Chapter 4

Expeditionary Concepts

"A Military, Naval, Littoral War, when wisely prepared and discreetly conducted, is a terrible Sort of War. Happy for that People who are Sovereigns enough of the Sea to put it into Execution! For it comes like Thunder and lightning to some unprepared Part of the World."[1]

—Thomas More Molyneux, 1759

"Ever since the days of the Phoenicians, the ability to land on defended shores has been a source of strength for those who possess it and a source of concern for those who must oppose it."[2]

—Robert H. Barrow

This chapter describes the Marine Corps' fundamental operating concepts for the conduct of expeditionary operations: operational maneuver from the sea, sustained operations ashore, military operations other than war, and maritime prepositioning force operations. The applicable concept in any given instance depends on the particular political and military conditions. All of these expeditionary concepts are compatible with the fundamental Marine Corps doctrine of maneuver warfare.

OPERATIONAL MANEUVER FROM THE SEA

The capstone operating concept for Marine Corps expeditionary operations is *Operational Maneuver from the Sea*.[3] This concept describes the maneuver of naval forces at the operational level in a maritime implementation of Marine Corps maneuver warfare doctrine across the range of military operations—from major theater war to military operations other than war.

Operational maneuver from the sea is an amphibious operation that seeks to use the sea as an avenue for maneuvering against some operational-level objective.[4] The concept recognizes the requirement for forcible entry—an amphibious landing in the face of organized military resistance—although not all operational maneuvers from the sea entail forcible entry.

The concept envisions the MAGTF operating as part of a naval expeditionary force conducting operations as part of a theater or joint task force campaign. Operational maneuver from the sea may or may not develop into sustained operations ashore.

Operational maneuver from the sea is not limited to combat at the high end of the range of military operations. In fact, one of the principles of operational maneuver from the sea is to use the mobility provided by naval power to avoid enemy strengths and strike where the enemy is weak. Many operational maneuvers from the sea will be conducted during military operations other than war.

By definition, an operational maneuver from the sea involves the entry phase of an expeditionary operation. It may also include enabling actions or decisive actions, depending on the nature of the situation. In other words, the operational maneuver may be intended to set the stage for the decisive action, or it may itself constitute the decisive move.

As the title of the concept denotes, there are two main aspects to operational maneuver from the sea. The first is operational maneuver, the employment of the MAGTF as an operational-level force in such a way as to gain and exploit an operational advantage. Classically, this has often meant using the sea as a means for turning the enemy's flank and threatening his lines of operations. For example, in one brilliant stroke, General MacArthur's landing of the 1st Marine Division at Inchon to attack Seoul in 1950 turned the tide of the Korean

War. It cut off the North Korean army's lines of communications at Seoul and facilitated 8th Army's breakout from the Pusan perimeter. The Allied landing at Salerno, Italy, in 1944, although predictable and not well executed, sought to bypass Axis defenses in southern Italy rather than attack frontally the length of the peninsula. Another example of operational maneuver was Operation Galvanic, the bloody assault of Tarawa in November 1943, which secured a jumping-off point for the campaign to seize the operationally important Marshall Islands. Possession of the Marshalls in turn facilitated the decisive penetration of the heart of the Japanese defenses in the Marianas.

Operational maneuver from the sea is not merely a way of introducing an expeditionary force onto foreign soil, although it does that, but a way of projecting expeditionary power directly against some center of gravity or critical vulnerability. The idea is to use the operational mobility of naval power to launch an attack at the time and place of our choosing to exploit an enemy weakness.

Operational maneuver from the sea includes the implementing concept of ship-to-objective maneuver. Historically, amphibious operations have involved creating an initial lodgment on a foreign shore, followed by a buildup of combat power and supplies on an established beachhead. The ship-to-shore movement was primarily a way of transferring combat power ashore. The choice of landing beach was necessarily dictated largely by the technical and tactical problems of getting ashore

safely. Only after sufficient combat power and supplies had been placed ashore could the landing force launch its attack against its main objective ashore, which was its reason for landing in the first place. This buildup of combat power also gave the enemy time to strengthen his defenses, nullifying any advantages in tempo and surprise the attacker had gained. Frequently, this warning and consequent reinforcement compelled the landing force to plan and fight a deliberate and often costly pitched battle to break out of the beachhead. Made possible primarily by advances in the technology for transporting landing forces ashore, the operational maneuver from the sea concept seeks to generate operating tempo by combining the ship-to-shore movement and what has traditionally been called "subsequent operations ashore" into a single, decisive maneuver directly from the ship.

It may not always be possible to maneuver directly against operational objectives. However, even where objectives are tactical, we should seek to exploit the mobility and firepower provided by naval power and the ability to introduce ground combat power quickly to attack rapidly at a time and place of our own choosing before the enemy can respond adequately. As an example, on the morning of 25 October 1983, the 22d Marine Amphibious Unit launched a helicopterborne assault to capture Pearls and Grenville on the northeast coast of Grenada in Operation Urgent Fury. The same unit exploited the operational mobility provided by Amphibious Squadron 4 to launch an unplanned surfaceborne assault at Grand Mal Bay on the west side of the island later the same day.

The second main aspect of operational maneuver from the sea is "from the sea." The operational maneuver from the sea concept seeks to fully exploit the naval character of Marine Corps forces—their ability to move by sea, deploy at sea near the scene of a crisis, project power ashore and sustain themselves from the sea, and redeploy to the sea. What distinguishes operational maneuver from the sea is the use of the sea as a means of gaining operational advantage, as an avenue for friendly movement that is simultaneously a barrier to the enemy, and as a means of avoiding disadvantageous engagements.

Sea basing is an important implementing concept of operational maneuver from the sea. Sea basing applies to fire support, command and control, and other functions as well as to logistics. However, sea basing is not an absolute requirement for operational maneuver from the sea; support may also be based ashore as each situation dictates.

The operational maneuver from the sea concept envisions that most or all aviation—especially fixed-wing aviation— will remain sea based during the evolution. Likewise, some or most logistics will remain sea based. Sea-based logistics does not mean that ground units will not carry unit-level supplies; it means that most landing-force-level logistics, including supply dumps and repair facilities, will remain afloat. The operational maneuver from the sea concept also envisions that most MAGTF command and control will remain afloat rather than ashore. However, some command and control in support of the

ground combat element will be passed ashore as the situation requires. Finally, the concept envisions that the landing force will be supported by naval surface fires to augment its own land-based fire support.

Sea basing done properly can be a source of operational freedom of action. Historically, the tactical and operational options available to landing forces were constrained by the need to establish, employ, and protect large supply dumps ashore. These logistical bases dictated and limited operational direction and range. With the increased use of sea basing, the logistics tail of landing forces will be smaller, subsequent operations ashore can start without the traditional buildup phase within the beachhead, and landing forces will have greater operational freedom of action. The important results can be an increase in operating tempo and reduced requirements for rear area security. The reduction of the support infrastructure ashore will also facilitate the rapid redeployment of the landing force. All of this helps the landing force avoid combat on unfavorable terms.

CASE STUDY: THE MARIANAS, 1944

Operation Forager, the U.S. invasion of the Marianas Islands in the summer of 1944 during the Second World War, provides

a classic example of operational maneuver from the sea.[5] The Allied strategy in the Pacific called for a two-prong counteroffensive: General MacArthur would advance generally northwest out of Australia in the southwest Pacific theater of operations while Admiral Nimitz drove west out of Hawaii in the central Pacific. While MacArthur was starting his New Guinea drive in early 1944, Nimitz moved on the heavily fortified Marshalls in the central Pacific. The key island of Kwajalein fell on 7 February, and Eniwetok, the westernmost garrison, was captured by 21 February. The Joint Chiefs approved Nimitz's recommendation to bypass Truk in the Carolines and instead to attack the Marianas in June. The stage was now set for Operation Forager.

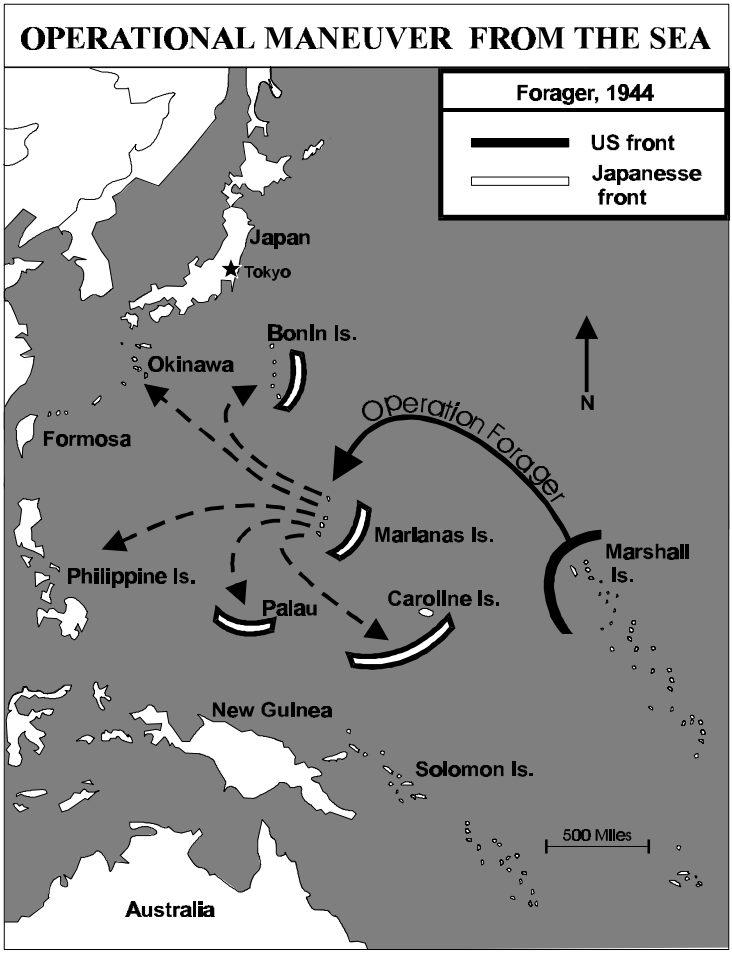
The Marianas were of significant strategic importance. Considered part of the Japanese homeland, their capture by the Allies would have an important political and psychological effect on both sides. Moreover, this maneuver into the heart of the Japanese defenses threatened Japanese north-south lines of communications. Allied possession of the Marianas isolated the Carolines to the south and endangered Japanese sea lines of communication to Rabaul in New Guinea and Truk. Control of the Carolines was essential to protecting the right flank of MacArthur's upcoming invasion of the Philippines. It was also of significant military importance that possession of the Marianas exposed most of the remaining Japanese positions and opened more operational options to the Allies than the Japanese could defend against: south to the Carolines and Truk,

southwest to the Palaus, west to the Philippines, northwest to Okinawa, or north to the Volcanoes and Bonins. Finally, the Marianas provided air bases for long-range air strikes against the Japanese mainland. (See figure.)

Nimitz assigned operational command of Forager to Admiral Raymond Spruance, commander of the U.S. 5th Fleet. Spruance organized three main forces:

- The Joint Expeditionary Force including, as its Expeditionary Troops, General Holland M. Smith's V Amphibious Corps of 127,000 troops.
- Task Force 58, the Fast-Carrier Attack Force, under Admiral Marc Mitscher.
- All U.S. Army, Navy, and Marine land-based aircraft assigned to support the operation, including the Army's 7th Air Force, under Navy command.

The military objectives were three of the southernmost Marianas islands, Saipan, Tinian, and Guam. The northernmost, Saipan, would be attacked first to deny airfields to any Japanese air support flying from Iwo Jima in the Volcanoes or from mainland Japan. Saipan was more than a thousand miles from Eniwetok in the Marshalls, the nearest U.S. advanced naval base. This would be by far the longest amphibious projection attempted yet in the war. Previously, amphibious advances had been limited to about 300 miles, the range of land-based fighters providing close air support. In Operation Forager, all


OPERATIONAL MANEUVER FROM THE SEA
Forager, 1944
US front
Japanesse front
Japan
Tokyo
Bonin Is.
Okinawa
Formosa
Operation Forager
N
Marianas Is.
Marshall Is.
Philippine Is.
Palau
Caroline Is.
New Guinea
Solomon Is.
500 Miles
Australia

close air support would be sea-based, flying off Task Force 58's carriers.

The Joint Expeditionary Force assembled in California, Hawaii, and Guadalcanal and rendezvoused in the Marshalls. Task Force 58 arrived east of Guam on 11 June and commenced bombardment with aviation and naval gunfire. The 2d and 4th Marine Divisions landed abreast at Saipan on 15 June against heavy resistance. They made slow progress, requiring the Guam landing to be delayed by a month. Saipan was finally secured on 13 July; the Guam landing began on 21 July and the Tinian landing on 24 July. After tough fighting, Guam was declared secured on 10 August.

There was only limited latitude for tactical maneuver ashore, although both Saipan and Tinian involved the use of amphibious feints, and the Tinian operation achieved tactical surprise. Nevertheless, all three landings amounted to hard-fought direct assaults against fortified defenses. The real significance of the Forager landings was their direct operational and strategic effect. The Marianas operation pierced the inner defenses that Japan had constructed to defend its empire. The cabinet led by General Tojo was forced to resign in disgrace. By November, B-29 bombers operating from Saipan were attacking Japan on a daily basis, eventually reaching a rate of over a thousand sorties a week. Although the war in the Pacific continued for another year after Forager, this operational maneuver from the sea against the Marianas had sealed Japan's ultimate fate.

This case study illustrates that operational maneuver from the sea is not a new concept dependent on emerging technology but instead has a strong historical basis. Some of the most effective employments of amphibious forces and operations throughout history have been to conduct operational and even strategic maneuver. That said, due to recent advances in doctrine, techniques, and technology, current operating capabilities greatly exceed those of 1944. As these advances continue, capabilities will continue to improve. The fictional case study starting on page 125 illustrates the potential future application of operational maneuver from the sea and other expeditionary concepts.

SUSTAINED OPERATIONS ASHORE

While organized and equipped to participate in naval campaigns, the Marine Corps has frequently been called on to conduct sustained operations ashore. From the American Civil War to the Vietnam War to the Gulf War, Marine Corps forces have participated in operations in which their naval character and their relations with the Navy played a limited role.

Today's sustained operations ashore are those extended operations, usually of significant scale, in which MAGTFs fight not as amphibious or sea-based naval forces, but essentially as land forces. This concept envisions that Marine Corps forces

are part of a larger joint or combined force with the Marine Corps forces operating under the Marine Corps Service component or a functional land component.

During sustained operations ashore, Marine Corps forces will use the sea to complement their land-based operational mobility—including shore-to-shore or even ship-to-shore operations. MAGTFs conducting sustained operations ashore may employ a combination of sea- or land-based fires, logistics, and command and control support—depending upon the situation.

In sustained operations ashore, MAGTFs are often best employed as independent formations that are assigned operational or tactical missions appropriate to a self-contained, self-sustaining combined arms force with both air and ground capabilities. Operational maneuver is as integral to sustained operations ashore as it is to operational maneuver from the sea. Appropriate missions include advance force, covering force, and enabling force operations, independent supporting attacks, and employment as an operational reserve or operational maneuver element. Depending on the nature and scale of operations, a MAGTF may constitute or compose part of an enabling force or a decisive force. A MAGTF engaged in sustained operations ashore may include elements from other Services or countries, as I Marine Expeditionary Force included the British 7 Armour Brigade during Operation Desert

Shield and the U.S. Army "Tiger" Brigade during Operation Desert Storm.

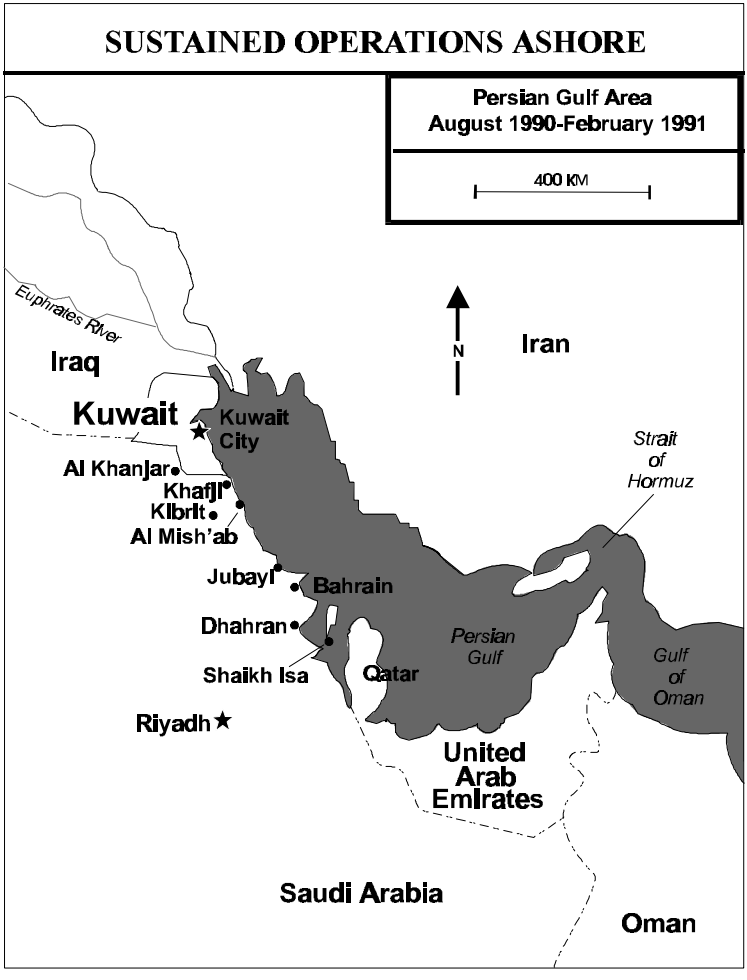
Sustained operations ashore may follow an operational maneuver from the sea when the amphibious operation is a way of introducing forces into a theater for a sustained campaign. The Allied landings in Normandy in 1944, for example, were the opening move in Eisenhower's campaign in Europe, in contrast to the Forager landings, started 9 days later in the Marianas, which were part of a series of landings conducted during Nimitz's campaign in the central Pacific.

Currently when sustained operations ashore follow an amphibious operation, a transition must generally be made from sea basing to land basing. This transition is a complex undertaking involving the phasing ashore of various command and support functions. Future technology and mobility enhancements will allow the Marine Corps to execute ship-to-objective maneuver. Ship-to-objective maneuver reduces the footprint ashore, provides greater security to the force, and allows the force to sea base many of the command and support functions previously transitioned ashore.

CASE STUDY: THE PERSIAN GULF, 1990–1991

Iraq invaded Kuwait on 2 August 1990.[6] On 7 August, President Bush ordered 125,000 troops to the Persian Gulf as part of a multinational force with the initial mission of protecting Saudi Arabia. Designated Desert Shield, the U.S. operation was under the command of the Commander in Chief, U.S. Central Command, General H. Norman Schwarzkopf. Among the U.S. forces was I Marine Expeditionary Force based in Camp Pendleton, California, which arrived at the beginning of September under the command of Lieutenant General Walter E. Boomer. Lieutenant General Boomer was also designated as Central Command's Marine Corps component commander, responsible directly to General Schwarzkopf for the operations of all Marine Corps forces save those assigned to the Navy component as landing forces. The Marine Corps component was assigned the mission of defending the Jubayl sector throughout the duration of Desert Shield. (See figure.)

The 3d Marine Aircraft Wing established its headquarters at Shaikh Isa Air Base as I Marine Expeditionary Force's aviation combat element. Marine aviation during Desert Shield/Desert Storm was based ashore, except for the aviation belonging to MAGTFs assigned to the Navy component. Aircraft squadrons were based ashore at several military and civilian airfields.


SUSTAINED OPERATIONS ASHORE
Persian Gulf Area
August 1990-February 1991
400 KM
N
Euphrates River
Iraq
Iran
Kuwait
Kuwait City
Al Khanjar
Khafji
Klbrit
Al Mish'ab
Jubayl
Bahrain
Dhahran
Shaikh Isa
Qatar
Riyadh
Persian Gulf
Strait of Hormuz
Gulf of Oman
United Arab Emirates
Saudi Arabia
Oman

One of the first and most difficult issues to be worked out was the control of Marine aviation. An agreement was reached with the commander of U.S. Air Forces Central Command. The joint force air component commander would issue a daily air tasking order to coordinate all theater air operations. Marine aviation would support the Marine Corps forces while providing a percentage of its fixed-wing sorties to Central Command for theater missions. In turn, joint force air component commander sorties would strike deep targets nominated by the Marine Corps component. To ensure the responsive close air support traditionally enjoyed by Marine ground forces, the Marine Corps component would control offensive air missions within its area of operations.

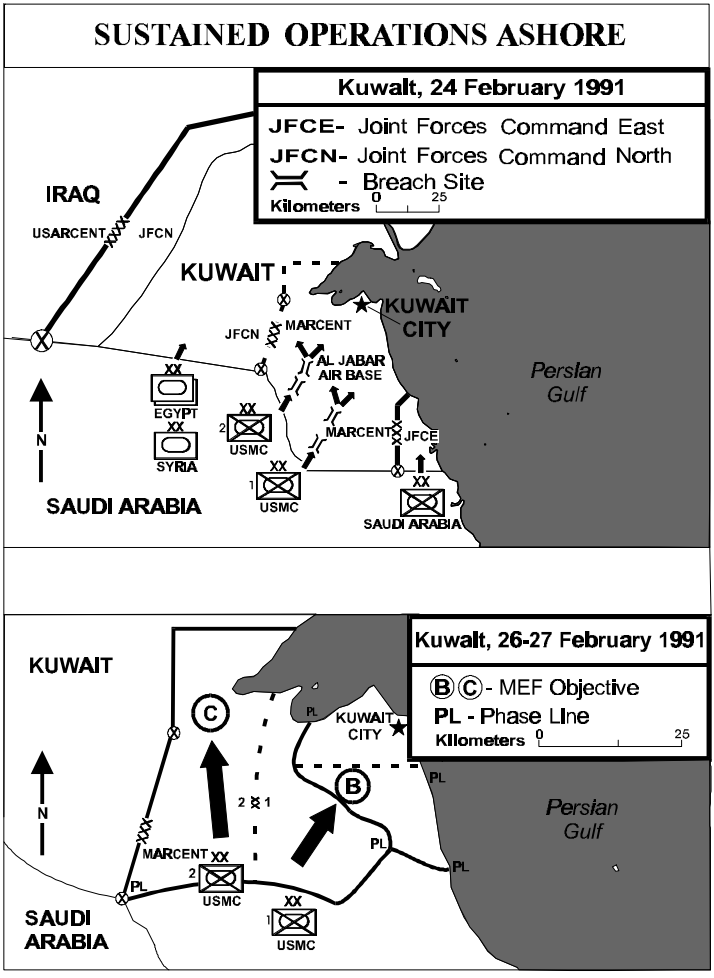
By the end of October, planning began for an offensive operation to liberate Kuwait. Initial planning called for I Marine Expeditionary Force to be treated as if it were an Army corps—employed to create a breach in the Iraqi barrier through which the Army mechanized forces would pass—with most of its organic aviation employed in support of non-Marine units. Lieutenant General Boomer argued for more effective employment of the Marine expeditionary force, and General Schwarzkopf agreed. The Marines would launch a supporting attack toward Kuwait City.

Eventually, I Marine Expeditionary Force was given the mission "to conduct a supporting attack to penetrate Iraqi defenses, destroy Iraqi forces in its zone of action, and secure key objectives to prevent reinforcement of Iraqi forces facing the

Joint Forces Command-North/Northern Area Command. Once this was achieved, I Marine Expeditionary Force was to establish blocking positions to halt the northerly retreat of Iraqi forces from southeastern Kuwait and Kuwait City and to assist passage of Coalition Forces in Kuwait City."[7] On the Marine expeditionary force's right flank would be Joint Forces Command East, comprising five Arab mechanized brigades. On the Marine expeditionary force's left flank would be Joint Forces Command North, another Arab force. Farther west as part of Central Command's main attack was the heavily armored U.S. VII Corps, which had arrived from Germany in November. Farther west still, also part of the flanking attack, was the U.S. XVIII Corps. (See figure, page 106.)[8]

An offensive operation would require more forces, and reinforcements to I Marine Expeditionary Force started arriving in December. The 2d Marine Division arrived from North Carolina to constitute a second maneuver element in the ground combat element. Elements of 2d Marine Aircraft Wing arrived from North Carolina to reinforce 3d Marine Aircraft Wing, now increased to 32 aircraft squadrons.

With the arrival of 2d Force Service Support Group, Lieutenant General Boomer reorganized his logistics. The 1st Force Service Support Group assumed the role of general support logistics for all Marine Corps forces from the port at Jubayl to the combat service support area. The newly arrived 2d Force Service Support Group became the Direct Support Command, responsible for direct support of the divisions and forward


SUSTAINED OPERATIONS ASHORE
Kuwait, 24 February 1991
JFCE- Joint Forces Command East
JFCN- Joint Forces Command North
- Breach Site
Kilometers 0 25
IRAQ
USARCENT
JFCN
KUWAIT
KUWAIT CITY
JFCN
MARCENT
AL JABAR AIR BASE
Persian Gulf
EGYPT
SYRIA
USMC
MARCENT
JFCE
USMC
SAUDI ARABIA
SAUDI ARABIA
N
Kuwait, 26-27 February 1991
BC - MEF Objective
PL - Phase Line
Kilometers 0 25
KUWAIT
KUWAIT CITY
C
B
PL
2 1
MARCENT
USMC
USMC
Persian Gulf
SAUDI ARABIA
N

aviation units from the combat service support area to the front.

Headquarters Marine Corps also activated 80 units of the Selected Marine Corps Reserve, more than half the personnel of the 4th Division-Wing team. The largest Reserve unit mobilized was the 24th Marines, which in January 1991 assumed responsibility for rear area security.

Offensive air operations commenced on 17 January for the purpose of knocking out Iraq's command and control and transportation systems and attacking the Republican Guards. The ground offensive began on 24 February. First Marine Expeditionary Force's two divisions attacked abreast, 2d on the left and 1st on the right. The plan was to penetrate into the depth of the Iraqi defensive system at an identified weak point at the "elbow" of Kuwait in order to outflank the prepared defensive positions and quickly destroy Iraqi operational reserves. The 1st Division attacked toward Al Jaber Airfield. It would continue the attack to capture Marine expeditionary force Objective B, Kuwait International Airport, in order to isolate Kuwait City. The 2d Division would attack toward Marine expeditionary force Objective C, the main supply route intersections near Al Jahrah, some 33 kilometers west of Kuwait City, in order to prevent Iraqi forces from escaping west and north. (See figure.)[9]

By 26 February, I Marine Expeditionary Force's units were closing in on their objectives. That morning, aircraft from

Marine Aircraft Group 11 and Marine Aircraft Group 13 attacked more than a thousand Iraqi vehicles trying to escape north on the highway from Al Jahrah. Marine Aircraft Group 11 alone flew 298 sorties. By that afternoon, 2d Marine Division had captured Al Jahrah. Early on 27 February, elements of 1st Division secured Kuwait International Airport and then halted while the Arab Joint Forces Command entered Kuwait City.

By now, Central Command's flanking attack had reached the Euphrates River. Iraqi resistance was disintegrating. On 28 February, President Bush declared a cease-fire. The ground offensive had lasted 100 hours.

In both the defensive operations of Desert Shield and the offensive operations of Desert Storm, in both ground and air operations, Marine Corps forces designed for naval operations proved their worth in sustained operations ashore fighting side-by-side with mechanized and armored forces designed specifically for mobile, desert warfare.

MILITARY OPERATIONS OTHER THAN WAR

The concept of military operations other than war encompasses the use of military capabilities across the range of military operations short of war. These military actions can be applied to

complement any combination of the other instruments of national power and occur before, during, and after war.[10]

Not all military operations other than war take place in a permissive environment or even a relatively safe one. The situation may be almost completely permissive, as in, for example, disaster relief situations in which the disaster has not led to social or political disorder. However, military operations other than war may also take place in environments characterized by widespread random violence or even combat of less than large scale.

In military operations other than war more than in war, political concerns tend to restrict the application of military force. Political considerations may even necessitate military actions or deployments that are not militarily advantageous. Rules of engagement will often greatly restrict military action. In many cases, it is difficult to identify clear and finite military objectives that constitute the measure of success.

Military operations other than war generally require closer coordination with the host nation government, other nonmilitary agencies, and the local populace than do conventional, large-scale combat operations. Furthermore, the types of situations that lead to military operations other than war are generally of significant interest to the media and generally allow greater access than do combat situations. As a result, many military operations other than war require military forces to

deal with the media daily or more frequently than in conventional combat operations.

The types of missions that constitute military operations other than war have historically been Marine Corps missions. They are generally directed at limited objectives and are often of limited duration. As conducted by the Marine Corps, most military operations other than war apply the principles of operational maneuver from the sea. That is, they involve the use of the sea for strategic, operational, and even tactical mobility to project military force against some center of gravity or critical vulnerability at the time and place of our choosing. Most involve sea basing or at least some sea-based support.

Common examples of military operations other than war include—

- Noncombatant evacuation operations.
- Humanitarian assistance, to relieve the effects of natural or manmade disasters.
- Peacekeeping, to monitor and implement an existing truce.
- Peacemaking, or military intervention to establish peace between belligerents who may or may not be engaged in actual combat.

- Counterterrorism, counterdrug, and security operations, either in the form of technical support to law enforcement agencies or as purely military actions.
- Mobile training teams, to provide in-country military instruction to host nation personnel.

MAGTFs conduct military operations other than war as part of a joint or combined task force. The MAGTF may serve as the nucleus for such a task force. However, given the extremely wide range of military operations other than war, there will be a correspondingly wide range of command relationships. For example, a Marine Corps mobile training team may be assigned to a military advisory group, or a Fleet antiterrorism security team may be assigned to reinforce a Marine security guard detachment.

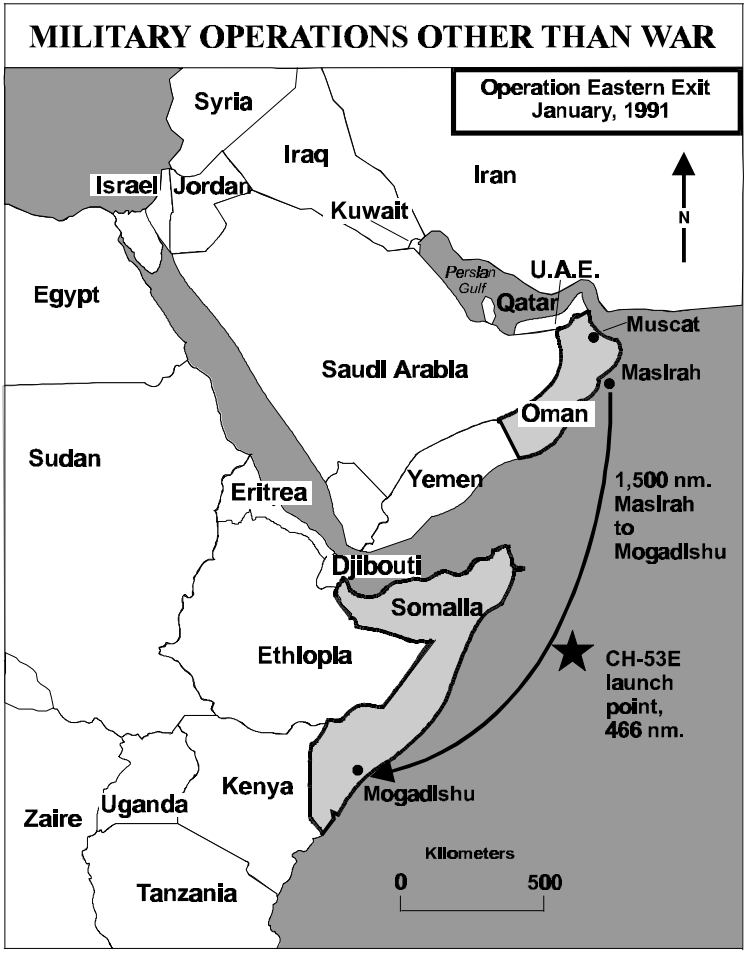
CASE STUDY: MOGADISHU, SOMALIA, 1991

The evacuation of the U.S. Embassy in Mogadishu, Somalia, in January 1991 is just one example of military operations other than war that Marine expeditionary forces can routinely be expected to conduct.[11] Somalia's long-simmering civil war had worsened throughout the fall of 1990. On 2 January 1991, U.S. Ambassador James K. Bishop requested military assistance for evacuation of the embassy.

The mission fell to U.S. Central Command, which already had numerous forces deployed to the Persian Gulf for Operations Desert Shield/Desert Storm. Amphibious Group 2, with 4th Marine Expeditionary Brigade embarked, was stationed outside the Persian Gulf, 1,500 nautical miles from Mogadishu. (See figure.)[12]

A contingency MAGTF was formed from 4th Marine Expeditionary Brigade elements aboard the amphibious assault ship USS *Guam* (LPH 9) and amphibious transport ship USS *Trenton* (LPD 14), which set off for Somalia. The MAGTF included two squadrons of CH-46 medium transport helicopters and a detachment of two CH-53E heavy transport helicopters. The ground combat element included the Headquarters and Service Company, one rifle company, and the 81 mm mortar platoon from 1st Battalion, 2d Marines. The combat service support element included a military police platoon, landing support detachment, and medical/dental detachment that would be responsible for manning the evacuation coordination center.

Early on the morning of 5 January, at a distance of 466 nautical miles from Mogadishu, the USS *Guam* launched the two CH-53Es with a 60-man security force, including a 9-man U.S. Navy sea-air-land (SEAL) team. The flight required two aerial refuelings en route. The first guaranteed enough fuel to reach the embassy compound; the second provided enough fuel to begin the return flight to the ships.


MILITARY OPERATIONS OTHER THAN WAR
Operation Eastern Exit
January, 1991
Syria
Iraq
Iran
Israel
Jordan
Kuwait
N
Persian Gulf
U.A.E.
Egypt
Qatar
Muscat
Saudi Arabia
Masirah
Oman
Sudan
Yemen
Eritrea
1,500 nm. Masirah to Mogadishu
Djibouti
Somalia
Ethiopia
CH-53E launch point, 466 nm.
Kenya
Mogadishu
Zaire
Uganda
Kilometers
0
500
Tanzania

CH-53Es landed at the compound at 0710. The SEAL team concentrated on protecting the ambassador at the chancery building while the Marines secured the remainder of the compound. After an hour on the ground, the CH-53Es lifted off with 61 evacuees for the return flight, with one aerial refueling, to the USS *Guam*, now 380 miles away. On the ground, the security force maintained the perimeter throughout the day. A few stray rounds impacted within the compound, but the Marines did not return fire. At one point during the day, a detachment from the security force and the embassy staff formed a convoy of hardened commercial vehicles to escort four American officials and several foreign nationals from the Office of Military Cooperation, which was several blocks away. Throughout the day, foreigners seeking evacuation arrived at the embassy.

Meanwhile, the USS *Guam* and USS *Trenton* had continued to steam at full speed toward Mogadishu, and upon arriving near the coast at 0043 on 6 January, they launched the final evacuation. This consisted of four waves of five CH-46s each. The first three waves were to evacuate civilians; the last wave would withdraw the security force. The entire CH-46 evolution was conducted using night vision goggles during the hours of darkness with the embassy compound darkened. As the last wave of CH-46s lifted off with the security force, armed looters could be seen scaling the walls of the embassy compound.

The evacuation was declared complete at 0343 on 6 January when the last CH-46 wave returned to the USS *Guam*. The ships turned north for Muscat, Oman, with 281 evacuees, including eight ambassadors, 61 Americans, and 39 Soviets. The entire expedition lasted less than 10 days. From the launch of the CH-53Es to the return of the last CH-46s, the evacuation itself had lasted less than 24 hours. On 11 January, the USS *Guam* and USS *Trenton* offloaded the evacuees in Muscat, including an infant born aboard ship, bringing the operation to a successful conclusion.

The fictional case study starting on page 125 provides an example of the possible nature and some of the challenges of future military operations other than war.

MARITIME PREPOSITIONING FORCE OPERATIONS

The concept of maritime prepositioning force operations is not an operating concept for conducting a particular expeditionary mission or category of missions. Instead, it is a deployment concept, but it is important enough as a means of rapidly providing expeditionary capability that it deserves special attention. Maritime prepositioning is not an absolute requirement for the conduct of expeditionary operations, but it figures

prominently in their effective and successful execution. Maritime prepositioning force operations can support operational maneuver from the sea, sustained operations ashore, and military operations other than war. The maritime prepositioning force concept continues to evolve as new technologies improve the capabilities of the maritime prepositioning force.

A maritime prepositioning force operation is the rapid deployment and assembly of a MAGTF in a forward area using a combination of airlift and forward-deployed maritime prepositioning ships.[13] Maritime prepositioning force operations are a strategic deployment option that is global and naval in character and suitable for employment in a variety of circumstances. Maritime prepositioning provides combatant commanders with an increased capability to respond rapidly to crisis or conflict with a credible force. The purpose of a maritime prepositioning force operation is to rapidly establish in theater a MAGTF ready to conduct operations across the full operating spectrum. The strategic contribution of maritime prepositioning force operations is the rapid concentration of forces in a specified littoral region.

A maritime prepositioning force is formed when a naval force of one or more maritime prepositioning ships squadrons is united with a fly-in echelon, consisting of a MAGTF and a Navy support element. A maritime prepositioning force operation can range from one ship and an appropriately tailored fly-in echelon to all three maritime prepositioning ships squadrons and a full Marine expeditionary force. A maritime

prepositioning force by itself does not possess the capability for forcible entry; it can deploy to augment forward-deployed, amphibious ready forces, which do. Maritime prepositioning force operations can also be used for missions such as occupying advanced naval bases or preemptively occupying and defending key chokepoints along sea lanes of communication. Maritime prepositioning forces are particularly well suited for supporting disaster relief and other humanitarian missions.

The pillars of future maritime prepositioning force operations are force closure, amphibious task force integration, indefinite sustainment, and reconstitution and redeployment. The futuristic case study beginning on page 125 illustrates these concepts.

Currently, maritime prepositioning forces require access to a secure port and airfield for the assembly of the force. In the future, the force-closure capability will provide for the at-sea arrival and assembly of the maritime prepositioning force. Marines will deploy via a combination of surface mobility means and strategic and theater airlift to meet underway maritime prepositioning en route to the objective area. Units will be billeted aboard the maritime prepositioning ships while readying their equipment.

Once assembled at sea, future maritime prepositioning forces will be capable of integrating with amphibious task forces. By using selective offloading to reinforce the amphibious assault echelon, the maritime prepositioning forces will be

able to participate in operational maneuver from the sea. Maritime prepositioning ships will provide advanced facilities for the employment of assault support aircraft, surface assault craft, advanced amphibious assault vehicles, and the ships' organic lighterage. Further, the ships' communications systems will be fully compatible with the tactical command and control architecture of the naval expeditionary force as a whole.

Maritime prepositioning ships of the future will provide indefinite sustainment by serving as a sea-based conduit for logistics support ashore. This might be accomplished as part of a larger sea-based logistics effort which would include not only maritime prepositioning ships but also aviation logistics support ships, hospital ships, and offshore petroleum distribution systems. Maritime prepositioning ships will also be able to integrate with joint in-theater logistics agencies and to make a transition from sea-based logistics to a shore-based logistics system.

Finally, future maritime prepositioning forces will be able to conduct in-theater reconstitution and redeployment without a requirement for extensive materiel maintenance or replenishment at a strategic sustainment base. This capability to reconstitute and redeploy the maritime prepositioning force MAGTF will facilitate immediate employment in follow-on missions.

CASE STUDY: SAUDI ARABIA, 1990

The first operational use of the maritime prepositioning force concept was in the initial buildup for Operation Desert Shield in the fall of 1990.[14] The maritime prepositioning concept had been initiated in 1979 and became operational in 1984. By the summer of 1990, three maritime prepositioning ships squadrons were in service, each loaded with equipment for a Marine expeditionary brigade.

On 7 August, President Bush ordered 125,000 troops to the Persian Gulf for Operation Desert Shield. Three Marine expeditionary brigades were immediately put on alert: the 7th in California, the 1st in Hawaii, and the 4th in North Carolina. On 10 August, General H. Norman Schwarzkopf, Commander in Chief, U.S. Central Command, ordered the airlift of 1st and 7th Marine Expeditionary Brigades and the sealift of 4th Marine Expeditionary Brigade to the Persian Gulf. The 7th Marine Expeditionary Brigade would spearhead the deployment of the Central Command expeditionary force. Its ground combat element consisted of the 7th Marines (Reinforced), comprising five battalions including a light armored infantry battalion. Its aviation combat element was Marine Aircraft Group 70, consisting of fixed-wing, helicopter, air command and control, and air-defense missile units. The combat service support element was Brigade Service Support Group 7. Within 96 hours, the 7th Marine Expeditionary Brigade began embarking from air bases in southern California as the first echelon of I Marine Expeditionary Force to deploy. The U.S. Air Force's Military

Airlift Command flew 259 missions to deploy the personnel of the brigade.

Meanwhile, the ships of Maritime Prepositioning Ships Squadron 2 were already steaming north from Diego Garcia, in the Indian Ocean, toward the Persian Gulf.

The first troops landed at Dhahran, Saudi Arabia, on 14 August. The Marines then moved north 100 kilometers to the commercial port of Jubayl to link up with their equipment. The port was large enough to handle the simultaneous offload of an entire maritime prepositioning ships squadron. The nearby Jubayl Naval Air Facility became the aerial port of entry for most Marine personnel. Within four days of its arrival, the brigade was ready to deploy.

On 25 August, the personnel of 1st Marine Expeditionary Brigade, less its command element, started to deploy by air from Hawaii. The lead elements, two battalions from the 3d Marines, arrived at Jubayl the following day and began taking possession of the equipment provided by Maritime Prepositioning Ships Squadron 3, which had arrived from Guam the same day.

On 2 September, Lieutenant General Walter E. Boomer took command of all Marine Corps forces in theater as Commander, Marine Corps Forces Central Command, and as the commander of I Marine Expeditionary Force, which included 1st Marine Division, 3d Marine Aircraft Wing, and 1st Force

Service Support Group. The 1st and 7th Marine Expeditionary Brigades were dissolved and their forces incorporated into the elements of the Marine expeditionary force. With the dissolution of 7th Marine Expeditionary Brigade, Major General Hopkins took over as deputy commander for the Marine expeditionary force, and his staff joined the Marine expeditionary force command element.

Not all of the early deployments of Marine units were by maritime prepositioning. The 4th Marine Expeditionary Brigade deployed in early August by amphibious shipping. Along with the 13th Marine Expeditionary Unit (Special Operations Capable), already afloat, it arrived in September and became the Marine expeditionary force afloat reserve.

By the end of September, I Marine Expeditionary Force had grown to more than 30,000 Marines, Central Command's most capable combat-ready force in the theater. This was due largely to the effective first-time execution of the maritime prepositioning force concept. It had provided two-thirds of the Marine expeditionary force's combat power and supplies and had also helped sustain other forces in the theater.

CONCLUSION

Our capstone operational concept, *Operational Maneuver from the Sea*, and its supporting concepts of sustained

operations ashore and military operations other than war describe how MAGTFs will conduct expeditionary operations, both combat and noncombat, in response to any contingency that may be in the national interest. The maritime prepositioning force concept describes an important and proven means by which capable MAGTFs can respond quickly to crises practically anywhere in the world within a matter of days. Together these concepts describe a responsive, versatile, and reliable expeditionary capability that is invaluable in today's uncertain and turbulent world.