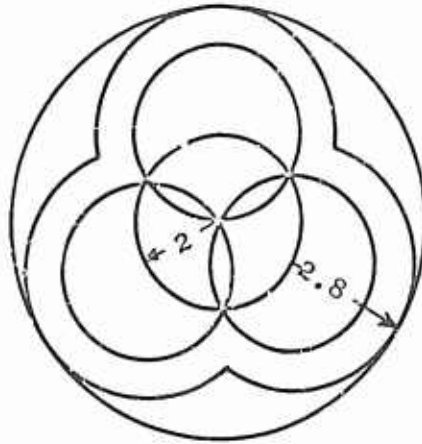
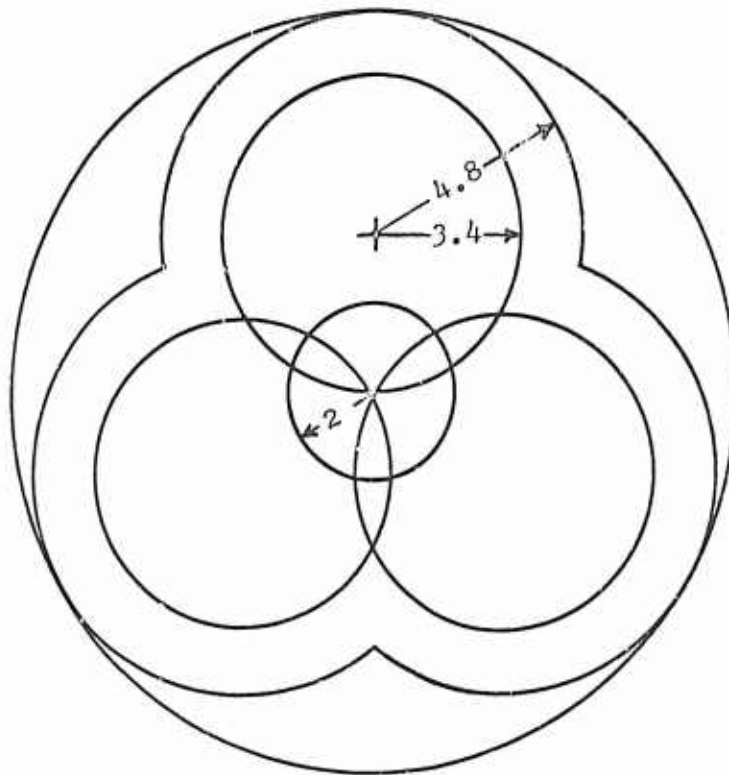


Figure 11. 3 psi Range, Direct Hit for 1 MT & 2 MT



Yield = 3x100 KT, D = 4.8 miles



Yield = 3x500 KT, D = 8.2 miles

Figure 12. 3 psi Range, Direct Hit for 3x100 KT & 3x500 KT

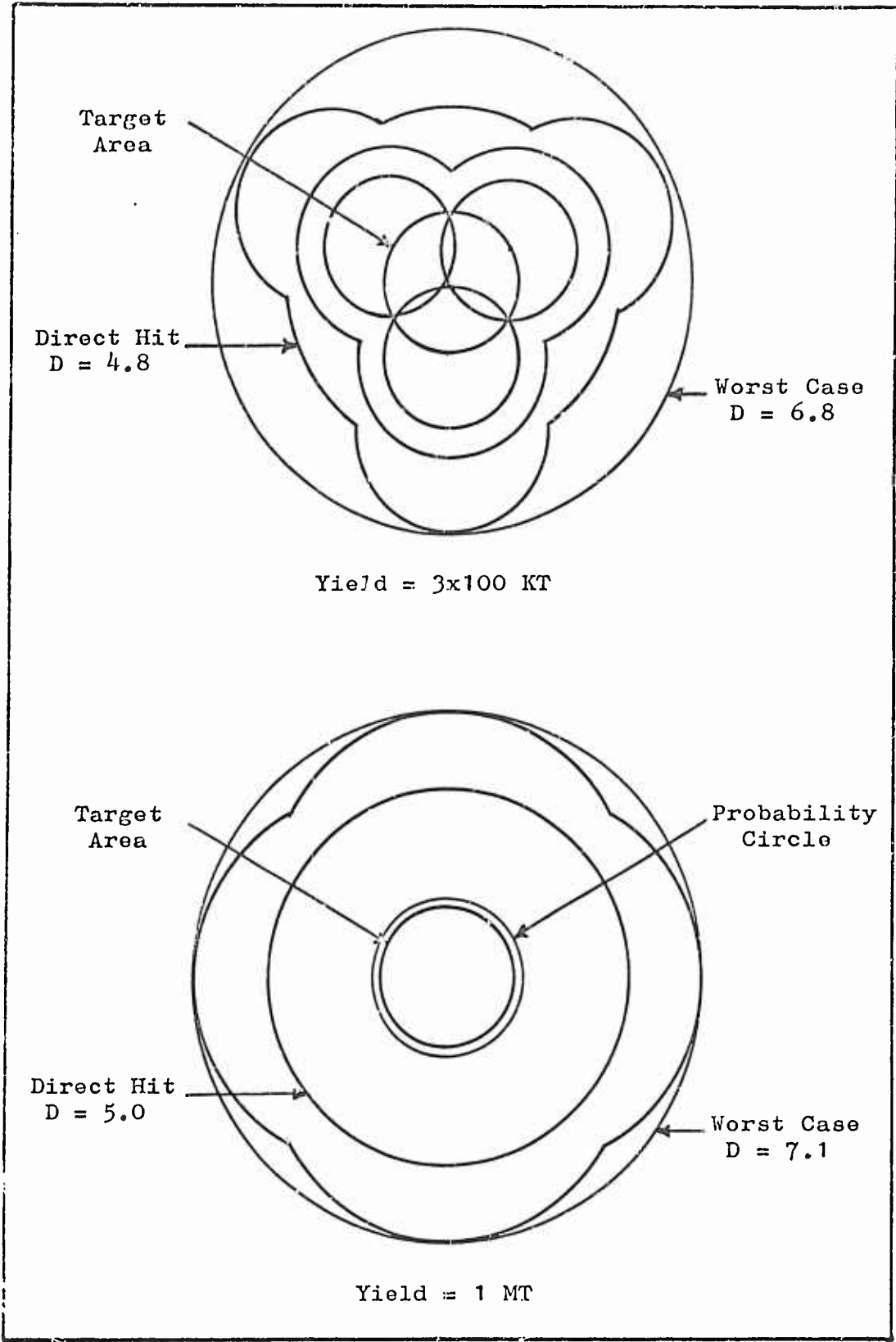


Figure 13. Aircraft Flight Path for Worst Case

Since Table XII shows the eight mile radius to be the most severe, this is the value which will be used for the safe escape distance in the example. If other warheads are known to be aboard enemy SLBM's, the appropriate distance can be used.

As stated previously, the selection of 3 psi overpressure for the lethal limit was arbitrary. Figure 14 illustrates the effect of a change in the lethal overpressure. These values would depend on the hardness characteristics of the aircraft in question. For lower aircraft hardness, the distance the aircraft must travel to be safe is greater, and the corresponding shock arrival time is longer.

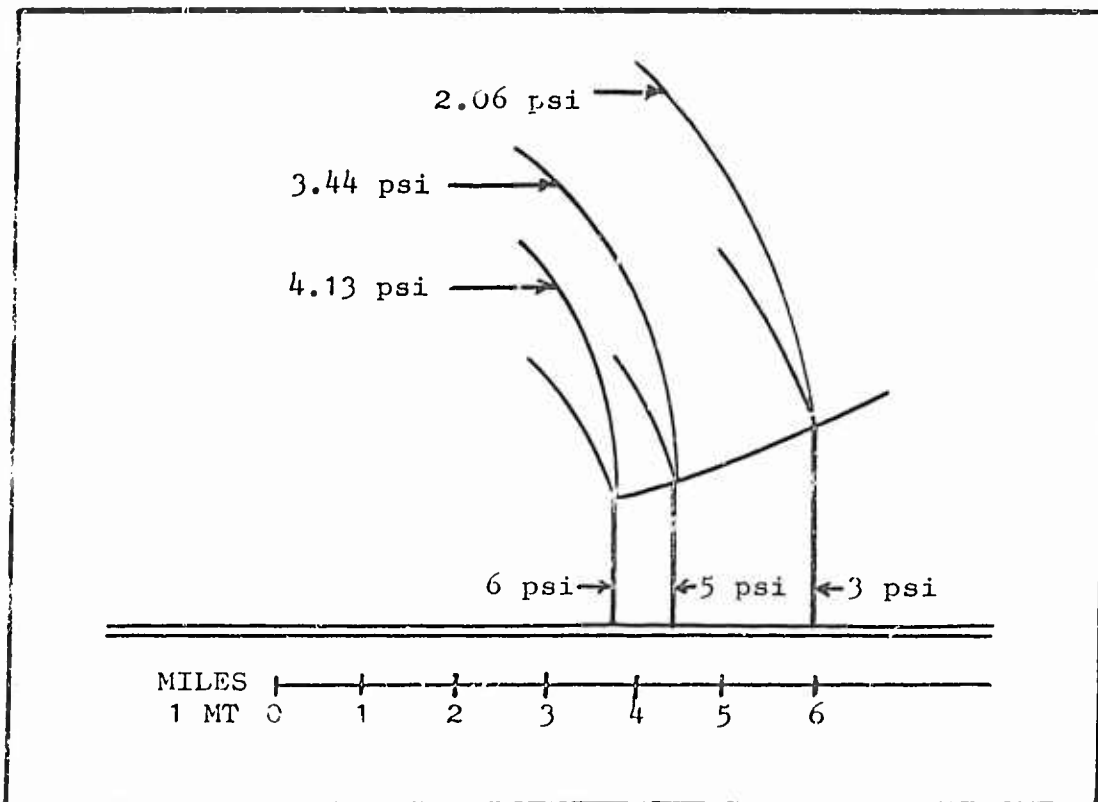


Figure 14. Effect of Aircraft Hardness on Escape Distance

Survival Time

Once the safe escape distance has been determined, the time to takeoff and fly this distance can be computed from the performance tables in the applicable technical order (the "dash one") for any given aircraft. Further development of the model requires a determination of the other parameters critical to prelaunch survival. These include missile detection, warning, crew reaction, and aircraft reaction times. The sum of these five times is the critical time period (T) required for an aircraft to survive a surprise attack.

Man has some control over each of these critical times. Detection time depends on the capabilities of radars or other detection equipment, and their operators. Warning time depends on the command and control system and its supporting communications network. The state of alert of the crew members and their proximity to the alert aircraft governs crew reaction time. Aircraft reaction is dependent on engine start and systems warm-up times, plus the proximity of the aircraft to the take-off position on the runway. The time to fly to a safe distance depends on the performance and hardness characteristics of the particular aircraft.

For purposes of the model, let T equal the sum of the t_k , $k = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$. These t_k are the five critical times over which the defending force has some control, and which determine prelaunch survival time.

The equation for T may be written:

$$T = \sum_{k=1}^5 t_k, \text{ where}$$

t_1 = detection time (from missile launch to detection by radar or other means)

t_2 = warning time (from detection to crew alert)

t_3 = crew reaction time (from alert notification to ready for engine start)

t_4 = aircraft reaction time (from start engines to takeoff position on the runway)

t_5 = flight time to safe escape distance (time to fly distance D, previously developed)

Survival Equation

The parameters developed to this point can be used to calculate the number of aircraft which can survive on a given airfield against a given threat. Using the threat data from Figure 1 and the contour chart in Figure 2, let a_{ij} equal the number of aircraft which can survive on an airfield in zone i when confronted with threat j. The reason for the subscripts will be made apparant in later calculations for total force survival and are introduced here for uniformity.

The following equation will give the desired result:

$$a_{ij} = \frac{60}{I}(M - T) + \frac{S}{I} + 1$$

where I = aircraft launch interval (in seconds)

M = missile time of flight (in minutes)

$T = \sum_{k=1}^5 t_k$, the sum of critical times (in minutes)

S = time (in seconds) for the shock front to travel the escape distance

Note: a_{ij} is the positive integer part of the solution, i.e., $6.34 = 6$, $0.78 = 0$, etc. (Ref 70:461)

The formulation is straight forward and easily understood. Sixty seconds divided by the launch interval gives the number of aircraft which begin their takeoff roll in one minute. The missile time of flight is proportional to the distance it must fly to reach its intended target, and thus is determined by the zone in which the target airfield lies and the distance from the coastline to the point of missile launch.

Subtracting the sum of the times critical to pre-launch survival (T) from the missile time of flight (M) gives the time available for the aircraft to escape. Since T includes the flight time to safe escape distance, the difference ($M - T$), when multiplied by the number of aircraft launching per minute ($\frac{60}{I}$), yields the number of aircraft which get outside the lethal radius ($D = L$) before weapon detonation.

An additional short period of time available to escaping aircraft is the time (S) for the shock front to travel the lethal radius distance after detonation. When this time is divided by the launch interval ($\frac{S}{I}$), the result is the number of additional aircraft which can escape.

If the one aircraft which just reaches the safe

escape distance is considered to get away safely, it must be accounted for in the equation by adding one.

Summation of the aircraft which can get outside the lethal radius before warhead detonation, aircraft which can escape during the time for the shock front to travel the lethal radius, and the one aircraft which just makes the safe escape distance, gives the total number of aircraft which can survive on one airfield against one threat.

Since solution of the equation can result in non-integer answers, a decision rule is adopted to use only the positive integer part of the answer. The reason for this rule is the so called "cookie cutter" approach. This approach to the problem requires that any aircraft at or beyond the lethal radius survives. Fractional parts of aircraft surviving have no useful meaning.

Survival Matrix

Using the survival equation just developed to determine the number of aircraft which can survive a surprise enemy attack while stationed in any particular zone, one can now proceed to determine total bomber force survival in the following manner. Given any m zones (determined by distance contours from the United States coastlines) and any n threats (determined by known or suspected enemy missile capabilities), calculate the number of aircraft (a_{ij}) which can survive in zone i ($i = 1, 2, \dots, m$) when confronted with threat j ($j = 1, 2, \dots, n$). Arrange these values in standard matrix form (Ref 27:60-71 & 25:20-21).

The result is the $m \times n$ aircraft survival matrix A .

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1j} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2j} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{i1} & a_{i2} & \dots & a_{ij} & \dots & a_{in} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mj} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Then form the bomber beddown matrix B , which is a one by m matrix with elements (b_i) determined by the number of airfields in zone i which are used to bed down bombers on alert.

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 & b_2 & \dots & b_i & \dots & b_m \end{bmatrix}$$

The product of these matrices (BA) is the force survival matrix F , where each element (f_j) represents the number of bombers surviving in the total force given threat j .

$$BA = F = \begin{bmatrix} f_1 \\ f_2 \\ \vdots \\ f_j \\ \vdots \\ f_n \end{bmatrix}$$

In the following example problem and the analyses in the next chapter, it is assumed for ease of computation that the enemy submarines launch their missiles at a distance of 100 nautical miles from the United States coastlines. As previously noted, the contour lines on Figure 2 are 200 nautical miles apart. Using the middle of each contour interval as the distance from the coastline to each base in that interval, the missile ranges will be in increments of 200 nautical miles, i.e., all bases in the interval from the coastline to the first contour line are considered to be 200 nautical miles from the point of missile launch. For more precise calculations, should they be necessary, the exact distance from the enemy SLBM launch point to any given base could be used (if known). For the purpose of the examples in this study, the arbitrary intervals of 200 nautical miles will suffice.

Example Problem

For purpose of illustration, the above model will be used to determine total bomber force survival if only existing and currently planned SAC bomber bases and satellite dispersal bases are to be used for bomber beddown. The following bomber beddown matrix was developed using these known bases and the information in Appendix B applied to Figure 2 (Ref 61:5 & 74:27).

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 21 & 9 & 13 & 2 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Recall that each element of this matrix (b_i) represents the number of bases in zone i .

The weapon used in this example is a 3x500 KT MRV warhead. This implies that the safe escape distance (D) is eight miles and the shock front arrival time (S) is twenty seconds. Calculations will be made for aircraft launch intervals (I) of fifteen seconds, ten seconds, and five seconds.

It is also necessary to establish values for the t_k times in order to determine the critical time period (T). Two values of T are shown in this example so that changes in these times can be compared. Hypothetical times for the example are shown in Table XIII.

Table XIII
Values of t_k and T

t_k	Description	Case 1 (min)	Case 2 (min)
t_1	Detection Time	1.0	0.50
t_2	Warning Time	0.5	0.25
t_3	Crew Reaction Time	2.0	1.50
t_4	Aircraft Reaction Time	2.5	2.25
t_5	Escape Flight Time	2.5	2.00
T	Summation of t_k	8.5	6.50

For Case 1 the survival formula would be:

$$a_{ij} = \frac{60}{I}(M - 8.5) + \frac{20}{I} + 1$$

This formula is then used to develop the following three aircraft survival matrices for different launch intervals.

$$A_{(I=15)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 5 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 11 & 5 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 18 & 10 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 24 & 16 & 8 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A_{(I=10)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 7 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 16 & 7 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 27 & 15 & 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 36 & 24 & 12 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A_{(I=5)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 14 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 32 & 14 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 53 & 29 & 8 & 0 & 0 \\ 71 & 47 & 23 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Post multiplying the bomber beddown matrix (B) by each aircraft survival matrix (A) above gives the following three force survival matrices (F) for the different launch intervals (I): $BA = F$.

$$F_{(I=15)} = \begin{bmatrix} 147 \\ 46 \\ 14 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad F_{(I=10)} = \begin{bmatrix} 213 \\ 68 \\ 20 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad F_{(I=5)} = \begin{bmatrix} 423 \\ 133 \\ 39 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

For purposes of comparison, note that in the example the number of aircraft in the total bomber force which

could survive with a fifteen second aircraft launch interval is 147 against Threat I, 46 against Threat II, 14 against Threat III, and none against Threats IV and V. Also note the effect of the launch interval. Against Threat III the bomber force which could survive is 14 if the aircraft launch interval is 15 seconds, 20 if the interval is 10 seconds, and 39 if the interval is 5 seconds.

In Case 2 of this example the critical time (T) is reduced to 6.5 minutes, as was shown in Table XIII. The aircraft survival formula is changed to:

$$a_{ij} = \frac{60}{I}(M - 6.5) + \frac{20}{I} + 1$$

When this formula is used to develop the aircraft survival matrices, as before, the results are as follows.

$$A_{(I=15)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 6 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 13 & 7 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 19 & 13 & 7 & 0 & 0 \\ 26 & 18 & 11 & 4 & 0 \\ 32 & 24 & 16 & 8 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A_{(I=10)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 9 & 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 19 & 10 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 28 & 19 & 10 & 0 & 0 \\ 39 & 27 & 16 & 6 & 0 \\ 48 & 36 & 24 & 12 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A_{(I=5)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 17 & 5 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 38 & 20 & 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 56 & 38 & 20 & 0 & 0 \\ 77 & 53 & 32 & 11 & 0 \\ 95 & 71 & 42 & 23 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Post multiplying the bomber beddown matrix (B) by the aircraft survival matrices developed for Case 2 gives the following force survival matrices: $BA = F$.

$$F_{(I=15)} = \begin{bmatrix} 345 \\ 195 \\ 78 \\ 16 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad F_{(I=10)} = \begin{bmatrix} 510 \\ 285 \\ 115 \\ 24 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad F_{(I=5)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1008 \\ 558 \\ 211 \\ 45 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Comparison of the results in Case 1 and Case 2 shows the results of a change in the critical time (τ). The effect of shortening the aircraft launch interval in Case 2 is graphically illustrated in Figure 15.

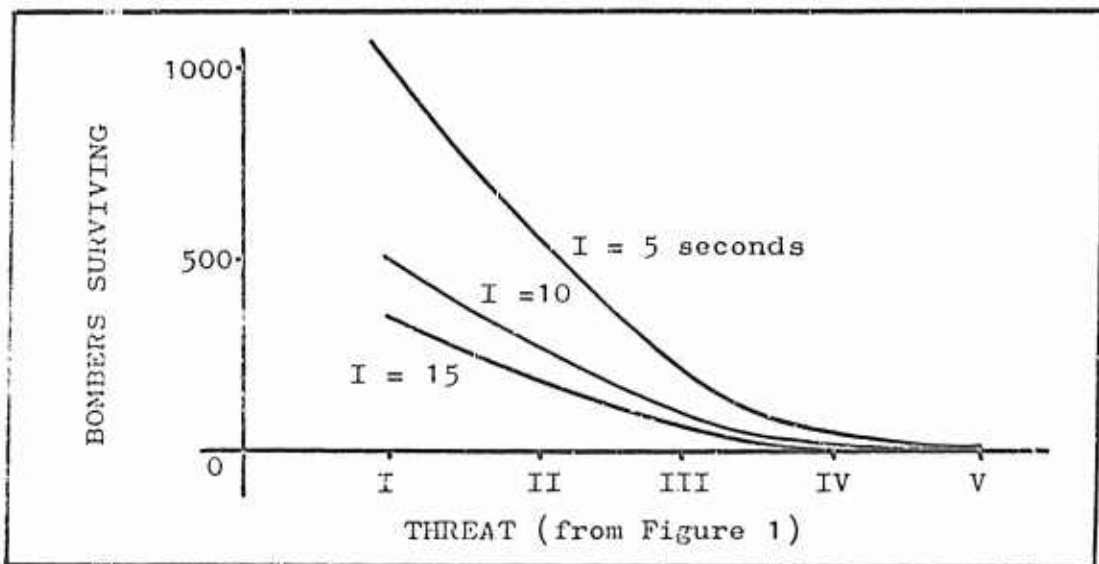


Figure 15. Effect of Bomber Launch Interval on Survival

V. Analysis of Alternatives

You will usually find that the enemy has three courses open to him, and of these he will adopt the fourth.

Helmuth von Moltke ("The Elder")
1800-1891
(Ref 29:80)

Utilizing the threat data presented in Chapter III and the survival model developed in Chapter IV, several basing alternatives can be analyzed. To assist in the analysis and comparison of the various basing alternatives it is necessary to specify certain variables to be held constant throughout the analysis. Further discussion pertaining to the effects due to changes in these variables along with other survival improvement techniques is presented later in this chapter.

The particular values arbitrarily chosen for the various parameters are as follows. Let the distance (D), to which an aircraft must fly to be safe, equal eight miles and the associated shock front arrival time (S) equal 20 seconds. The time (T) for detection, warning, crew and aircraft reaction, and to fly out to safe distance will be 6.5 minutes. Aircraft launch interval (I) will be 10 seconds. Missiles time of flight (M) for the various possible threats will be that shown in Figure 1 (summarized in Table II for the 200 nautical mile intervals of Figure 2). Appendix B will be used for numbers of airfields with certain runway qualifications. Information given in Appendix B was extracted from the VFR Supplement

and the IFR Supplement to the DOD Flight Information Publication (FLIP) published by the USAF Aeronautical Chart and Information Center. The combined IFR and VFR Supplements constitute a complete Aerodrome Directory covering the United States (Ref 34 and 69).

For the purposes of comparing alternatives, Threat III is used throughout most of this chapter. This should not be construed to mean there is any particular significance to this level of threat. Since Threat III represents a sort of mean in relation to the range of hypothetical threat data in Figure 1, the effects of a more severe or less severe threat can easily be seen.

All SAC Bases

The first alternative to be considered is the use of all the existing and currently proposed SAC bomber bases and satellite dispersal bases (Ref 61:5 and 74:27). With the parameters previously specified, this alternative is shown as Case 2 of the example problem in Chapter IV. Recall that these 48 bases in the six zones of Figure 2 resulted in the B matrix: $B = \begin{bmatrix} 21 & 9 & 13 & 2 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. When the B matrix is post multiplied by the $A_{(I=10 \text{ sec.})}$ matrix, the result is the force survival matrix F, where

$$F = \begin{bmatrix} 510 \\ 285 \\ 115 \\ 24 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and each } f_j \text{ represents the number of aircraft surviving threat } j.$$

It is readily seen, for example, that in this

alternative a force of 115 bombers could survive Threat III if all SAC bomber bases and satellite dispersal bases are used.

One obvious advantage to using existing and currently planned SAC bases is that no additional facility construction or communication lines need be established. Thus, essentially no additional cost (above that already planned) is involved.

The major disadvantage lies in the severity of the threat. As seen from the example, if it is determined that enemy technology becomes capable of Threat IV or Threat V and the other parameters remained unchanged, then either 24 bombers survive or the total force is destroyed.

All USAF Bases

To advance one step further in making more bases available to SAC bombers, a solution is to utilize all qualifying AF bases. By qualifying, it is meant that there must be an acceptable runway located on the base for the particular aircraft in question. As shown in Appendix B there are 112 Air Force bases having runways 6000 feet or longer, 101 with 8000 or longer, and 66 with 10,000 feet or longer. The number of bases available under this alternative and some others to follow becomes dependent upon the required runway length and strength.

Assume the development of an advanced long range bomber which is capable of operating from airfields with 8000 feet or more of hard surface runway. Then there

would be 101 USAF bases available to bed down these aircraft.

Again, using the same parameters as before and the B matrix for all AF bases with runways over 8000 feet, the problem can be solved for comparison. The B matrix for this case is $\begin{bmatrix} 57 & 19 & 19 & 3 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and the resulting force survival matrix is given by:

$$BA = F \begin{bmatrix} 742 \\ 394 \\ 143 \\ 24 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

If Threat III is used for comparison, the model shows that 143 aircraft could survive. This represents a gain of 28 aircraft over the "all SAC bases" alternative. If the threat is less severe, the gain is even more significant. However, if it is more severe, there is no gain in force survival. This is due to the fact that there were no additional AF bases in zones 5 and 6 (see Figure 2).

One advantage to using all USAF bases is that construction costs would be minimal, consisting chiefly of alert facilities. Some additional communications links would probably have to be established.

Another advantage is that all aircraft on alert with nuclear weapons would be based on military installations. This is an advantage when compared with alternatives considering the use of civilian fields.

All Military Bases

Another option open to U.S. strategists is to utilize all military installations which have adequate airstrips. Using the 8000 foot assumption of the previous alternatives there are now 50 additional bases (Army, Navy, and Coast Guard) at which an advanced bomber could be stationed. However, examination of the locations of these additional 50 bases reveals that very few are located within zones 4,5, or 6. This results in a very minor increase in the number of bombers escaping Threat III. If the threat is even more severe there is essentially no increase in force survival with this alternative.

The advantages are similar to those of the all Air Force alternative. Construction requirements would be minimal, existing communications could be improved, and nuclear weapons would be confined to military installations.

Cost is not a large factor in either case and primary consideration would have to be the severity of the threat and the size force which must survive.

All Civilian plus All Military Fields

In an effort to make even more runways available, and thus potentially increase the number of aircraft escaping a particular threat, utilization of all civilian fields can be considered. With this alternative, 158 additional airstrips of over 8000 feet are available. Twenty-two of these are in zone 3, ten in zone 4, five in zone 5,

and none in zone 6.

This means that if Threat III is used for comparison once again, an additional 246 aircraft could survive, increasing total force survival to approximately 389.

Note here that, given the arbitrary selection of Threat III, total force survival is approaching the total number of aircraft in the bomber force. Assuming for this discussion that approximately 50 per cent of the total force is on alert at any given time, it is apparent that not all of the 37 civilian fields in the interior zones need be used. In selecting which ones to eliminate, consideration could be given to their proximity to missile sites, other military installations, large industrial or metropolitan areas, or any other areas which might be considered high value targets to the enemy. The basing of bombers in these areas would only serve to increase the priority the enemy would place on destroying such lucrative targets.

Many of the advantages of previous alternatives become the disadvantages of this one. Costs of construction of facilities and communications networks would be higher. There would be political and social considerations if nuclear weapons were to be based on civilian fields. Security of nuclear weapons would present more of a problem.

If the threat to survival becomes severe enough to consider using civilian fields, then these costs will have

to be weighed against the costs of other means of increasing force survival. Some of these methods will be discussed later in this chapter.

Shell Game

Associated with the possibility of using all military and civilian bases is the potential of using a shell game. If there are more bases available than would be required to get total force survival of 100 per cent (or any desired level), then a plan can be devised for continually changing the alert bed down. Aircraft could be relocated monthly, weekly, or even daily to complicate the enemy's targeting problem.

If the number of bases used in a shell game is more than the enemy can realistically target with SLBM's, survival can be calculated using the model developed in Chapter IV and the probability of each base being targeted, to yield an expected value for force survival. In this case it would be possible to utilize bases in zones near the coast, since there is some probability of each base not being targeted.

Cost considerations of the "shell game" alternative are similar to the "all civilian plus all military fields" alternative, but would be even higher since more bases would have to be used.

Launch Interval

As long as there are fewer submarines than bases

to be targeted, the interval between missile launches from a single submarine is a significant figure. Assuming an SLBM launch interval of one minute, aircraft located at a base not targeted on the first salvo have an additional one minute of reaction time (Ref 13:127). A bomber launch interval of fifteen seconds would mean an additional four safe aircraft in this case, and with shorter launch intervals even more could survive.

Targeting Strategy

In addition to these intervals, bomber force survival is dependent on the enemy targeting strategy, i.e., whether they target the most distant bases or the nearest bases with the first salvo. Figure 16 will help to illustrate this concept.

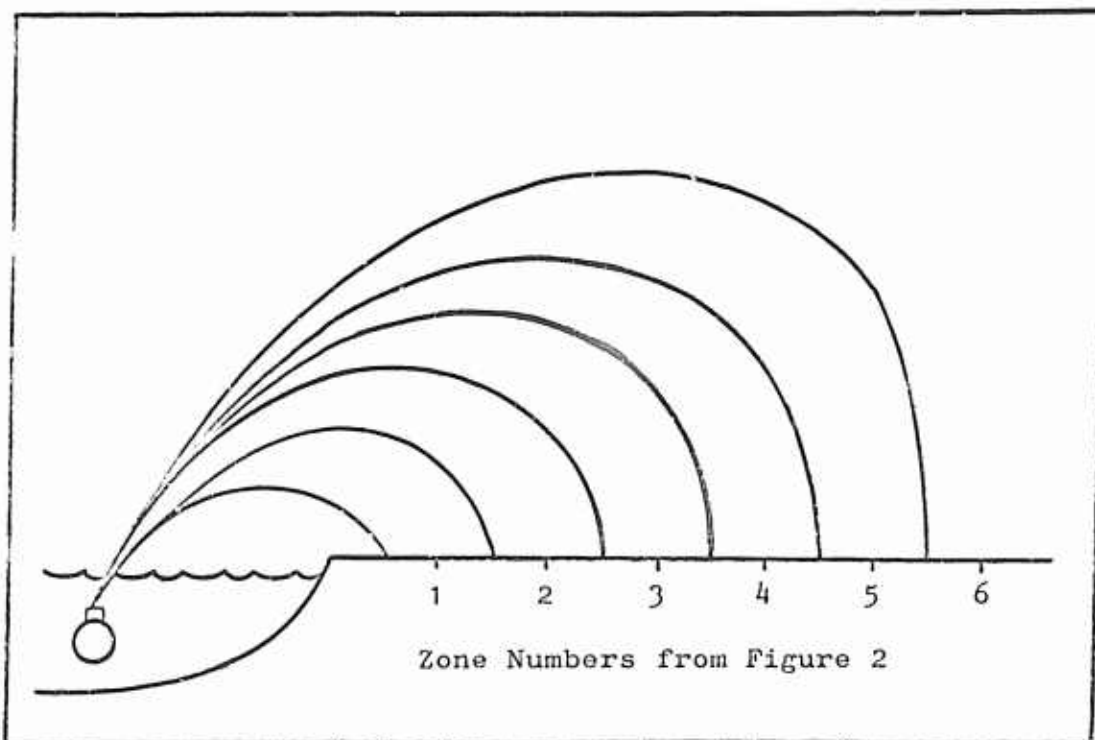


Figure 16. SLBM Targeting Strategy

If bases in the most distant zone are targeted first, other zones nearer the coastlines would be provided additional warning time which might allow more aircraft to escape. Conversely, when the bases in the near zones are targeted first, the more distant bases would gain the additional time.

However, the formulation presented in this paper is deterministic and based on the assumption that all bases are targeted on the first salvo. This "worst case" approach does not include additional time based on firing interval for SLBM's, and it is not stochastic in the sense that it does not take into account the probability of a base not being targeted. Further, it is based on the assumption that the enemy would not choose either extreme targeting strategy of attacking the most distant or the nearest bases first, but rather one in which bases in all zones are targeted uniformly on the first salvo.

Grid of Austere Bases

Another alternative to be discussed in some detail is the possibility of constructing a system of runways to complement or completely replace the existing network of bomber bases. A simplified approach to this is to use an area relatively insensitive to the SLBM threat, such as the 1000 nautical mile contour line (see Figure 2). Within this area a grid of austere bases could be constructed with the minimum facilities necessary to support alert aircraft and crews. The distance between bases in this

grid is governed by several considerations. The most obvious is the number of bases required, since the area is defined.

Weapon size and type of attack is another parameter determining the distance between bases. Single one or two megaton weapons do not present much problem from this standpoint, even when the CEP is considered, if the distance between bases is in excess of twenty miles. Clusters of smaller weapons delivered by MRV's could give larger footprints, but still would not make the distance critical. The MIRV complicates the problem since this type of missile has several warheads which can be independently targeted. The number of bases targeted by one missile may be three or more and thus many more bases would be necessary to escape the first salvo. Unclassified information on this type of delivery is not readily available, but it can be assumed that there are limits on the length and breadth of the area within which independent targeting can be accomplished with one missile trajectory.

The approximate size of the 1000 nautical mile contour is 200 nm x 200 nm. If the distance between bases is X nautical miles then the number of bases in the grid (G) would be given by:

$$\left(\frac{200}{X} + 1\right) \left(\frac{200}{X} + 1\right) = G$$

After the required number of bases is determined with the assistance of the survival equation, solving for X will give the distance between bases.

Construction of this grid would be an expensive venture, but a cost analysis should be run to compare it with other alternatives. The comparison will involve the numerous problems ever present in this type of analysis, i.e., comparing dollar costs with social costs, and determination of how much is enough when considering deterrence and survival (see Ref 20 for a discussion of these topics).

It may be that when all things are considered, the cost of building austere bases in the sparsely populated area of zone 6 is reasonable. One point which should not be overlooked, however, is that although zone 6 may be relatively insensitive to the current and projected "most severe threat" (i.e., SLBM), this area could become vulnerable to other types of attack. If the fractional orbital bombardment system (FOBS) is developed, it may allow even less time for reaction. If this is the case, grouping all bomber bases in such a relatively small area as zone 6 could be disastrous.

Submarine Detection

One means of increasing the number of aircraft surviving under the various alternatives is to force the enemy submarines to maintain a greater distance from the U.S. coastline. This capability would cause an increase in the missile time of flight to every zone and survival could be calculated with the equation of Chapter IV.

Another potential means of increasing the survival

number is to increase the number of bases within the interior zones. The construction of new bases within the presently outlined zones has already be discussed. However, with improved anti-submarine detection systems other improvements can result. Potential improvement arises out of the ability of U.S. forces to keep the enemy submarines out of the Gulf of Mexico, even if the 100 nautical mile launch distance from other coastlines is maintained. This would provide a detection line starting at the southern tip of Florida, passing the western end of Cuba, and extending across the Gulf to the northern tip of the Yucatan peninsula. Figure 17 shows the added territory in the interior zones when this is considered. Note the substantial increase in area of zones 5 and 6. With this increased area, more bases can be utilized in these regions, thus increasing the number of surviving aircraft under the various basing alternatives.

Canadian Land

Another possible alteration to the contour chart (Figure 2) concerns the possible utilization of land in south-central Canada due north of zone 6. This would provide additional land in the most insensitive zone. As there are no existing U.S. bases in this region, utilization of this land would require funding for construction of bases, austere or full support, before any advantage would be realized. The most likely option would be to build several austere bases to complement the "grid

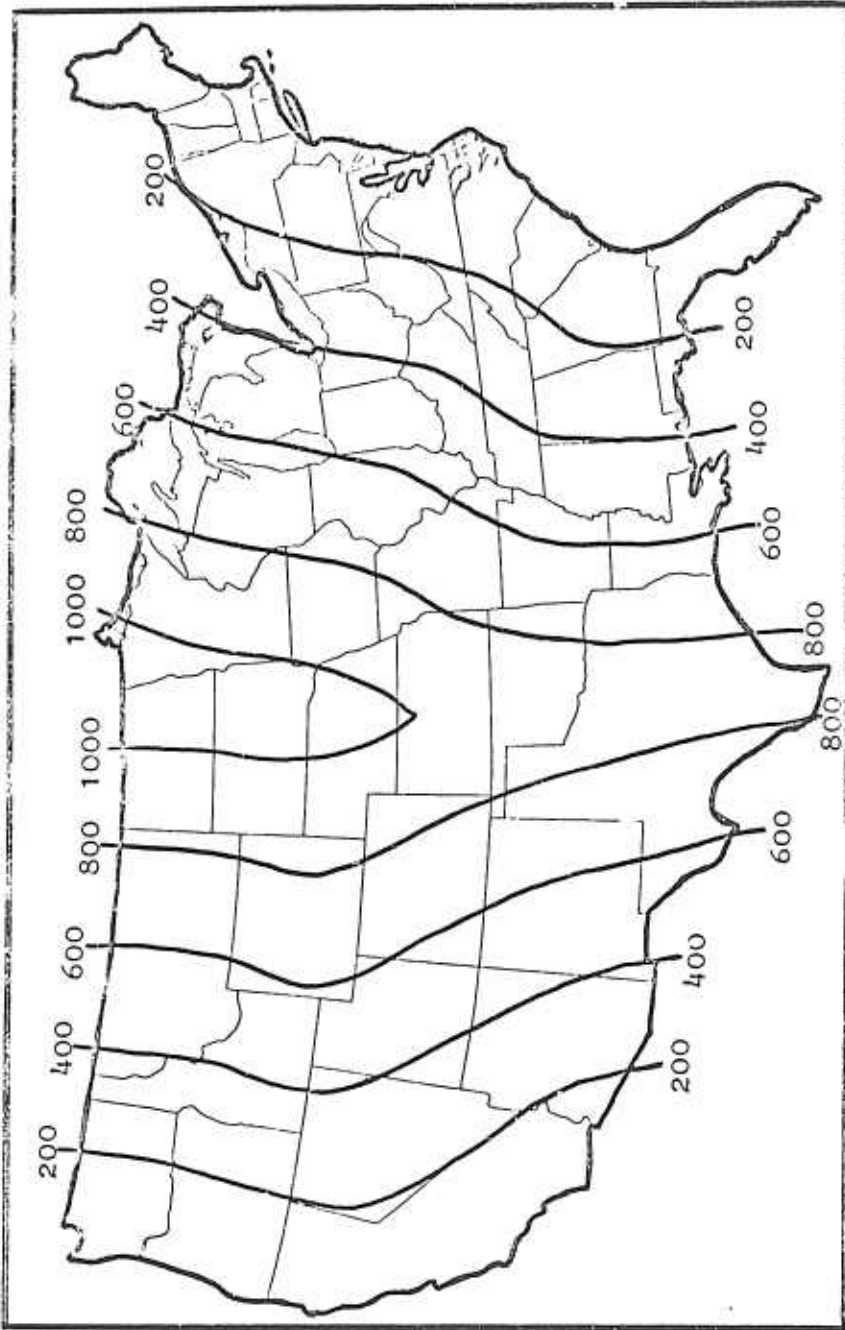


Figure 17. 200 Nautical Mile Contours with Gulf of Mexico Blockade

of austere bases" alternative or perhaps any of the alternatives for increased force survival.

The political ramifications which might arise, due to the basing of nuclear weapons on Canadian soil, may allow only tankers to be based in this area. A study of the tanker basing problem should not overlook the potential gain from such a diplomatic maneuver.

Runway Requirement

Regardless which of the preceding alternatives is used, there are several other means of improving force survival. One of these methods, mentioned earlier as an assumption, is designing a long range bomber capable of operating from shorter runways. Appendix B illustrates the additional bases available when the runway requirement becomes less.

In addition to more runways being available, some of the very long runways could be utilized so as to double the number of aircraft surviving at any given base. This could be accomplished by building the alert facilities at the center of the runway and simultaneously launching in both directions. If this length is marginal for safe take-off, extensions could be built on both sides at the center of the runway. These extensions could be built at a small angle to the runway orientation to allow for rolling take-off. This might appear something like Figure 18, with an underground alert facility below the runway and alert aircraft parked on both sides.

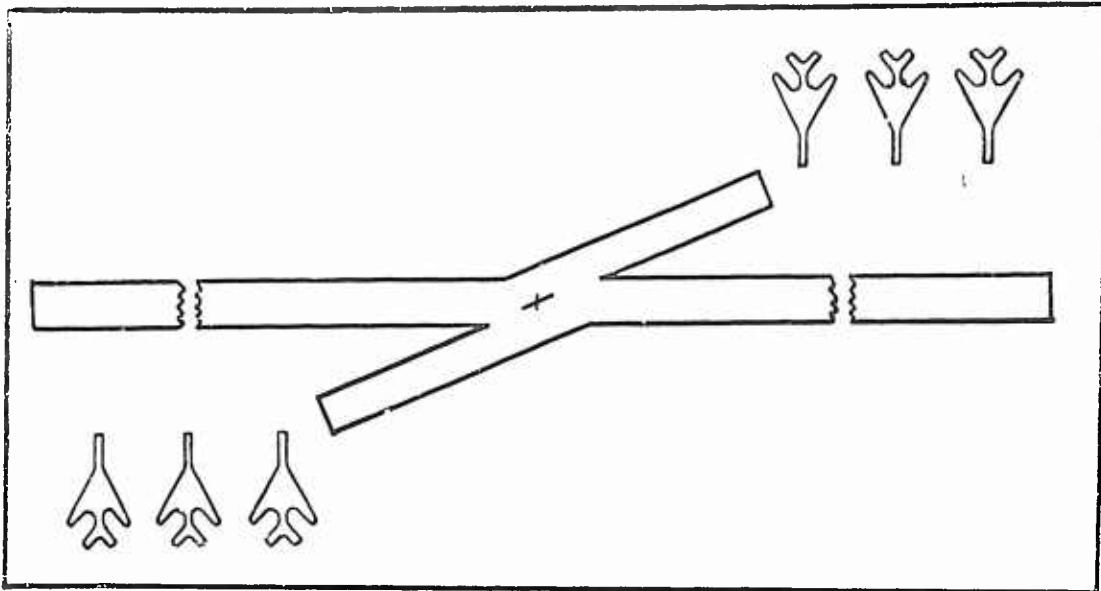


Figure 18. Runway Extension Diagram

A more costly alternative to double the number of aircraft taking off in any given interval of time is to build a parallel runway. This might be desirable where there are existing runways less than 10,000 feet long. At these bases construction of the additional runway might cost less than the extensions and the other modifications just discussed.

Airborne Alert

A tried and proven method of insuring survivability against the prelaunch threat is airborne alert. This capability has been thoroughly evaluated, operationally tested, and can be mounted anytime it is required in response to proper authority. While some of the SAC bomber-tanker force in the U.S. and overseas is on ground alert at all times, all SAC heavy-bomber units are capable of maintaining airborne alert. Although more costly than

ground alert, it can be reactivated for an increased alert posture, a show of force, or an interim measure to insure prelaunch survival against some unforeseen threat (Ref 66).

Takeoff Interval

The interval at which bombers are launched to escape a surprise attack has a large effect on force survival. An aircraft closely following another on takeoff roll is affected by the turbulence caused by the leading plane. In normal weather conditions (light crosswinds) an interval of 15 seconds between similar aircraft and 30 seconds between dissimilar aircraft is considered to be adequate for safe operations (Ref 74:26). It is obvious from the survival equation that if this interval is halved, the number of aircraft taking off during any given period is doubled. However, as the interval is shortened the danger of aircraft loss due to an accident is increased.

A tradeoff analysis between the additional aircraft surviving an attack from enemy SLBM's and the possibility of an accident causing aircraft loss due to shortening the takeoff interval can be made. With this type of analysis, a decision could be made to determine the level risk acceptable in attempting to increase force survival by reducing the takeoff interval. Figure 19 (which is hypothetical) illustrates this tradeoff. Further analysis of this tradeoff would have to include the possibility of an accident on takeoff rendering the runway unusable to

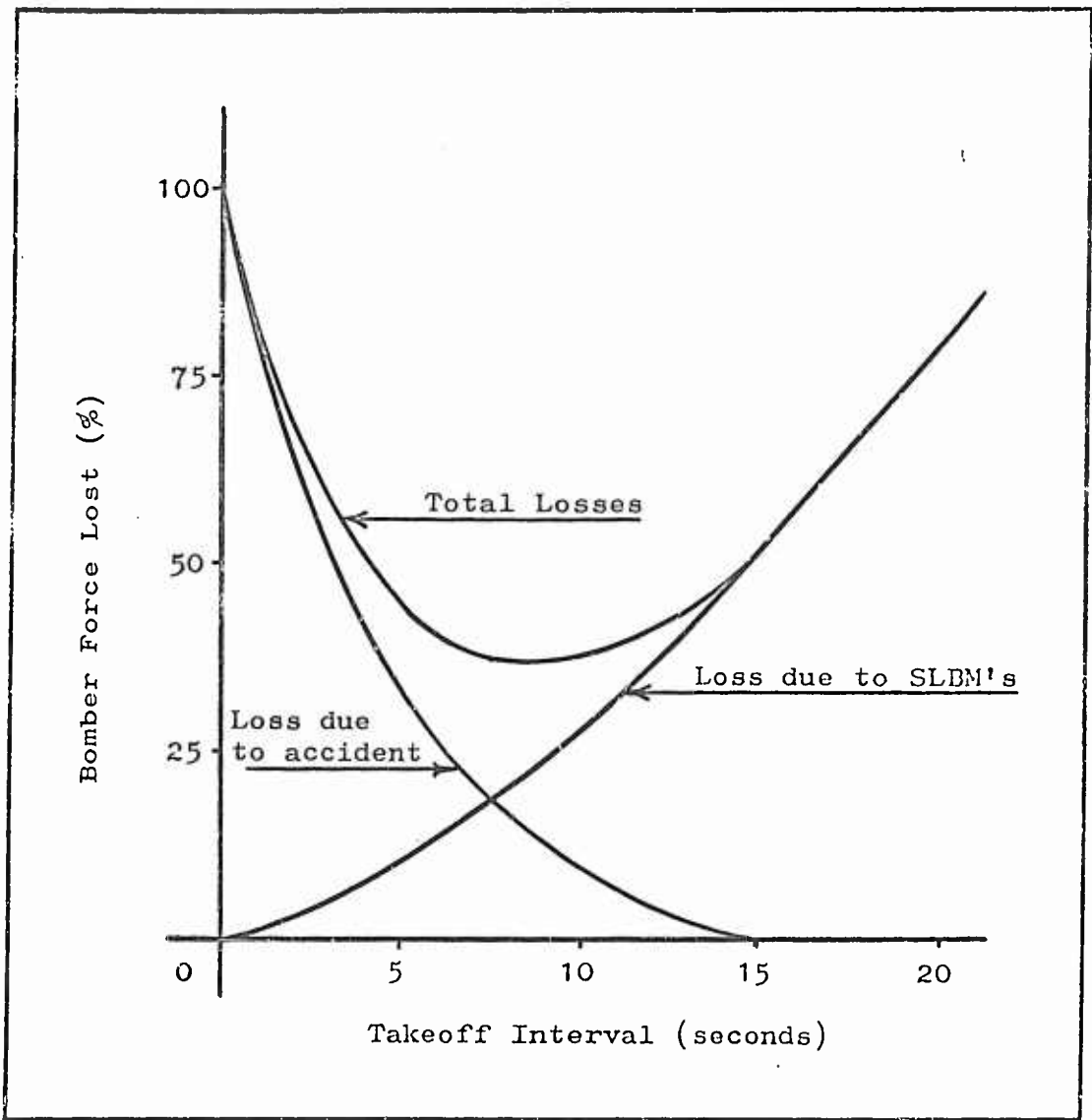


Figure 19. Effect of Takeoff Interval on Aircraft Losses

other aircraft for takeoff and escape.

Bomb Load

Another tradeoff concerning the survival of long range bombers is the effect of aircraft weight on performance. It may be that a lighter aircraft, whether determined by design or by bomb load, could have better

escape characteristics than a heavier one. This might allow shorter takeoff intervals and faster fly out times. Also it may be desirable to get more planes airborne with lighter bomb loads (rather than less planes with heavier bomb loads) due to the nature of their intended targets and other survival problems enroute and during penetration of enemy air defenses. Solution of this type problem would require classified information and is beyond the scope of this paper. It is, however, worth noting the type of analysis which might be used to make this decision.

Tables XIV and XV summarize the basing alternatives and survival improvement techniques discussed in this chapter and elsewhere in the report.

Table XIV

Summary of Basing Alternatives

ALTERNATIVE	EFFECT
All SAC Bases	48 bases in the six zones, B = [21 9 13 2 2 1], survival against Threat III = 115.
All USAF Bases	101 bases with 8000 feet of runway (or more) distributed B = [57 19 19 3 2 1], survival against Threat III = 143.
All Military Bases	50 additional bases giving only minor increase in survi- val for more severe threats.
All Civilian Plus All Military Fields	158 additional fields with 8000 feet or more hard surface runway, 22 in Zone 3, 10 in Zone 4, 5 in Zone 5, none in Zone 6; Total force survival against Threat III = 389.
Shell Game	Continual change of bomber bed- down to confuse enemy targeting.
Grid of Austere Bases	Construction of bases in the most insensitive zone(s).
Gulf of Mexico Blockade ...	Force enemy submarines to stay further from southern shore of U.S. to increase area of the interior zones.
Use of Canadian Soil	Increase the area of the most interior zones, possibly for basing tankers.

Table XV

Summary of Survival Improvement Techniques

TECHNIQUE	EFFECT
Improve Aircraft Design:	
Shorten Takeoff Roll	More bases available for bomber operations.
Increase Hardness	Shorten escape distance.
Acceleration & Speed	Faster fly out time.
Shorten Critical Time (T) ...	Allows more time for aircraft to escape for any given threat, i.e., (M - T) is larger.
Improve Detection System	
Improve Warning System	
Improve Crew Reaction	
Improve Aircraft Reaction	
Faster Fly Out Time	
Launch in Both Directions ...	Doubles the number of aircraft surviving.
Parallel Runways	Two runways doubles the number of aircraft surviving.
Takeoff Interval Tradeoff ...	Shorter interval increases prelaunch survival, but also increases risk of accidents.
Aircraft Weight Tradeoff	Lighter aircraft (by design or less bomb load) gives shorter takeoff roll and faster fly out time; may be dependent on target objectives and enemy defenses.
Airborne Alert	Insensitive to the SLBM threat.

VI. Conclusions and Recommendations

When there is mutual fear, men think
twice before they make aggression upon
one another.

Hermocrates of Syracuse:
to the Sicilian envoys
at Gela, 424 B.C.
(Ref 29:87)

Survival in this world, where nuclear warfare could destroy the current civilization, depends on the policy of deterrence between the nuclear powers. As long as the United States policy of "realistic deterrence" continues to be supported by the triad concept, there will be a requirement for each element of the triad to maintain the capability to survive a surprise attack.

In order for the manned bomber to remain a viable part of the triad, it must be able to survive an attack from the most severe enemy threat in each of its operational modes, i.e., prelaunch, enroute, and penetration.

Prelaunch survival might be accomplished by an anti-ballistic missile (ABM) system, but since there is none in existence today to support this theory, the question arises: can the manned bomber survive a prelaunch attack without the aid of an ABM system? The strategic bomber would have to rely on reaction time alone, based on detection and warning of impending attack, crew reaction, and aircraft design characteristics.

The severity of the threat, with regards to reaction time, is a key parameter needed for solution of the

problem. Estimates of enemy capabilities vary considerably, but there is general agreement that the most severe threat to the prelaunch survival of manned bombers based in the United States is the sea-launched ballistic missile. Exact information on the performance of known and projected weapon systems is classified. For this reason, simulated threats covering a wide range of possibilities were postulated for use in the analysis of this problem (Figure 1).

The model developed in Chapter IV to aid in the analysis of various survival improvement techniques is relatively uncomplicated. This allows hand calculation and requires no computer assistance. The validity of the answers in terms of total bomber force survival depend on the accuracy of the inputs. Holding certain variables constant facilitates accurate comparison of alternatives and allows a sensitivity analysis of elements of the survival equation.

The analyses of several basing concepts and other means of improving prelaunch survival of a manned bomber force in Chapter V indicate the wide range of possibilities to be considered. These analyses are limited by the lack of cost data available. Thus, a first recommendation for further study is a cost effectiveness analysis of these proposals and a comparison between the best of these methods (or others subsequently developed) and an ABM system.

Another topic which merits further investigation is the effect of SLEM launch interval on bomber survival. Appendix C suggests one possible approach to this problem using the model developed in this study.

The survival of tanker aircraft for aerial refueling of long range bombers has not been covered in this paper. There are several tanker studies in existence and some computer models are available to aid in the analysis of this problem. Further study should include the combined problems of tanker and bomber survival, since they are interdependent.

Additional unclassified studies in these areas should help provide the basis for continued analysis of the problem at any level. One is never sure that all of the alternatives have been considered, and new technology will increase the possibilities for tomorrow.

Bibliography

1. Ackoff, Russell L. and Maurice W. Sasieni. Fundamentals of Operations Research. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1968.
2. Aerospace International. "Tables of Major Nuclear Delivery Vehicles, 1970", Vol. 6, No. 6 (November-December 1970). Tables for the U.S. and U.S.S.R. were extracted from The Military Balance 1970-1971. London, England: The Institute for Strategic Studies, 1970.
3. Alternative U.S. Strategies and America's Future. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: University of Pennsylvania, 1964.
4. Atkinson, George W. and LCDR. H.G. Laursen, USNR. Nomographs for Determining the Relationships Between Pressure, Range, Altitude, and Yield in the Shock Front Resulting From a Nuclear Detonation. Albuquerque, New Mexico: U.S. Naval Weapons Evaluation Facility, 31 January 1965.
5. B - 1. U.S./Air Force/Fact Sheet 70-8. Washington, D.C.: Secretary of the Air Force, Office of Information, August 1970.
6. Bacalis, Maj.Gen. Paul N., USAF, DCS/Plans, Strategic Air Command. Description of the B-1 to American Ordnance Association in Orlando, Florida. Air Force Policy Letter for Commanders. Washington, D.C.: Secretary of the Air Force, 15 January 1971.
7. Baldwin, Hanson W. Strategy for Tomorrow. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1970.
8. Barrett, Raymond J. Air Force Policy Letter for Commanders. Washington, D.C.: Secretary of the Air Force, 1 June 1970.
9. Bliss, Gilbert Amos. Mathematics for Exterior Ballistics. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1944.
10. Bracken, Jerome and Garth P. McCormick. Selected Applications of Nonlinear Programming. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1968.
11. Bracken, Jerome and James T. McGill. A Convex Programming Model for Resource Allocation with Time-Dependent Objectives: SLBM Attack of Bomber Bases. Arlington, Virginia: Institute for Defense Analysis, Program Analysis Division, 1970.

12. Brode, H.L. Height of Burst Effects at High Overpressures. RM-6301-DASA (DASA 2506). Santa Monica, California: The Rand Corporation, July 1970.
13. Brown, Neville. "Deterrence From The Sea", New Scientist. Vol. 46, No. 697 (16 April 1970).
14. Duchan, Alastair (ed.). A World of Nuclear Powers? Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1966.
15. Campon, C.F., Jr. et al. (eds.). Handbook of Geophysics for Air Force Designers. Geophysics Research Directorate, Air Force Cambridge Research Center, USAF, 1957.
16. Chayes, Abram and Jerome B. Weisner (eds.). ABM: An Evaluation of the Decision to Deploy an Anti-ballistic Missile System. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, Inc., 1969.
17. COG Model, The: A General Introduction. Arlington, Va.: LAMBDA Corporation, 4 February 1971.
18. Cordes, Brig. Gen. Harry N. "The Strategic Threat" Air Force Magazine. Vol. 54, No. 7 (July 1971).
19. "Defense Highlights: Review and Opinion" Ordnance. Vol. LV, No. 301 (July-August 1970).
20. Enthoven, Alain C. and K. Wayne Smith. How Much Is Enough? Shaping the Defense Program, 1961-1969. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, Inc., 1971.
21. Foster, John S. "Russia vs. U.S. - Coming Crisis in Arms" U.S. News & World Report. Vol. LXIX, No. 22 (30 November 1970).
22. ----- address at Air Force Association meeting 23 September 1970 in Washington, D.C. Air Force Policy Letter for Commanders. Washington, D.C.: Secretary of the Air Force, 1 October 1970.
23. ----- address at American Newspaper Publishers Association meeting in New York on 23 April 1970, Air Force Policy Letter for Commanders. Washington, D.C.: Secretary of the Air Force, 1 May 1970.
24. Gantz, Kenneth F. The United States Air Force Report on the Ballistic Missile: Its Technology, Logistics and Strategy. Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 1958

25. Gass, Saul I. Linear Programming. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964.
26. Glasstone, Samuel (ed.). The Effects of Nuclear Weapons. United States Atomic Energy Commission, June 1957 and April 1962 (rev. ed.).
27. Hadley, G. Linear Algebra. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc., 1961.
28. Haywood, O.G., Jr. "Military Decision and Game Theory" Journal of the Operations Research Society of America. Vol. 2, No. 4 (November 1954).
29. Heinl, Robert Debs, Jr. Dictionary of Military and Naval Quotations. Annapolis, Maryland: United States Naval Institute, 1966.
30. Herrick, Robert Waring. Soviet Naval Strategy. Annapolis, Maryland: United States Naval Institute, 1968.
31. Hobbs, Norman P., Garabed Zartarian, John P Walsh and Kaman Avidyne. A Digital Computer Program for Calculating the Blast Response of Aircraft to Nuclear Explosions. Volume 1, Program Description, Report No. AFWL-TR-70-140. Kirtland AFB, New Mexico: Air Force Weapons Laboratory (AFSC), April 1971.
32. Holloway, Gen. Bruce K. "The Strategic Frontier" Ordnance. Vol. 55, No. 306 (May-June 1971).
33. Holst, Johan J. and William Schneider, Jr. (eds.) Why ABM?: Policy Issues in the Missile Controversy. New York: Pergamon Press, 1969.
34. IFR Supplement: United States, DOD Flight Information Publication (Enroute). St. Louis, Missouri: The Aeronautical Chart and Information Center, USAF, 24 June 1971.
35. Kintner, William R. and Harriet Fast Scott. The Nuclear Revolution in Soviet Military Affairs. Norman, Oklahoma: University of Oklahoma Press, 1968.
36. Laird, Melvin R. Fiscal Year 1972-76 Defense Program and the 1972 Defense Budget. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 9 March 1971.
37. ----- statement to Disarmament Subcommittee of the Senate Foreign Relations Committee, Air Force Policy Letter for Commanders. Washington, D.C.: Secretary of the Air Force, 1 June 1970.

38. Lapp, Ralph E. Arms Beyond Doubt: The Tyranny of Weapons Technology. New York: Cowles Book Company, Inc., 1970.
39. -----. The Weapons Culture. New York: W.W. Norton and Company, Inc., 1968.
40. Loosbrock, John F. "The B-1 Is A Must" Air Force Magazine. Vol. 54, No. 6 (June 1971).
41. McKee, Gen. Seth J. "Against Air Attack" Ordnance. Vol. 55, No. 303 (November-December 1970).
42. McNamara, Robert S. The Essence of Security. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, Inc., 1968.
43. Martin, Lt.Gen. Glen W. Air Force Policy Letter for Commanders. Washington, D.C.: Secretary of the Air Force, 15 May 1970.
44. Martin, Thomas L., Jr. and Donald C. Latham. Strategy for Survival. Tuscon, Arizona: The University of Arizona Press, 1963.
45. Meyer, Gen. John C. "The Soviet Threat" Ordnance. Vol. 55, No. 303 (November-December 1970).
46. -----. "Why We Need the Triad" Air Force Policy Letter for Commanders. Washington, D.C.: Secretary of the Air Force, 15 May 1971.
47. Missile Effectiveness Calculator. Syracuse, New York: General Electric, Special Information Products Department, Defense Electronics Division, 1965.
48. Morris, William T. The Analysis of Management Decisions. Homewood, Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1964.
49. -----. Management Science: A Bayesian Introduction. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968.
50. Murphy, Charles J. V. "The Desperate Drive to Cut Defense Spending" Fortune. (January 1964).
51. Nelson, Maj.Gen. Douglas T. "Why We Need the B-1" remarks by the B-1 system project officer to the American Institute of Aeronautics and Astronautics, Woodbury, Long Island, 10 November 1970.
52. -----. "The Accent is on Flying" Air Force Magazine. Vol. 54, No. 6 (June 1971).

53. Nixon, Richard. U.S. Foreign Policy for the 1970's: A New Strategy for Peace. A Report to the Congress, 18 February 1970.
54. Nuclear Bomb Effects Computer. The Lovelace Foundation, under contract to The Division of Biology and Medicine, U.S. Atomic Energy Commission, 1962.
55. Nuclear Weapons Effects: Comprehensive Report. Surveys of Soviet-Bloc Scientific and Technical Literature, ATD Report P-65-1. Aerospace Technology Division, Library of Congress, 14 January 1965.
56. Pronin, L.N. Ballistic Missiles. Source: trans. from "Ballisticheskiye Rakety" Izd-vo Ministerstva Oborony SSSR, Moscow, 1969, pp 1-111. Wright-Patterson AFB, Ohio: Foreign Technology Division, 24 April 1970.
57. Quade, E.S. and W.I. Boucher (eds.). Systems Analysis and Policy Planning: Applications in Defense. New York: Elsevier Publishing Company, Inc., 1968.
58. Richmond, Samuel B. Operations Research for Management Decisions. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1968.
59. Ryan, Gen. John D. "B-1: A Wise Investment for National Defense" Air Force Policy Letter for Commanders. Washington, D.C.: Secretary of the Air Force, 1 July 1971.
60. -----. "The B-1: A Future Mainstay of Deterrence" remarks by the Air Force Chief of Staff at the 13th Annual Aerospace Luncheon of the Los Angeles Area Chamber of Commerce, Los Angeles, California, 30 October 1970.
61. "SAC Satellite Base Expansion Reduced" Air Force Times. Vol. 32 No. 2 (18 August 1971).
62. Schnapper, M.B. (ed.). National Priorities: Military, Economic, and Social. Washington, D.C.: Public Affairs Press, 1969.
63. Seamans, Robert C. Jr. Remarks by the Secretary of the Air Force at Air Force Association Convention, Washington, D.C., 23 September 1970.
64. -----. Air Force Policy Letter for Commanders. Washington, D.C.: Secretary of the Air Force, 15 January 1970.

65. "Sea Watch Established" Air Force Times. Vol. 32, No. 5 (8 September 1971).
66. Strategic Air Command. U.S./Air Force/Fact Sheet 71-6. Washington, D.C.: Secretary of the Air Force, Office of Information, June 1971.
67. Ulsamer, Edgar. "The U.S.S.R. is Headed Toward Technological Superiority", an interview with Dr. John S. Foster, Jr. Air Force Magazine. Vol. 54, No. 8 (August 1971).
68. ----- "The Accent is on Flying" Air Force Magazine. Vol. 54, No. 6 (June 1971).
69. VFR Supplement: United States, DOD Flight Information Publication (Enroute). St. Louis, Missouri: The Aeronautical Chart and Information Center, USAF, 4 February 1971.
70. Wagner, Harvey M. Principles of Operations Research: With Applications to Management Decisions. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1969.
71. Ward, Dudley C., John U. Abele, and Arturo V. Serrano. Development of Computerized Solutions of Safe Escape Problems in Nuclear Weapons Delivery. Technical Report ASD-TR-68-4. Dayton, Ohio: Technology Incorporated, February 1968.
72. Weiss, George. "Strategic Deterrence: Rationale, Negotiations, Threat, and Status" Armed Forces Journal. Vol. 108, No. 19 (7 June 1971).
73. ----- "Will the B-1 Suffer the Fate of the SST?" Armed Forces Journal. Vol. 108, No. 18 (17 May 1971).
74. ----- "Strategic Deterrent Affected by ASW" Armed Forces Journal. Vol. 108, No. 17 (3 May 1971).
75. ----- "The F-111: The Swing-Wing May Surprise You Yet" Armed Forces Journal. Vol. 108, No. 22 (19 July 1971).
76. Witze, Claude, "Threats: At Home and Abroad" Air Force Magazine. Vol. 54, No. 6 (June 1971).
77. Zlotnick, Jack and John D. Matheson. Optimal Aircraft Deployment for the SLBM Threat. Strategic Branch Note 70-3. Falls Church, Virginia: Analytic Services Incorporated (ANSER), May 1970.

Appendix A

General Principles of Nuclear Explosions

This appendix is presented as a supplement to the weapons effects discussion in Chapter IV to supply the reader with background information pertinent to this paper. The entire appendix was extracted from selected portions of The Effects of Nuclear Weapons (Ref 26). For a more in depth study of weapon effects involving other types of bursts and the effects of burst other than blast effects, the reader should consult the source document.

In general, an explosion is the release of a large amount of energy in a short interval of time within a limited space. The liberation of this energy is accompanied by a considerable increase in temperature, so that the products of the explosion become extremely hot gasses. These gasses, at very high temperature and pressure, move outward rapidly. In doing so, they push away the surrounding medium--air, water, or earth--with great force, thus causing the destructive (blast or shock) effects of the explosion.

The atomic (nuclear) blast is similar to the more conventional type of bomb in so far as its destructive action is due mainly to blast or shock. However, apart from the fact that nuclear bombs can be many thousands of times more powerful than the largest TNT bombs, there are other more basic differences. First, a fairly large

proportion of the energy in a nuclear explosion is emitted in the form of light and heat, which is generally referred to as "thermal radiation". Second, the explosion is accompanied by highly penetrating and harmful, but invisible, rays called the "initial nuclear radiation". Finally, the substances remaining after a nuclear explosion are radioactive and emit similar radiations over an extended period of time. This phenomenon is known as the "residual nuclear radiation".

The power of a nuclear weapon is expressed in terms of its total energy release (yield) compared with the energy liberated by TNT when it explodes. Thus, a one kiloton (1 KT) nuclear bomb is one which produces the same amount of energy as the explosion of 1000 tons of TNT. A one megaton (1 MT) weapon would have the energy equivalent of one million tons of TNT. The nuclear bombs dropped over Japan in 1945 were approximately 20 KT in yield.

In the explosion of a conventional bomb, nearly all the energy released appears immediately as kinetic energy. Almost the whole of this is then converted into blast and shock. In a nuclear explosion only about 85% of the energy released is in the form of kinetic energy, and only a part of this is utilized to produce blast and shock. The other 15% appears as heat and light rays. The distribution of energy in a typical nuclear air burst is shown in Figure 20.

The immediate phenomena associated with a nuclear

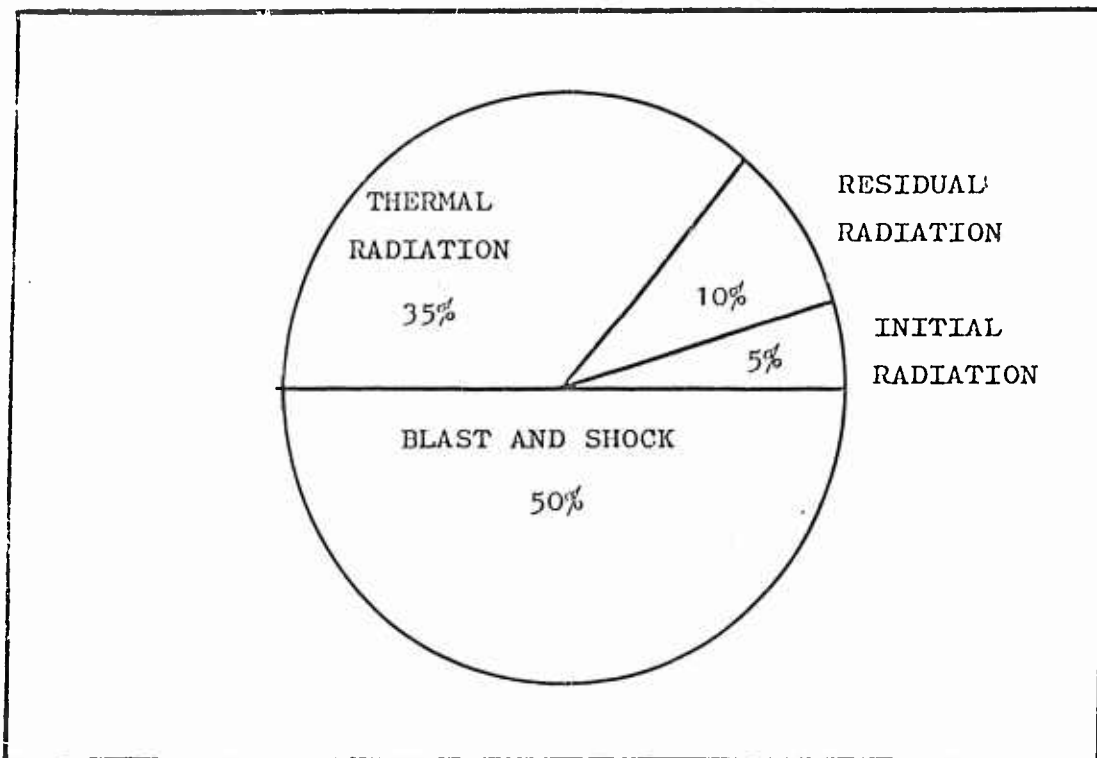


Figure 20. Distribution of Energy in a Nuclear Air Burst

explosion vary with the location of the point of burst in relation to the surface of the earth. For descriptive purposes, four types of bursts are distinguished: (1) air burst; (2) underwater burst; (3) underground burst; and (4) surface burst.

Almost at the instant of a nuclear explosion there is formed an intensely hot and luminous mass, roughly spherical in shape, called the "ball of fire" or "fireball". An air burst is defined as one in which the bomb is exploded in the air at such a height that the fireball (at maximum brilliance) does not touch the surface of the earth.

A surface burst is regarded as one which occurs

either at the actual surface of the land or water, or at any height above the surface such that the fireball touches the land or water.

If a nuclear explosion occurs such that its center is beneath the ground or under the surface of the water, the situation is described as an underground burst or an underwater burst respectively.

Further description of nuclear explosions will be limited to air burst phenomena only. The reason for this is made evident in Chapter IV. It is sufficient here to note that the blast effects of an air burst at optimal height have a more far reaching effect on the critical parameters of this study.

Chronological Development of an Air Burst

Immediately following the detonation of a nuclear bomb in the air, the fireball is formed. Due to its extremely high temperature, it emits thermal radiation capable of causing skin burns and starting fires at a considerable distance. Very soon after the explosion a destructive shock (or blast) wave develops in the air and moves away from the fireball (Figure 21).

At the times indicated in Figure 21, the ball of fire has almost reached its maximum size. The shock front is seen to be well ahead of the fireball--about 750 feet for the 20 KT burst and a little over one-half mile for the 1 MT detonation.

When the primary shock wave from the explosion

strikes the ground, another shock wave is produced by reflection. At a certain distance from ground zero, which depends upon the height of burst and energy of the bomb, the primary and secondary (reflected) shock fronts fuse near the ground to form a single, reinforced Mach front (or stem). The time and distance at which the Mach effect commences for a typical air burst are as shown in Table XVI.

Table XVI

Time and Distance for Mach Effect

Explosion Yield	Time After Detonation	Distance From Ground Zero
20 KT	1.25 sec	0.35 miles
1 MT	4.60 sec	1.30 miles

The overpressure at the earth's surface is then 16 pounds per square inch (psi). The commencement of the Mach effect is illustrated in Figure 22.

As time progresses the Mach front moves outward and increases in height. The distance from ground zero and the height of the Mach stem at the times indicated are shown in Table XVII to compare 20 KT and 1 MT bursts.

Table XVII

Height of Mach Stem

Explosion Yield	Time After Detonation	Distance From Ground Zero	Height of Mach Stem
20 KT	3 sec	0.87 miles	185 feet
1 MT	11 sec	3.20 miles	680 feet

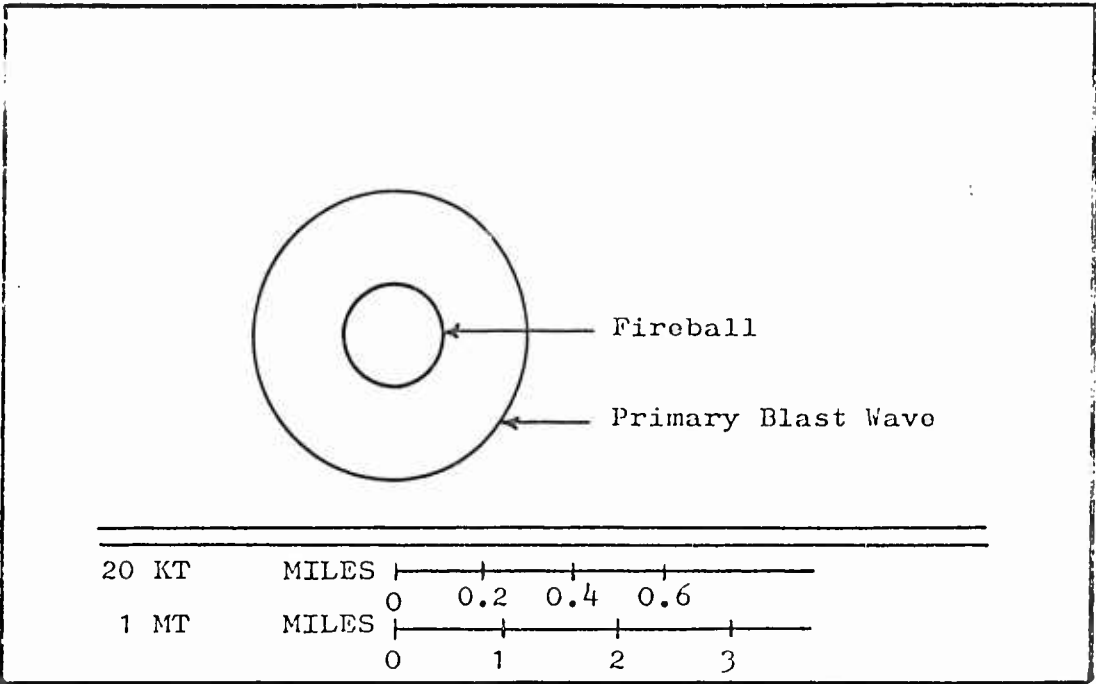


Figure 21. Air Burst at 0.5 second After 20 KT Detonation and 1.8 seconds After 1 MT Detonation

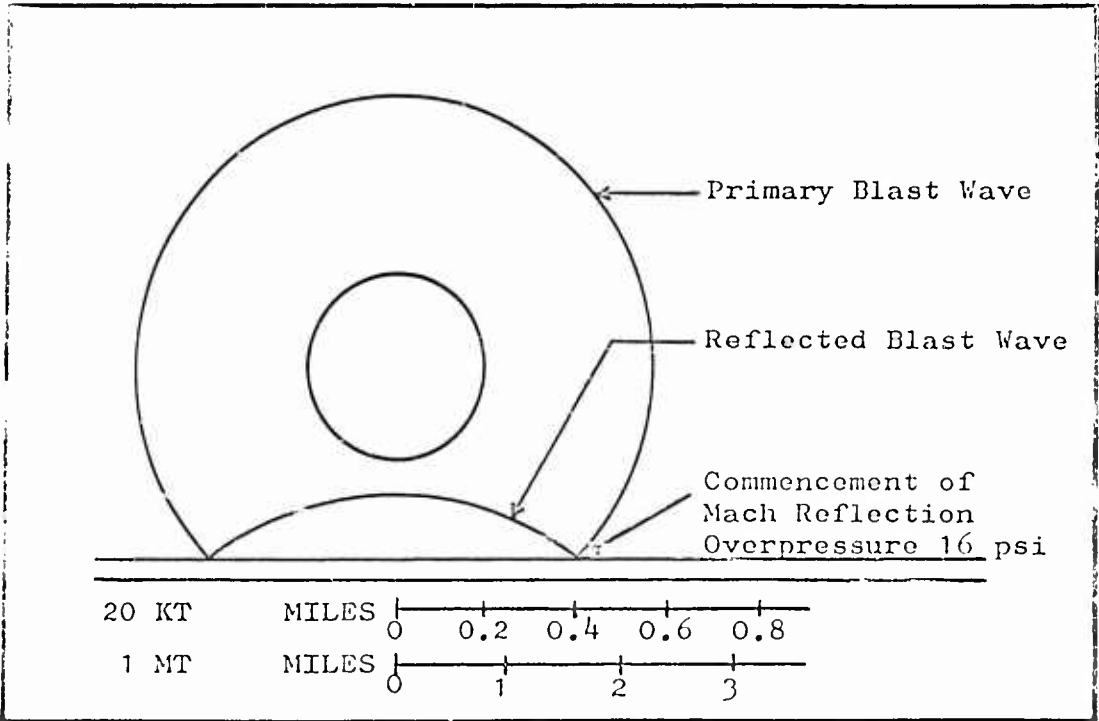


Figure 22. Air Burst at 1.25 seconds After 20 KT Detonation and 4.6 seconds After 1 MT Detonation

At the times indicated in Table XVII the overpressure at the Mach front is 6 psi and the blast wind velocity immediately behind the front is about 180 miles per hour. These conditions are illustrated in Figure 23.

At ten seconds after a 20 KT explosion the Mach front is over $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles from ground zero; and 37 seconds after a 1 MT detonation it is nearly $9\frac{1}{2}$ miles from ground zero. The overpressure at the front is roughly 1 psi in both cases, and the wind behind the front is 40 miles per hour. Apart from plaster damage and window breakage, the destructive effect of the blast wave is essentially over, and thermal radiation is no longer important, even for the 1 MT burst. These phenomena are shown in Figure 24.

The ball of fire is no longer luminous, but it is very hot and it behaves like a hot air balloon, rising at a rapid rate. As it ascends, it causes air to be drawn inward and upward, somewhat similar to the updraft of a chimney. This produces strong air currents, called afterwinds, which raise dirt and debris from the earth's surface to form the stem of what will eventually be the characteristic mushroom cloud.

The hot residue of the bomb continues to rise, and at the same time it expands and cools. As a result, the vaporized fission products and other bomb residues condense to form a cloud of highly radioactive particles. The afterwinds, having velocities of 200 mph or more, continue to raise a column of dirt and debris which will

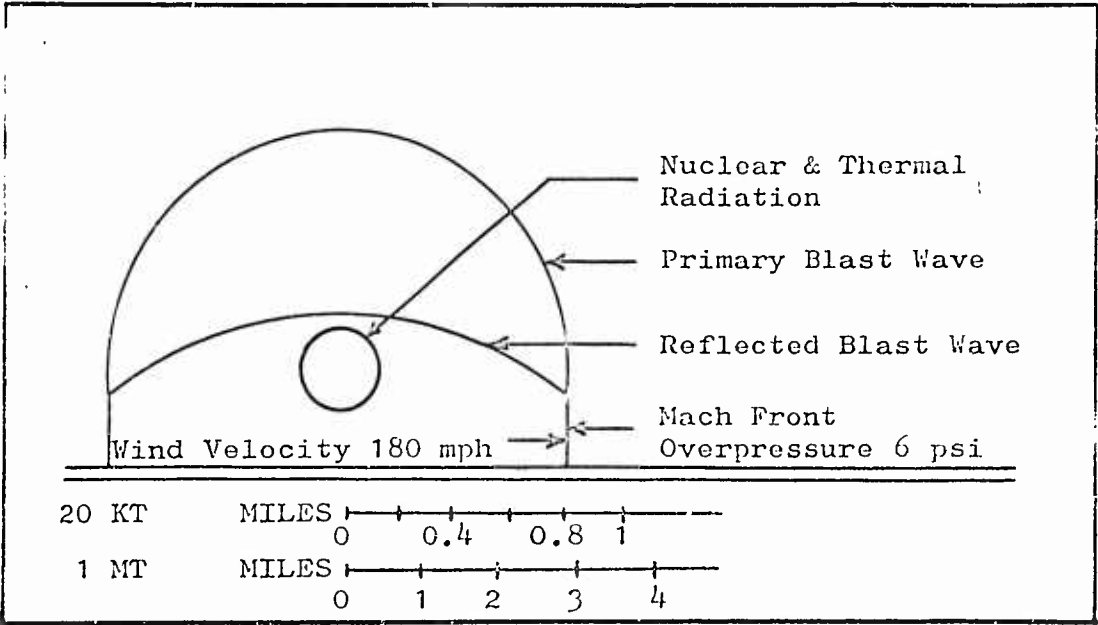


Figure 23. Air Burst at 3 seconds After 20 KT Detonation and 11 seconds After 1 MT Detonation

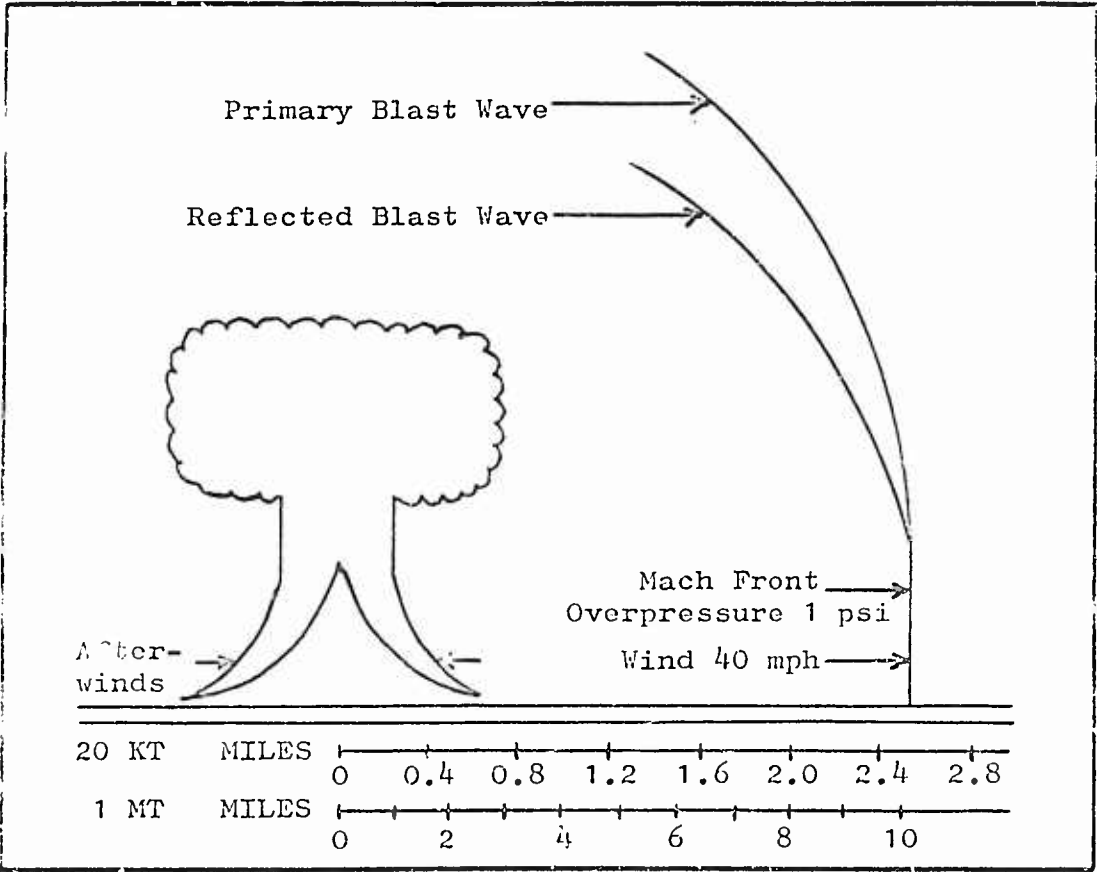


Figure 24. Air Burst at 10 seconds After 20 KT Detonation and 37 seconds After 1 MT Detonation

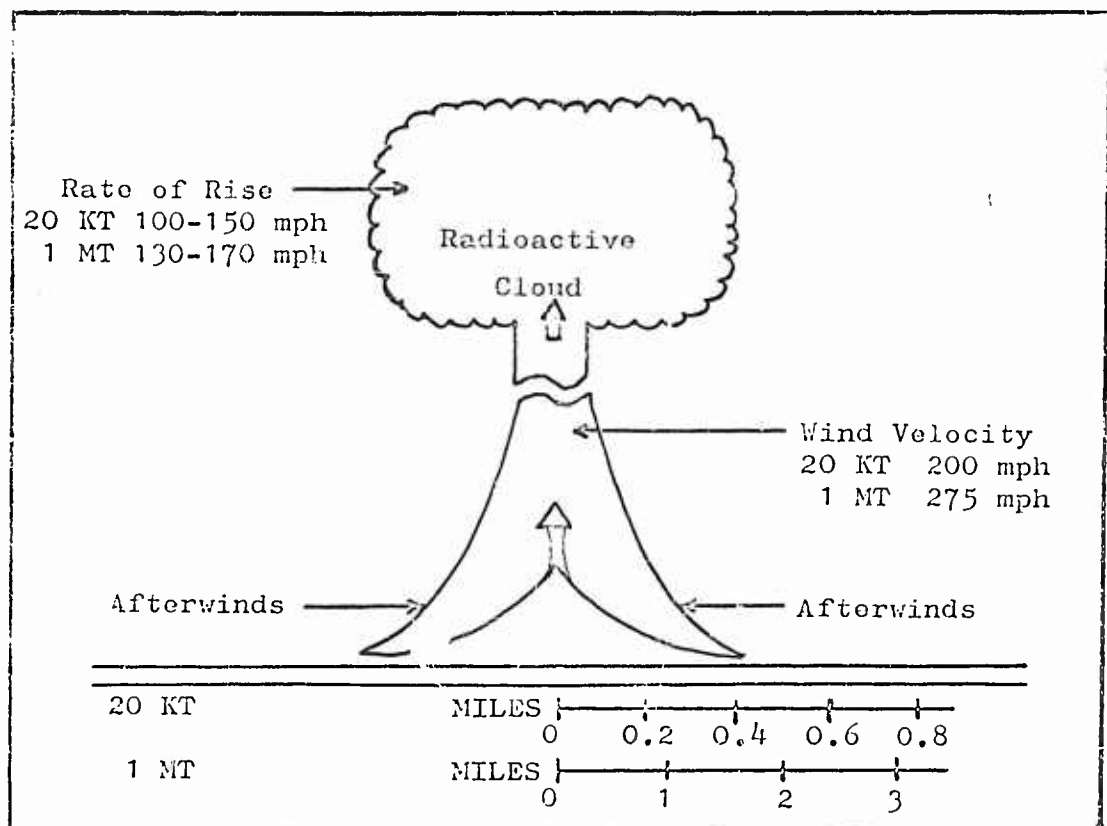


Figure 25. Air Burst at 30 seconds After 20 KT Detonation and 110 seconds After 1 MT Detonation

later join with the radioactive cloud to form the mushroom shape. At the times indicated in Figure 25, the cloud from a 20 KT explosion will have risen about $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles; and the cloud from a 1 MT explosion will have risen about 7 miles.

Within about ten minutes the bottom of the cloud will have attained an altitude of 5-15 miles. depending on the energy yield of the explosion. The top of the cloud will rise even farther. Ultimately, the particles will be dispersed by the wind, and, except under weather conditions involving precipitation, there will be no appreciable local fallout.

Air Blast Phenomena

Most of the material damage caused by an air burst nuclear bomb is due, directly or indirectly, to the shock wave which accompanies the explosion. The majority of structures will suffer some damage from air blast when the overpressure is about $\frac{1}{2}$ psi or more. This overpressure is created by the increase in air pressure caused by the air compression in the shock wave. The name is descriptive because it is the pressure of the air over that associated with normal atmospheric pressure. This overpressure acts much the same as the ordinary pressure of the air, i.e., in all directions, from all sides, from the top, and even through the soil to some extent. It produces a general inward-directed crushing effect on any structure above the ground.

The distance to which this overpressure level will extend depends on the yield or size of the bomb, and on the height of the burst. Consequently, it is desirable to consider the phenomena associated with the passage of a blast wave through the air.

As already seen, the expansion of the intensely hot gasses at extremely high pressures in the ball of fire causes a blast wave to form in the air, moving outward at high velocity. As the blast wave travels in the air from its source, the overpressure at the front steadily decreases, and the pressure behind the front falls off in a regular manner. After a short time, when the shock

front has traveled a certain distance from the fireball, the pressure behind the front drops below that of the surrounding atmosphere and a so-called "negative phase" of the blast wave forms.

During the negative overpressure phase, a partial vacuum is produced and the air is sucked in instead of being pushed away, as it is when the overpressure is positive. At the end of the negative phase, the pressure has essentially returned to ambient. The peak negative values of the overpressure are small compared with the peak positive overpressures.

Although the destructive effects of the blast wave have usually been related to the values of the peak overpressure, there is another quality of importance called the "dynamic pressure". The dynamic pressure is a function of the wind velocity and the density of the air behind the shock front. For very strong shocks the dynamic pressure is larger than the overpressure, but below 69 psi at sea level the dynamic pressure is smaller.

The dynamic pressure decreases with increasing distance from the explosion center at a more rapid rate than the overpressure. Since the dynamic pressure is lower than overpressure in the range below 69 psi, the effects of dynamic pressure on this study are insignificant. Specific levels of overpressures used in this paper are developed in Chapter IV, which will verify this conclusion.

As stated previously, there is a finite time interval required for the blast wave to move out from the explosion center to any particular location. This time interval is an important parameter for the formulation of the model in Chapter IV. This time interval is dependent upon the energy yield of the explosion and the distance involved. Initially, the velocity of the shock front is quite high --many times the speed of sound. As the blast wave progresses outward, it slows down as the shock front weakens. Finally, at long ranges, the blast wave becomes essentially a sound wave, and its velocity approaches ambient sound velocity.

Mach Effect

When the incident blast wave from an explosion in the air strikes a more dense medium such as the earth's surface, it is reflected. The formation of the reflected shock wave under these circumstances is represented in Figure 26. This figure shows four stages in the outward motion of the spherical blast originating from an air burst bomb.

In the first stage the shock front has not reached the ground. The second stage is later in time, but still has not reached the ground. At the third stage, which is still later, a reflected wave has been produced and is indicated by a dashed line in Figure 26. The fourth stage is even later and indicates the growth of the reflected wave.

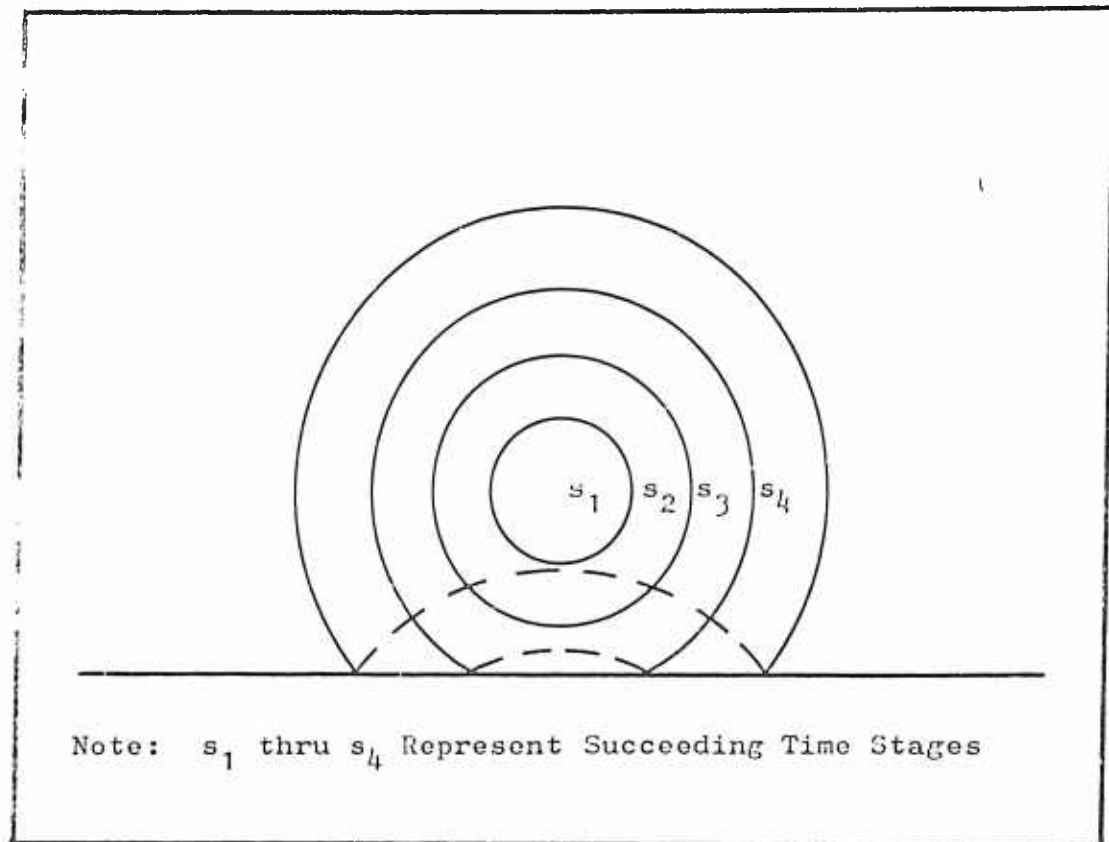


Figure 26. Reflection of Blast Wave at Earth's Surface

When the reflection occurs, an individual or object precisely at the surface will experience a single shock, since the reflected wave is formed instantly. Consequently, the value of the overpressure experienced at the surface is considered to be entirely a reflected pressure. In a region near ground zero, this total reflected overpressure will be more than twice the value of the peak overpressure in the incident blast wave.

In the very early stages of the reflection period, the two shock waves are traveling at approximately the same speed. However, it is evident that the reflected wave always travels through air that has been heated and

compressed by the passage of the incident wave. As a result, the reflected shock front moves faster than the incident shock front and, under certain conditions, eventually overtakes it so that the two shock fronts fuse to produce a single shock. This process of wave interaction is called "Mach" or "irregular" reflection. The region in which the waves have merged is therefore called the Mach region, in contrast to the regular region where they have not merged.

The fusion of the incident and reflected shock fronts is indicated schematically in Figure 27, which shows a portion of the profile of the blast wave close to the surface.

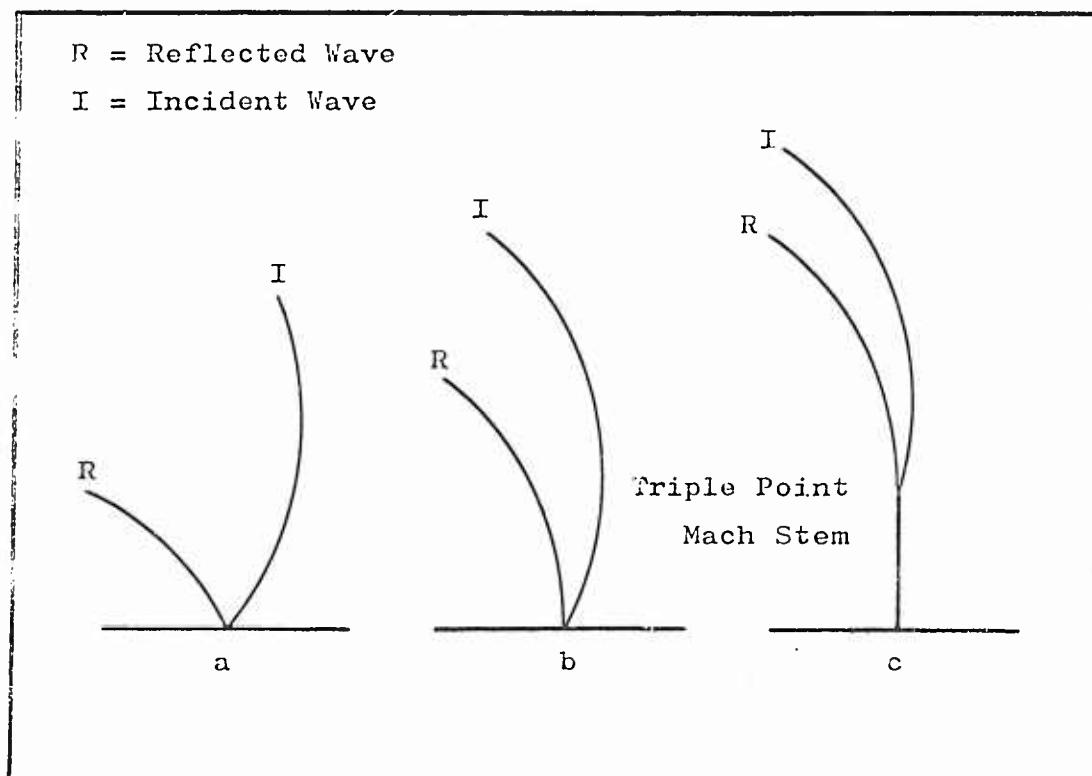


Figure 27. Formation of the Mach Stem

Figure 27a represents the situation at a point fairly close to ground zero. At a later stage, farther from ground zero as in Figure 27b, the steeper front of the reflected wave shows that it is traveling faster than, and is catching up with, the incident wave. At the stage represented in Figure 27c, the reflected shock near the ground has overtaken and fused with the incident shock to form a single shock front called the Mach stem. The point at which the incident shock, reflected shock, and Mach fronts meet is called the "triple point".

As the reflected wave continues to overtake the incident wave, the triple point rises and the height of the Mach stem increases as in Figure 28.

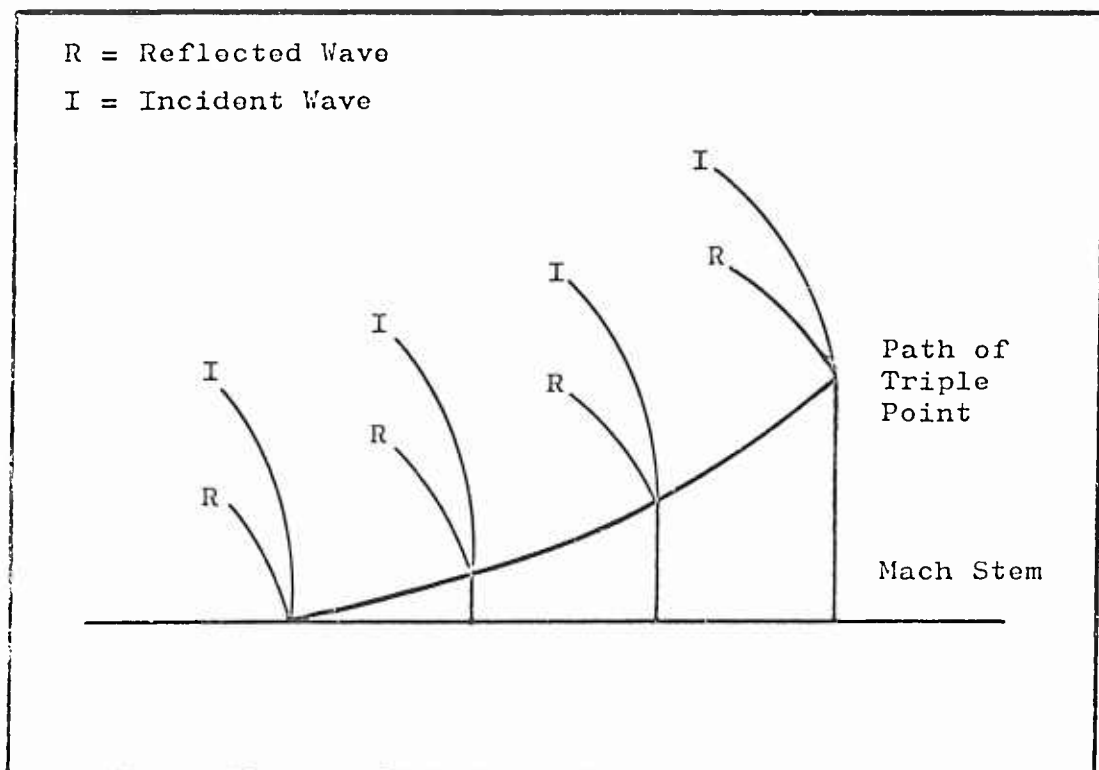


Figure 28. Growth of the Mach Stem

Any object located at or above the ground, within the Mach region, and below the triple point path, will experience a single shock. At points in the area above the triple point path, such as an aircraft or the top of a tall building, two shocks will be felt. Near the triple point path these two shocks can occur within a very short time of each other, and this could be critical from a structural point of view.

Height of Burst

The height of burst and energy yield of a nuclear explosion are important factors in determining the extent of damage at the surface. These two quantities generally determine the variation of pressure with distance from ground zero and other associated blast wave characteristics, such as the distance from ground zero at which the Mach stem begins to form. As the height of burst for an explosion of given yield is decreased, the consequences are as follows: the Mach reflection commences nearer to ground zero; and the overpressure at the surface near ground zero becomes larger. An actual contact surface burst leads to the highest possible overpressures near ground zero.

Because of the relationships between the energy yield of the explosion and the height of burst required to produce certain blast effects, a very large yield weapon may be detonated at a height of several thousand feet above the ground. The accompanying blast wave

phenomena will approach those of a near surface burst.

Actually there is no single optimum height of burst, with regards to blast effects, for any specified explosion yield, because the chosen height will be determined by the nature of the target. As a rule, strong (or hard) targets will require low air or surface bursts. For weaker targets which are destroyed or damaged at relatively low overpressures or dynamic pressures, the height of burst may be raised in order to increase the area of damage, since these pressures will extend to a larger range than for low air or surface bursts.

Effects of Target Altitude

The relationships between overpressure, distance, and time that describe the propagation of a blast wave in the air depend upon the ambient atmospheric conditions, which vary with altitude.

There are a number of simple correction factors, but it will be sufficient for the present to state the general conclusions. With increasing altitude of both target and burst point, the overpressure at a given distance from an explosion of specified yield will generally decrease. Consequently, an increase may usually be expected in both the arrival time of the shock front and in the duration of the positive phase of the blast wave. For elevations less than 5000 feet above sea level, the changes are small and may be disregarded in calculations involving overpressure, distance, and time.

Scaling Laws

The basic relationships among the properties of a blast wave are derived from the Rankine-Hugoniot conditions based on the conservation of mass, energy, and momentum at the shock front. These conditions, together with the equation of state for air, permit the derivation of the required relations involving the shock velocity, overpressure, and other phenomena.

In order to calculate the characteristic properties of the blast wave from an explosion of any given energy if those for another energy are known, appropriate scaling laws are applied. With the aid of such laws it is possible to express the data for a large range of energies in a simple form. One way of doing this, which will be illustrated below, is to draw curves showing the change in various properties of the blast wave at the surface with increasing distance from the detonation of a 1 KT explosion. Then, with the aid of the scaling laws, the values for the explosion of any specified energy can be determined for a particular height of burst.

Theoretically, a given pressure will occur at a distance from an explosion that is proportional to the cube root of the energy yield. According to this law, if d_1 is the distance from a reference explosion of W_1 KT at which a certain overpressure or dynamic pressure is attained, then for any explosion of W KT energy, these same pressures will occur at a distance (d) given by:

$$\frac{d}{d_1} = \left(\frac{W}{W_1} \right)^{1/3}$$

The reference explosion is conveniently chosen to be 1 KT so that W_1 is equal to one. It follows from the equation above that where d_1 is the distance from a 1 KT explosion, the formula reduces to:

$$d = d_1 W^{1/3}$$

Consequently, if the distance (d) is specified, then the value of the explosion energy (W) required to produce a certain effect can be calculated.

When comparing air bursts having different energy yields, it is convenient to introduce a scaled height of burst, defined as:

$$\text{Scaled Height of Burst} = \frac{\text{Actual Height of Burst}}{W^{1/3}}$$

Cube root scaling can also be applied to arrival time of the shock front. The relationship may be expressed in the form:

$$\frac{s}{s_1} = \frac{d}{d_1} = \left(\frac{W}{W_1} \right)^{1/3}$$

Where s_1 represents arrival time for a reference explosion of energy W_1 , and s refers to the arrival time for any explosion of energy W . As before, d_1 and d are distances from ground zero. If W_1 is 1 KT, then these quantities are related as follows:

$$s = s_1 W^{1/3}$$

$$\text{at a distance } d = d_1 W^{1/3}$$

Altitude Corrections

The data presented above for the characteristic properties of a blast wave are strictly applicable to a homogeneous atmosphere at sea level. However, this condition holds for bursts up to about 5000 feet altitude. If it is required to determine the air blast parameters at altitudes where the ambient atmospheric conditions are appreciably different from those at sea level, then a correction factor must be applied.

The general relationships which take into account the fact that the absolute temperature (T) and the ambient pressure (P) are not the same as T_0 and P_0 respectively, in the reference (1 KT) explosion in a sea level atmosphere, are as follows:

$$\text{For the overpressure, } p = p_1 \frac{P}{P_0},$$

where p is the overpressure at altitude and p_1 is that at sea level.

$$\text{For the arrival time, } s = s_1 W^{1/3} \left(\frac{P_0}{P} \right)^{1/3} \left(\frac{T_0}{T} \right)^{1/2}$$

where s is the arrival time at altitude and s_1 is that at sea level.

The foregoing expressions are applicable when the altitude at the observed point (or target) does not

differ by more than a few thousand feet from that at the point of burst.

As a general rule, the referenced values for the blast wave properties are for a standard sea level atmosphere, where P_0 is 14.7 psi and the temperature is 59 degrees Fahrenheit (15 degrees Centigrade), so that T_0 is 519 degrees Rankine (288 degrees Kelvin).

Standard Curves

In order to estimate the damage which might be expected to occur at a particular range from a given explosion, it is necessary to define the characteristics of the blast wave as they vary with time and distance. Standard height of burst curves of the various air blast wave properties are given here to supplement the general discussion already presented.

From the curves given below, the values of the blast wave properties at the surface can be calculated and the results used to determine the loading and response of a particular target.

These standard curves show the blast wave properties for a 1 KT explosion. To simplify calculations, Figure 29 gives the values of cube roots required in the application of scaling laws.

The variations of peak overpressure with distance from ground zero for a 1 KT TNT equivalent contact surface burst in a standard sea level atmosphere are represented by the curves in Figure 30.

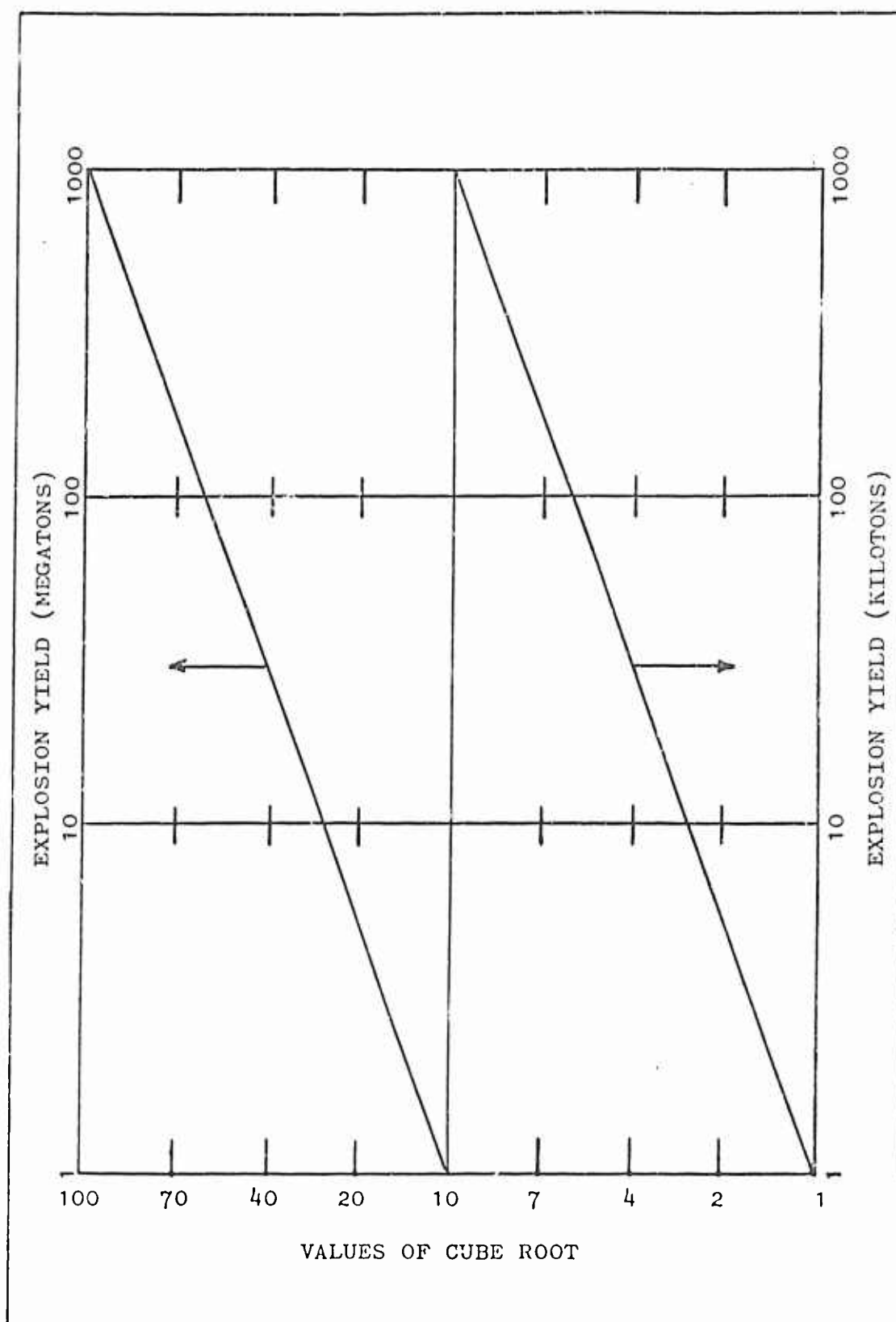


Figure 29. Cube Root Scaling Factor

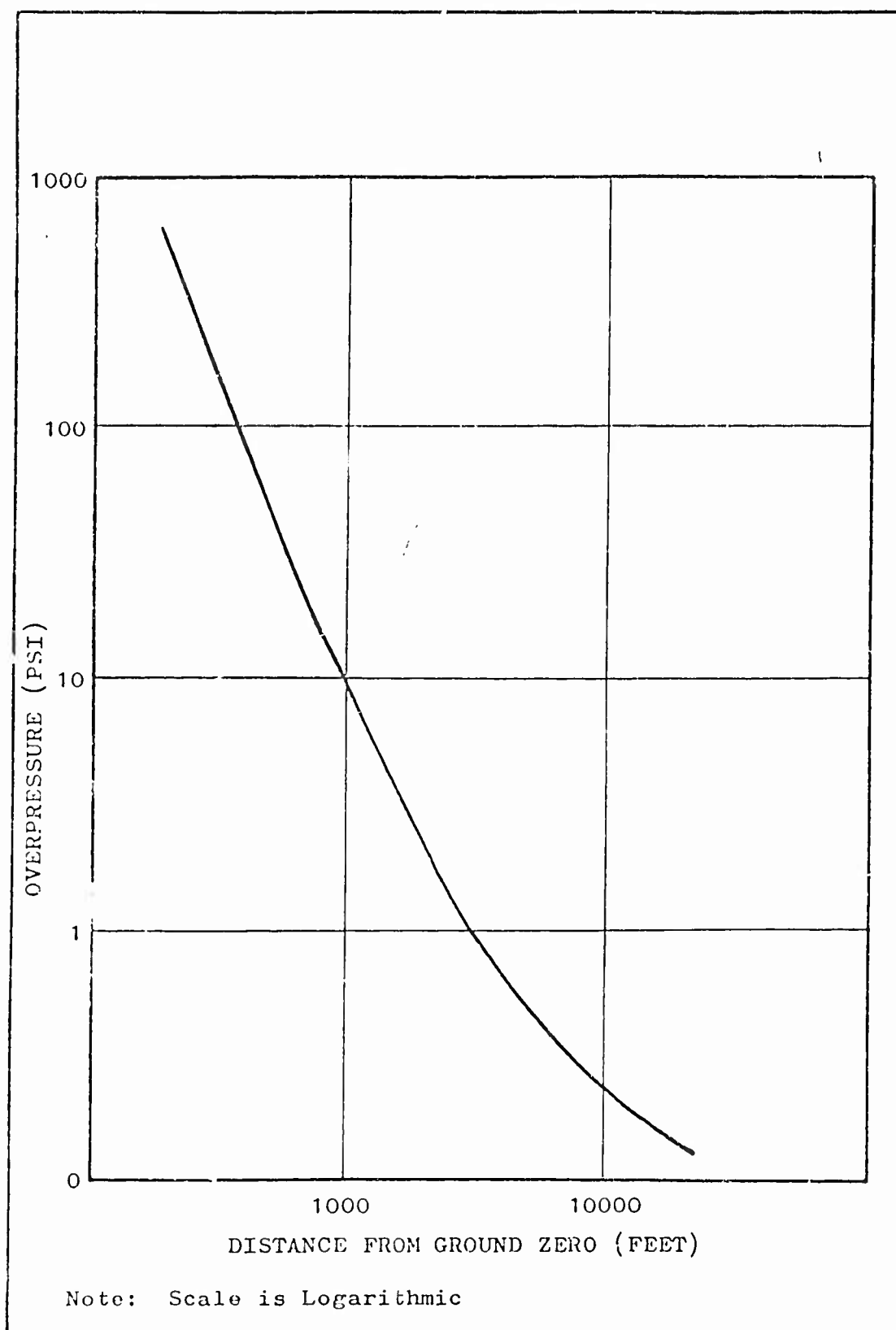


Figure 30. Peak Overpressure for 1 KT Surface Burst

The curve in Figure 31 shows the variation of peak overpressure for a 1 KT air burst, with distance from ground zero as a function of the height of burst. The presence of a pronounced "knee" in the curves in the Mach region means that, for any given overpressure, there is an optimum burst height that maximizes the distance from ground zero at which this overpressure is experienced. The corresponding data for any other explosion energy yield may be obtained by use of the scaling laws. The peak overpressures in Figure 31 are those that would be observed at or near the surface after reflection has taken place.

The curves in Figure 32 give the arrival times of the shock front on the ground at various distances from ground zero as a function of the height of burst for a 1 KT explosion under the conditions of a sea level atmosphere and a nearly ideal surface.

The curve in Figure 33 shows the height of the Mach stem for a 1 KT air burst. For yields other than 1 KT, the height and distance of the Mach stem scale as the cube root of the yield:

$$h = h_0 W^{1/3}$$

$$d = d_0 W^{1/3}$$

where h_0 is the height of the Mach stem at distance d_0 for 1 KT, and h is the height of the Mach stem at distance d for W KT.

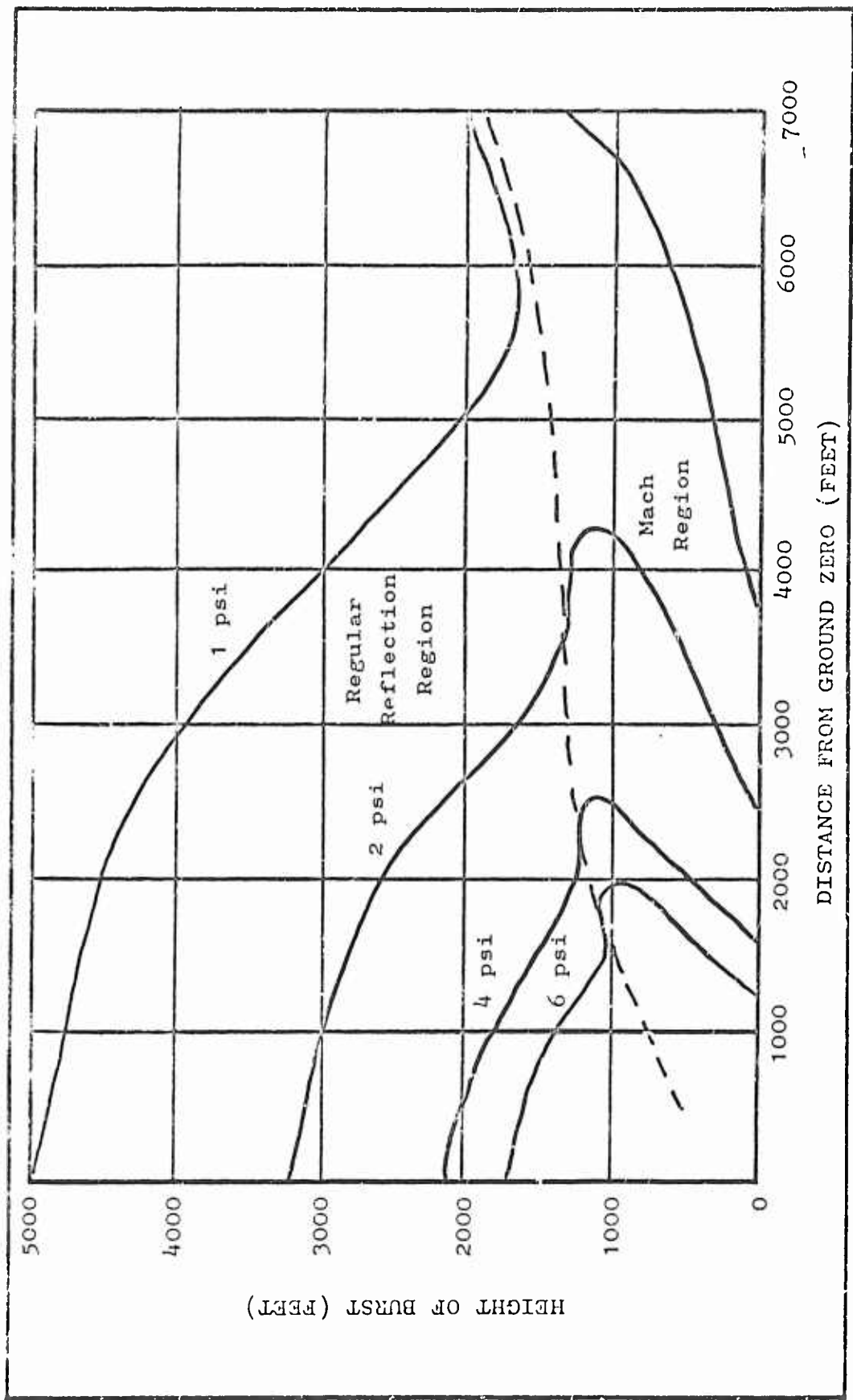


Figure 31. Peak Overpressure on the Ground for a 1 KT Burst

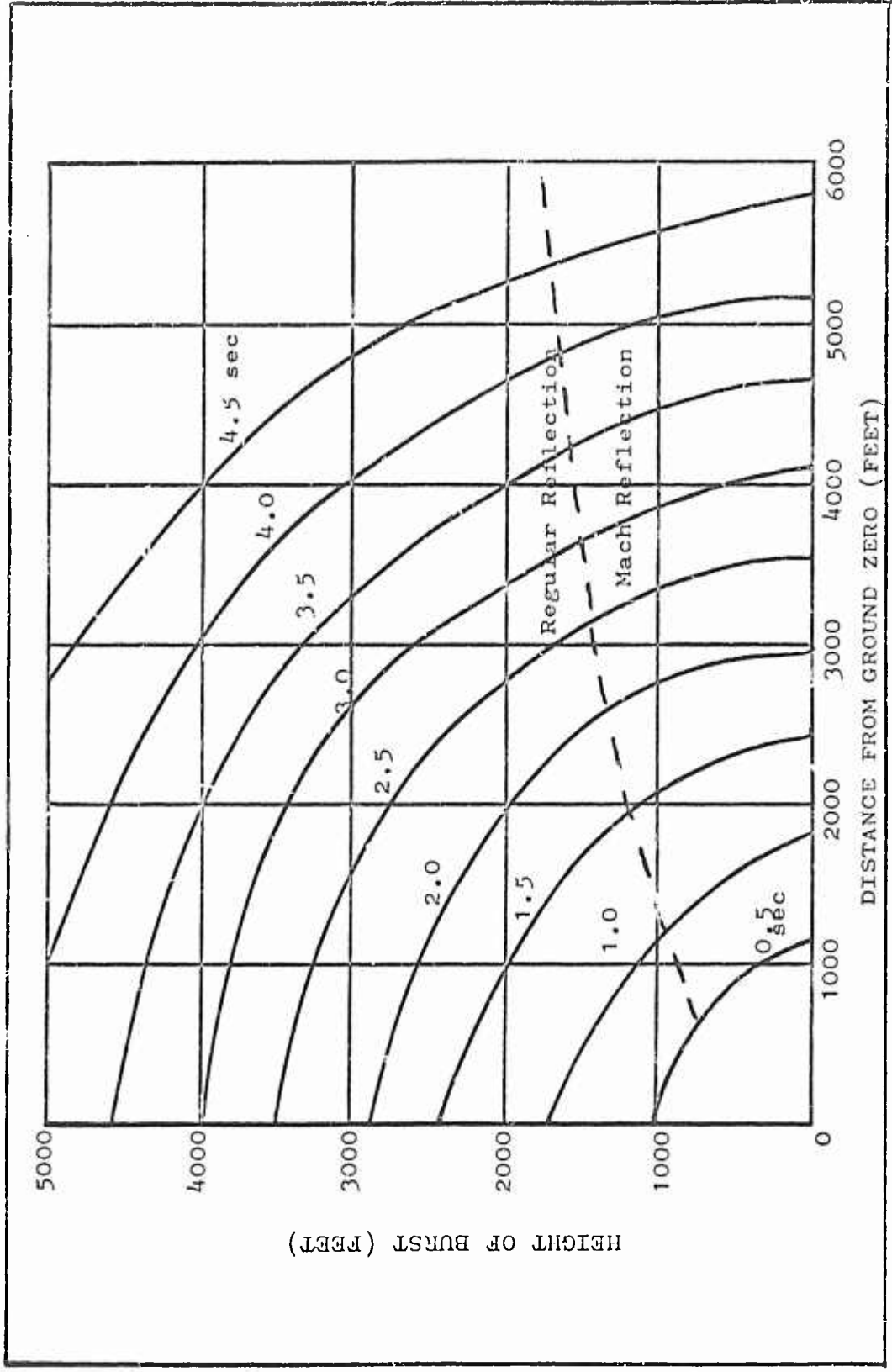


Figure 32. Arrival Times on the Ground of Blast Wave for 1 KT Burst

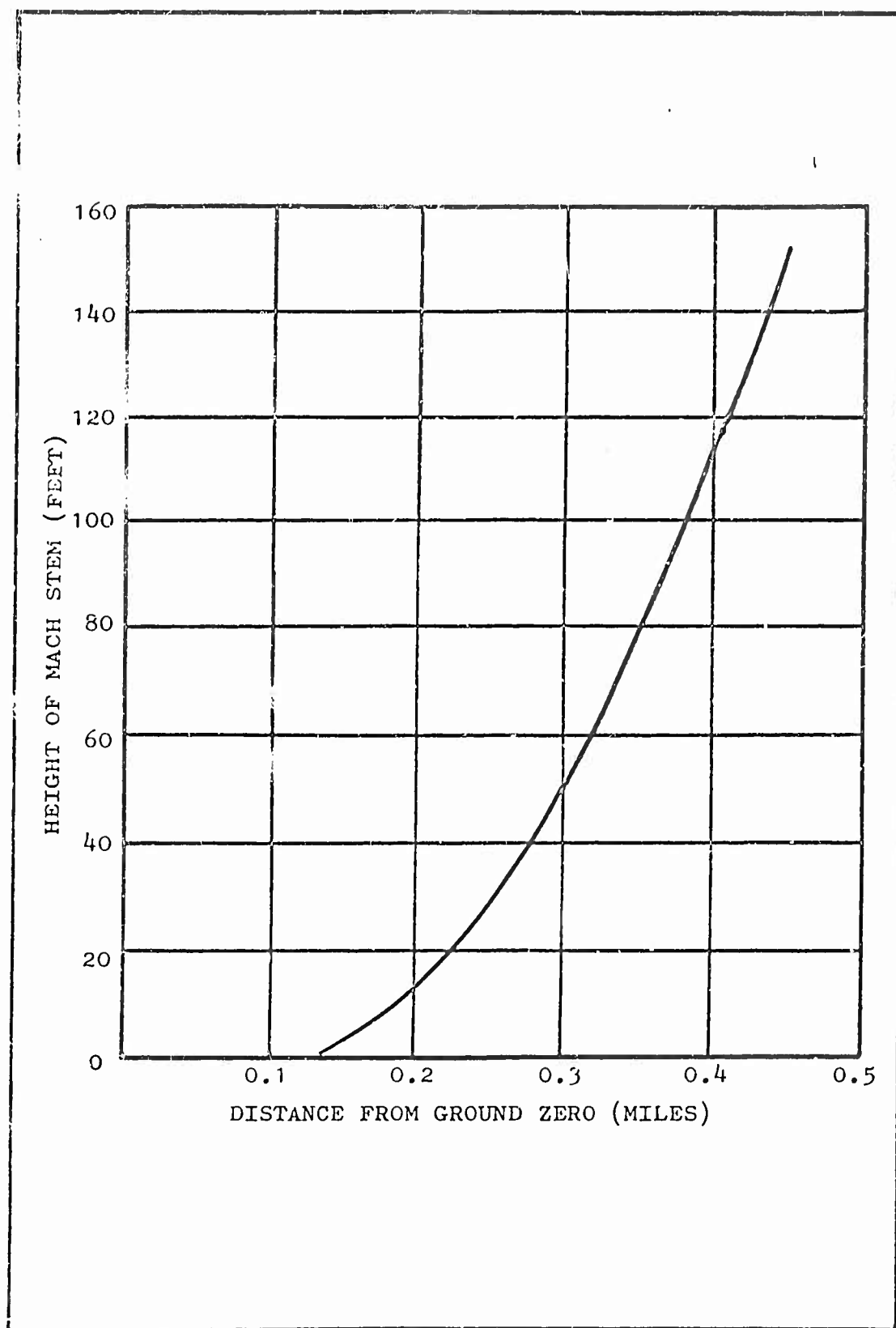


Figure 33. Height of Mach Stem (Path of Triple Point)
for a 1 KT Air Burst

Appendix B

Summary of Airfield Data

Runway Length (feet)	NUMBER OF FIELDS BY CATEGORY			
	Air Force	Other Military	Civilian	Total
6000 - 7900	11	14	325	350
8000 - 9900	35	20	112	177
10000 - 11900	34	10	34	78
12000+	32	10	12	54
Total	112	64	483	659

Information presented in this summary was extracted from the IFR and VFR Supplements to the DOD Flight Information Publication (FLIP) (Ref 34 & 69).

Appendix C

Effect of SLBM Launch Interval

The analysis in Chapter V indicated that as long as there were fewer missile launching submarines than bases to be targeted, the interval between missiles launched from a single submarine would be a significant figure affecting the prelaunch survival of manned bombers.

Although it was not deemed feasible to consider missile launch interval in the deterministic, worst case formulation presented in this study, future exploration of a stochastic approach to the problem might well consider this interval of time.

The addition of one term to the survival equation will allow computation of the number of bombers surviving on a base in a particular zone, given the interval length and launch sequence number of the SLBM attacking that base. The modified equation would be:

$$a_{ij} = \frac{60}{I}(M - T) + \frac{S + L_p}{I} + 1$$

where L_p ; $p = 0, 1, 2, \dots, q$; is the cumulative length of the launch intervals until the SLBM attacking the base in question is launched; p is the number of intervals until that launch; and q is one less than the number of missiles on the submarine (e.g., considering current capabilities, $q = 16 - 1 = 15$).

Whether the base in question is targeted on the first, second, or succeeding salvos would be dependent on the enemy's targeting strategy. If enemy targeting is uniform over all zones considered, then there is some probability associated with being targeted by any particular salvo; and it is the same probability in each location. If enemy strategy is based on some other criteria, such as target value or target distance, then the probability of being targeted on any given salvo would vary with these parameters.

In either case, these probabilities could be used in a stochastic formulation of a total force survival model.

VITA

Douglas D. Cochard was born on [REDACTED] [REDACTED]
[REDACTED] [REDACTED] He graduated from high school
[REDACTED] [REDACTED] in 1963, and attended Bowling Green
State University, Ohio, from which he received the
degree of Bachelor of Science in 1967. After attending
Officer Training School he received a commission in
the USAF in February, 1968. He served as a Configura-
tion and Data Management Officer under the Deputy of
Communication Satellite Systems at Space and Missile
Systems Organization, Los Angeles. In May, 1970, he
was assigned to the Air Force Institute of Technology,
Wright-Patterson Air Force Base, Ohio.

PII Redacted

Permanent address: [REDACTED] [REDACTED]

PII Redacted

VITA

Robert Edward Riggs was born [REDACTED]
[REDACTED] [REDACTED] and graduated from [REDACTED] [REDACTED] PII Redacted
[REDACTED] [REDACTED] in 1957. In 1961 he received a
Bachelor of Science degree in chemistry and was commis-
sioned in the USAF as a distinguished military graduate of
Southwest Texas State College. He graduated from pilot
training in August, 1962, and then attended combat crew
training in the F-100. His first operational assignment
was the 353rd Tactical Fighter Squadron at Myrtle Beach
AFB, S.C., where he spent 2½ years as a fighter pilot and
bomb commander. While there he attended Squadron Officers
School at Maxwell AFB, Alabama, and the Army Airborne
Parachutist School at Ft. Benning, Georgia. He was as-
signed as an advisor to the Vietnamese 514th Fighter
Squadron at Bien Hoa in November, 1965, where he spent one
year flying 370 sorties and 634 combat hours in the A-1H.
A consecutive overseas tour to RAF Lakenheath, England,
returned him to the F-100 for 3½ years where he was an
emergency actions officer with the 48th Tactical Fighter
Wing and an instructor pilot, test pilot, bomb commander,
and weapons officer with the 493rd Tactical Fighter squad-
ron. He was assigned to the Air Force Institute of
Technology, Wright-Patterson AFB, Ohio, in May, 1970.

Permanent address: [REDACTED]
[REDACTED]