Strategic Defense Initiative Organization (SDIO)  
1984 – 1994

Ballistic Missile Defense Organization (BMDO)  
1994 – 2002

Missile Defense Agency (MDA)  
Established January 2, 2002
Preface

The mission of the Missile Defense Agency History Office is to document the official history of America’s missile defense programs and to provide historical support to the MDA Director and staff.

This pamphlet, one in a series intended to quickly acquaint interested readers with the history of America’s missile defense programs, provides an overview of the first seventy years of active missile defense. It describes the many ambitious, and often controversial, anti-ballistic missile (ABM) development programs and how they contributed to today’s Ballistic Missile Defense System (BMDS). These developments can be divided into two eras, the first that featured nuclear-armed missiles and the second, the era of the hit-to-kill, nonnuclear type of interceptor that is currently deployed.

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Dawn of the Missile Age—1944

During World War II, United States Army staff planners recognized the need for a defense system against a weapon like the German A-4 (Aggregate-4), later called the V-2 (Vergeltungswaffe Zwei or Revenge Weapon-2), the world’s first ballistic missile, and that available conventional weapons were not capable of combating this threat. The Germans fired their first operational V-2, with a range of about 200 miles, against Great Britain on September 8, 1944. It was not a decisive weapon. It was inaccurate and carried a limited payload; however, by the end of the war more than 1,000 had fallen on Great Britain. They also hit targets in Belgium, France, Luxembourg, and the Netherlands. There was no defense against them, other than bombing or occupying their launch sites.

The Germans attempted to improve the V-2 through redesign and innovation. They produced a 466-mile extended-range, modified-winged version, the A-4B, which was intended to glide to its target after the engine’s power cutoff. Although the A-4B reached the flight test stage in January 1945, it never became operational.

A larger version of the V-2 called the A-9 also was conceived, but never built. It was expected to have a 375-mile range and also would glide to its target. One version of the missile included a pressurized cabin for a pilot who would have dropped the warhead on its target and returned to base using a retractable landing gear.

In 1944, the Germans developed plans to attack targets in the United States with V-2s. One plan, Project Laffarenz, conceived of employing Germany’s latest Type XXI snorkel-equipped U-Boats to tow three V-2s, each in special displacement containers, across the Atlantic within striking range of the American coast. The containers, equipped with special ballast cells, would be trimmed to neutral buoyancy and towed to the launch location by the submarines. The cells would be flooded to elevate the container
into a vertical or angular position and held there by special stabilizers. The U-boat would then pump fuel into the V-2 and fire the missile. By late 1944, at least one of the containers was reportedly completed at the Baltic port of Elbing, but it was never tested with a live firing.

When the war in Europe ended, Germany’s most ambitious plan to surpass the V-2 involved an intercontinental-range missile still on the drawing board. It was a two-stage, 3,350-mile range missile called the A-9/A-10. The first stage A-10 booster would have separated at about a 110-mile altitude and been recovered with the aid of special parachutes. The second stage A-9 would then have continued under its own power to an altitude of about 215 miles before descending to 28 miles, where the density of the air would have permitted its wing controls to guide it on its final glide path to the target. The Germans also considered using a manned A-9 version, in which a pilot would have steered the missile on its final glide path, then ejected and parachuted to safety as the missile slowed down and neared its target.

Some Germans believed that had the war lasted another six months, they would have been able to produce the A-9/A-10 and strike targets in the United States, such as New York City. Some also believed that if the war had lasted another two years, they could have developed a 15,000-mile range intercontinental ballistic missile (ICBM). The implications for the future were clear. While longer-range ballistic missiles might not be decisive weapons, they would pose a serious military and terror threat.

First Missile Defense “Architecture”—1945

On May 14, 1945, a week after the war in Europe ended, U.S. Army Brigadier General William A. Borden, Director of the Army Staff’s New Developments Division, assigned a team of officers to study Allied efforts at countering the V-2. They went to Europe to investigate any techniques to detect, track, and destroy V-2 missiles, particularly the use of predicted or barrage antiaircraft artillery fire against V-2s. They found the British had devised several operational concepts for defending London against V-2 attacks, using radars to detect V-2 launches, applying updated data to grid coordinates to plot and determine the missiles’ trajectories, and then, at the proper moment using a massive antiaircraft artillery barrage to destroy a small percentage of the incoming V-2s.

General Sir Frederick Pile, chief of Britain’s Anti-Aircraft Command, estimated it would have taken about 12,000 antiaircraft rounds to destroy one V-2 with existing means. He believed his defense initially could have destroyed between three and ten percent of attacking V-2s, and would have improved capability over time. However, the Allies overran the V-2 launch sites before he could try out his defense system, and his superiors were reluctant to let him test it unless it offered a better success rate.

General Pile’s plan had significant practical limitations, including an incredibly short reaction time and an enormous expenditure of antiaircraft artillery, but it marked a significant starting point in coming to grips with the tremendous challenges of missile defense. It is especially noteworthy that his command developed a workable missile defense concept in the middle of a war using available weapons and equipment. In retrospect, his vision to seek an initial missile defense capability, and build upon it in the face of seemingly impossible odds, represented an innovative if controversial approach to missile defense.

Origins of the U.S. Missile Defense Program—1945

A U.S. Army Ground Forces Equipment Review Board, headed by Major General Gilbert R. Cook, first recognized the need to develop a means of defending against ballistic missiles with more advanced weaponry than conventional antiaircraft artillery. On June 20, 1945, the Cook Board submitted its report on equipment for the postwar Army that recommended: “High velocity guided missiles, preferably capable of intercepting and destroying aircraft flying at speeds up to 1,000 miles per hour at altitudes up to 60,000 feet or destroying missiles of the V-2 type, should be developed at earliest
practicable date.” When General Borden’s team of officers submitted their report on July 4, 1945, they recommended a development program to defend against “V-2 type missiles” and suggested exploring all possible countermeasures for missile defense, “particularly the use of guided counter-missiles.” Yet, neither the Cook Board nor Borden’s team of officers could have anticipated that the atomic bombing of Hiroshima on August 6, 1945, would dramatically alter the calculus for missile defense as the possibilities of an atomic-armed ballistic missile quickly became apparent.

General of the Army Henry H. Arnold, Commanding General, U.S. Army Air Forces (USAAF), was in a pivotal position to influence a decision on missile defense as his service developed and produced surface-to-air guided missiles for the Army. Although the technical challenges and costs of missile defense were clearly formidable, he championed the cause of seeking a missile defense capability in his comprehensive November 1945 report on airpower and the future, which noted: “Although there now appear to be insurmountable difficulties in an active defense against future atomic projectiles similar to the German V-2 but armed with atomic explosives, this condition should only intensify our efforts to discover an effective means of defense.”

The following month, an Army Air Forces Scientific Advisory Group study called “Toward New Horizons,” reflected General Arnold’s vision for a future Air Force and endorsed seeking an active missile defense solution. The multipart study suggested the possibility of using atomic-armed missile interceptors, and kinetic energy, or hit-to-kill missile interceptors, among several missile defense possibilities.

A January 1946 War Department Equipment Board report concurred with the earlier findings on missile defense. Headed by U.S. Army General Joseph W. Stilwell, the Stilwell Board recognized that “intercontinental missiles capable of carrying atomic explosive over a range in excess of 3,000 miles, are probable within the predictable future,” and recommended developing an antiaircraft missile that could intercept and destroy both high-performance aircraft and V-2 type ballistic missiles. The next step was to begin developing such a missile.

**Projects Wizard and Thumper—1946**

In March 1946, the USAAF initiated two study programs, Projects Wizard (MX-794) and Thumper (MX-795), to undertake a basic design for an antiballistic missile (ABM). The ABM was to operate at altitudes up to 500,000 feet against V-2 type missiles traveling between 4,000 and 5,000 miles per hour. Later, both programs broadened to include all supersonic targets flying above 60,000 feet. Initially, Wizard and Thumper planners envisioned designs for two-stage, liquid-fuel interceptors armed with conventional blast fragmentation warheads. Thumper had the distinction of using the World War II German Wasserfall antiaircraft guided missile as the basis for its design with the possibility of later adopting an atomic warhead. These ambitious programs were significant for being the first efforts focused on seeking an active missile defense solution.

In 1947, the USAAF, which became the U.S. Air Force that year, reviewed Projects Wizard and Thumper, and recognized the complex technical challenges of developing an ABM system; a task they assessed would take at least five to ten years. They determined: “If these missile programs as such are supported to the maximum intelligent extent, the financial drain on the AAF program would be such as to seriously compromise the development of all other types of missiles.” As a result, the Air Force subsequently combined its two ABM programs, closing Thumper in 1949, and consolidating its findings in the Wizard program, which continued on a long-term study basis.

**Theater Missile Defense Gets Under Way—1949**

While the Air Force worked on its interceptor concept, the Army established a formal requirement for a theater ABM system in 1949. This requirement led to Project Plato in the early 1950s, the Army’s first effort to develop such a system. Ever-changing
requirements eventually led to Plato’s replacement by a succession of systems that included the Field Army Ballistic Missile Defense System (FABMDS), the Army Air Defense System for the 1970s (AADS-70s), which became the Surface-to-Air-Missile—Development (SAM-D). SAM-D was ultimately renamed Phased Array Tracking Radar Intercept On Target (Patriot) in honor of the 1976 U.S. Bicentennial celebration. These systems provided the building blocks for developing a reliable theater ballistic missile defense (BMD) system in more advanced versions of the Patriot.

The Army’s Strategic Missile Defense Mission – 1958

As the Cold War unfolded after World War II, America determined that it faced a hostile and expansionist Soviet Union. The growing threat of Soviet long-range missiles in the 1950s posed an unprecedented challenge to defending America against attack. In 1955, intelligence reports of an impending Soviet ICBM threat spurred the Department of Defense to launch a major ballistic missile development program to match the Soviets. Several redundant, high-priority offensive missile programs were mounted by the Army, Navy, and Air Force, which blurred distinctions among the services’ roles and missions. It was in this environment that the Army sought to compete with the Air Force’s Project Wizard for a role in strategic missile defense.

The Army had been developing several air defense missiles since the end of World War II and used this experience to initiate development in February 1957 of the nuclear-capable Nike Zeus ABM interceptor. Nike Zeus was intended to be part of an integrated defense system, which included advanced radars for acquisition and tracking and battle management communications equipment that would protect U.S. cities. From the outset, the Nike Zeus program’s shortcomings and potential high costs made it a focal point of criticism and debate, notably from the Air Force and the scientific community. In the midst of this growing controversy, the Soviet Union announced a successful test flight of an SS-16 ICBM in August 1957; and on October 4, 1957, the Soviets launched Sputnik, the world’s first artificial satellite. These catalytic events heightened concerns about American vulnerabilities to a Soviet ICBM attack and created a political environment more supportive of developing and fielding an ABM system.

By early 1958, the Army and Air Force rivalry over dominance of the strategic missile defense program led Defense Secretary Neil H. McElroy to settle the dispute. On January 16, 1958, he assigned the active strategic defense mission to the Army. Later that month, a National Security Council position paper on continental defense, NSC 5802, called for “an anti-ICBM weapons system as a matter of the highest national priority.”

Project Defender – 1958

Secretary McElroy also established the Advanced Research Projects Agency (ARPA) in early 1958 to identify new means for advancing defense capabilities. In missile defense, ARPA’s Project Defender, took an unconventional, far-sighted approach to the perplexing problems anticipated from a mature Soviet ICBM threat in the 1970s. As one ARPA official put it, researchers were encouraged “to forget about present engineering limitations and let their scientific imaginations roam wide and high.” Project Defender looked beyond the capabilities of Nike Zeus and examined all phases of BMD, including the use of space-based, hit-to-kill interceptors to destroy attacking missiles during their boost phase. Collectively, these interceptor concepts were known as BAMBI, for Ballistic Missile Boost Intercept. Despite its unconventional and
exotic approaches to missile defense, however, Project Defender’s recommendations had to be technically feasible and economically practical in meeting threats that might evolve far in the future.

The Nike-X ABM System – 1963

The October 1962 Cuban Missile Crisis brought the United States and Soviet Union close to the brink of nuclear war when the Soviets, lacking an effective ICBM capability, placed medium- and intermediate-range ballistic missiles in Cuba to threaten the continental United States. The crisis inadvertently provided an impetus to the Soviets, who were forced to back down and withdraw the missiles, to aggressively improve their ICBM program.

Although Nike Zeus tests in 1962 demonstrated the system’s ability to intercept enemy warheads, by early 1963, its technical and operational shortcomings scuttled it as a viable ABM system. Notable among these was the inability of the mechanically steered Nike Zeus acquisition radars to cope with the type of massive Soviet attack envisioned for the 1960s, and the inability of the system to adequately discriminate between warheads and decoys. Consequently, in January 1963, the Defense Department reoriented its ABM efforts in an improved and more robust system called Nike-X.

Initially, the key components of the Nike-X ABM system included a new family of advanced phased-array radars that could detect and track a large number of objects simultaneously; a new nuclear-armed, high-acceleration, terminal defense missile called the Sprint, which made possible the use of atmospheric filtering to discriminate between decoys and warheads; and the longer-range Nike Zeus interceptor, which was subsequently modified and renamed Spartan, for high altitude targets. Together, the two interceptors promised a potential layered defense for intercepting enemy warheads within and above the atmosphere.

The decision to develop Nike-X coincided with intelligence reports that the Soviets were developing an ABM capability that could be operational by 1966. President Lyndon B. Johnson and Defense Secretary Robert S. McNamara believed the best way to counter the deployment of a Soviet ABM system was through an arms control agreement or by overcoming it with offensive weapons. They resisted calls from members of the Joint Chiefs of Staff and members of Congress to match the Soviets and deploy the Nike-X ABM system, which they believed would have fueled a new and expensive arms race, until a different potential ballistic missile threat emerged.

Following the detonation in October 1964 of Communist China’s first atomic explosive, the debate over a Nike-X ABM system deployment began shifting in favor of a limited, or thin, ABM deployment to counter China instead of a heavy ABM deployment to counter the Soviets.

Sentinel, SABMIS and ABMIS–1967

In 1967, Secretary McNamara settled the debate over deploying the Nike-X ABM system. The failure of the Johnson Administration to reach an arms control agreement with the Soviets in June 1967, and China’s detonation of its first hydrogen bomb that month, influenced Secretary McNamara to announce the deployment of a thin anti-Chinese ABM system based on the Nike-X system in September 1967. In November, he subsequently announced that the new ABM system would be renamed Sentinel.

In 1967, the Navy and Air Force also developed ABM system concepts. The Navy examined a midcourse ABM system concept called the Sea-Based Anti-Ballistic Missile
The Intercept System (SABMIS), which envisioned employing radars and interceptors mounted on surface vessels and interceptors on submarines. These vessels would have been deployed in the Northwestern Pacific and the North Atlantic to protect the continental United States from Soviet or Chinese attack, as well as helping defend America’s allies from off-shore positions.

The Air Force had a similar concept called the Airborne Ballistic Missile Intercept System (ABMIS), which would have been used against low-trajectory attacks from submarine-launched ballistic missiles. ABMIS envisioned radars and interceptors mounted on specially equipped aircraft, such as the C-5A, on around-the-clock patrols adjacent to major cities overseas.

Sentinel Controversy—1968

In June 1968, the Johnson Administration and its Senate supporters began shifting the justification for the Sentinel ABM system away from its “thin” urban defense against Chinese missiles and expanded its orientation towards defense of land-based ICBMs and a “thick” ABM system to save American lives against a large-scale Soviet attack. The shift coincided with a Soviet agreement to begin long-sought arms control negotiations and reflected the political viability of the Sentinel system as a potential arms control “bargaining chip” with the Soviets. This shift in rationale, however, fueled debate, criticism and confusion over the intended purpose of the Sentinel system, which became a topic of increasing controversy.

President Nixon Reorients Missile Defense—1969

In 1969, President Richard M. Nixon, responding partly to the public backlash over locating nuclear-armed missiles near urban areas, reoriented the Sentinel ABM system away from urban defense to protecting the nation’s strategic deterrent silo-based Minuteman ICBMs against a Soviet attack. Emphasizing this reorientation, President Nixon renamed the system Safeguard. Although controversy continued over deploying the ABM system, Safeguard became an important “bargaining chip” during recently initiated arms control negotiations with the Soviets, the Strategic Arms Limitation Talks (SALT). Initially, there were to have been up to twelve Safeguard sites deployed in phases depending upon how well talks with the Soviets proceeded.

The Anti-Ballistic Missile Treaty—1972

In May 1972, arms control talks with the Soviets produced the Anti-Ballistic Missile (ABM) Treaty, which restricted the deployment of any strategic space-based, sea-based, or mobile ABM systems, such as SABMIS and ABMIS. The treaty allowed each side only two fixed missile defense sites: one to defend national command authorities, and one to defend a missile field, with no more than 100 total interceptors for both sites. A 1974 protocol subsequently reduced the number of sites to one, still allowing each to have up to 100 interceptors. Since the United States was already deploying Safeguard to protect an ICBM field at Grand Forks Air Force Base in North Dakota, this was the only U.S. ABM site allowed until June 2002, when the U.S. withdrew from the ABM Treaty.

Safeguard’s Deployment—1975-1976

Having served its purpose as a political bargaining chip, the Safeguard site at Grand Forks was only operational from October 1975 to February 1976. The site was closed at the direction of Congress because it could be easily overwhelmed by a Soviet attack, and because it had a major technical problem: the detonation of its nuclear-armed warheads would blind its own radars.

The Homing Overlay Experiment—1983-1984

By the late 1970s, the continued growth in the quantity and quality of Soviet ICBMs, which included impressive accuracy improvements in the SS-18 missile, threatened the survivability of U.S. land-based ICBMs. At the same time, the United States was
unable to find a politically acceptable, secure basing mode for its next generation ICBM, the MX. These circumstances prompted U.S. strategic planners to revisit the possibilities of deploying a missile defense system for its land-based ICBM force with nonnuclear interceptors.

The Army had been working on developing a nonnuclear hit-to-kill interceptor prior to the deployment of Safeguards. It held a series of tests in 1983 and 1984 called the Homing Overlay Experiment (HOE) to demonstrate this capability. On June 10, 1984, in the last of four tests, a HOE vehicle successfully intercepted a dummy warhead outside the atmosphere in the first successful demonstration of hit-to-kill technology in space.

Directed Energy and Missile Defense—1980

While the Army continued its BMD research and development, ARPA’s successor, the Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency (DARPA), formed the Directed Energy Office in 1980 to exploit newly emerging laser and particle beam technologies for applications that included BMD. The office initiated the space defense TRIAD program, composed of three separate research projects, with an objective of determining the feasibility by 1988 of developing a space-based laser battle station that could target Soviet ICBM launch sites. DARPA also envisioned possible ground-based and space-based particle beam weapons for terminal defense and boost or midcourse defense, respectively.

President Reagan Launches the Strategic Defense Initiative—1983

President Ronald W. Reagan desired a strategic alternative to the national security policy of nuclear deterrence and mutual assured destruction that left America defenseless against Soviet missile attacks. At the same time, U.S. land-based ICBMs were growing more vulnerable to a Soviet first strike, and the United States was unable to satisfactorily field the MX (renamed “Peacekeeper”) missile. These factors influenced the Joint Chiefs of Staff in February 1983 to unanimously recommend that the president begin pursuing a national security strategy with an increased emphasis on strategic defenses. In concert with the Joint Chief’s recommendation, several prominent missile defense advocates had been persuading the president to embrace strategic defense; these included physicist Edward Teller, known as the “Father of the Hydrogen Bomb,” and retired U.S. Army Lieutenant General Daniel O. Graham, who headed High Frontier, a citizen’s organization dedicated to leading the U.S. toward a secure future in space. Consequently, on March 23, 1983, President Reagan announced his decision in a nationally televised speech to launch a major new program, the Strategic Defense Initiative (SDI), to determine whether or not missile defenses were technically feasible.

An unexpected consequence of President Reagan’s SDI speech occurred the following day when the Washington Post quoted a critical comment from Senator Edward M. Kennedy of Massachusetts, who labeled the speech as “reckless Star Wars schemes.” The term “Star Wars” derived from the science fiction film of the same name and had been used previously in references to various exotic Pentagon space weaponry projects. Senator Kennedy’s remark, however, gave the term new meaning and SDI became widely identified thereafter as “Star Wars.”

The Strategic Defense Initiative Organization—1984

In April 1984, following a year of studies, the Defense Department chartered the Strategic Defense Initiative Organization (SDIO). Headed by U.S. Air Force Lieutenant General James A. Abrahamson, SDIO managed a consolidated and expanded missile defense program that was created largely by combining existing projects under way in several government agencies. Ultimately, SDIO’s programs, which included plans for space-based missile defenses, would have required altering or possibly withdrawing from the ABM Treaty.

The Strategic Defense System Phase I Architecture—1987

By the autumn of 1987, SDIO had developed a national missile defense concept called the Strategic Defense System (SDS) Phase I Architecture, composed of a space-based interceptor; a ground-based interceptor; a ground-based sensor; two space-based sensors; and a battle management system. Using hit-to-kill interceptors, the architecture’s goal was to destroy a given percentage of warheads in a massive Soviet missile attack against the United States, while improvements in its later phases
would increase the system’s operational effectiveness. From the outset, however, the architecture fueled controversy since its adoption would require withdrawing from the ABM Treaty, and because its space-based component had two major shortcomings: its expense, and vulnerability to Soviet antisatellite weapons.

Brilliant Pebbles—1990

In 1990, a new hit-to-kill interceptor concept called Brilliant Pebbles offered potential solutions to the space-based interceptor’s cost and survivability issues. Brilliant Pebbles was based on many small, autonomous, space-based interceptors and replaced the original space-based interceptor concept in the SDS Phase I architecture.

Global Protection Against Limited Strikes—1991

The improvement of SDIO’s Phase I architecture with Brilliant Pebbles coincided with a shift in strategic planning. Following the opening of the Berlin Wall in November 1989, which signaled the ending of the Cold War, President George H.W. Bush ordered a review of the SDI program. The review, completed in March 1990, recommended reorienting the program to develop strategic defenses against limited attacks on the United States and theater defense against attacks by short-range ballistic missiles on overseas forces.

The president formally announced this new system, Global Protection Against Limited Strikes (GPALS), in his January 1991 State of the Union Address. Its principal goal was to defend America against limited missile attacks and protect deployed United States forces and America’s friends and allies against shorter-range ballistic missiles. GPALS was an integrated architecture with three components: a global, space-based system of Brilliant Pebbles interceptors; a force of ground- and sea-based theater missile defenses; and a limited, ground-based national missile defense element.

President Clinton Reorients Missile Defense—1993

The trend toward greater emphasis on Theater Missile Defense (TMD) in this new architecture continued into the presidency of William J. Clinton, who emphasized compliance with the ABM Treaty. The Clinton Administration broke up the GPALS architecture into separate components, cancelled the Brilliant Pebbles program, and changed the name of SDIO to the Ballistic Missile Defense Organization (BMDO) in May 1993 as a reflection of the program’s reorientation. The name change became official in June 1994.

The Theater Missile Defense portion of BMDO encompassed several Army, Navy, and Air Force programs. These included improvements in the Army’s PATRIOT missile, known as PATRIOT Advanced Capability-3, or PAC-3; and a new Army missile initially known as the Theater High Altitude Area Defense, or THAAD. Also included were the Air Force’s Airborne Laser project; and the lower-tier Navy Area Defense and upper-tier Navy Theater Wide programs, both of which were based upon significant modifications to the shipborne Aegis air defense system and Standard Missile (SM) interceptor.

By 1996, new intelligence estimates of ballistic missile threats to America, and a Republican-controlled Congress, gave a new impetus to strategic missile defense, now called National Missile Defense (NMD). By the end of President Clinton’s second term, NMD overshadowed Theater Missile Defense as Congress pressed the president to deploy an NMD system with implications for altering the ABM Treaty. Consequently, in July 1999, President Clinton signed the National Missile Defense Act of 1999, which made it “the policy of the United States to deploy as soon as is technologically possible an effective National Missile Defense system capable of defending the territory of the United States against limited ballistic missile attack (whether accidental, unauthorized or deliberate).” The president had four criteria for making a deployment decision: the NMD system had to be operationally effective, cost-effective, enhance U.S. security,
and be in accordance with achieving arms control objectives, which included amending the ABM Treaty to accommodate a possible NMD deployment. On September 1, 2000, however, he announced that he would defer a deployment decision to his successor following a series of missile defense test failures, delays in some program elements, and a new wave of controversy over deploying an NMD system that included debate on altering the ABM Treaty.

President Bush Reorients Missile Defense—2001

Upon taking office in 2001, President George W. Bush brought to his presidency a strong commitment to deploying missile defense in the shortest possible time. On December 13, 2001, he gave Russia the six-month notice of U.S. intent to withdraw from the ABM Treaty, which became effective on June 13, 2002. Subsequently, on December 17, 2002, he issued a statement announcing the national policy on ballistic missile defense that required the Secretary of Defense to “proceed with fielding an initial set of missile defense capabilities” in 2004.

Under President Bush’s leadership, Defense Secretary Donald H. Rumsfeld and BMDO Director, U.S. Air Force Lieutenant General Ronald T. Kadish, reoriented the missile defense program with a concept for an integrated, layered defense that would be capable of attacking warheads and missiles in all phases of their flight—boost, midcourse, and terminal—and was expected to eventually provide global defenses against missiles of all ranges. As a reflection of these changes Secretary Rumsfeld issued a January 2, 2002 memorandum changing the name of BMDO to the Missile Defense Agency (MDA).

By the end of 2004, sixty years after the first V-2 missiles struck Great Britain, MDA, under the leadership of its new director, U.S. Air Force Lieutenant General Henry A. “Trey” Obering, III, began limited defensive operations of its Ballistic Missile Defense System (BMDS) after deploying five long-range Ground-based Midcourse Defense (GMD) interceptors at Fort Greely, Alaska. Together with the PAC-3 interceptor for short-range BMD, and the Aegis SM-3 for medium-range BMD, for protecting deployed United States forces, friends and allies, the GMD interceptors enabled midcourse engagement of intermediate- and intercontinental-range ballistic missiles, and a limited defense of the United States against near-term ballistic missile threats as the BMDS continued development.

Missile Defense Under the Obama Administration

One of the first efforts of the new Barack Obama Administration in 2009 was to hold a first-ever Ballistic Missile Defense Review. Early into his first term, President Obama cancelled former President George W. Bush’s plans to station a radar facility in the Czech Republic and 10 ground-based interceptors in Poland. Instead, he planned to deploy smaller SM-3 interceptors by 2011, first aboard ships and later in Europe, possibly even in Poland and the Czech Republic.

European Phased Adaptive Approach (EPAA)

On September 17, 2009, President Obama announced that the U.S. would pursue a “Phased Adaptive Approach” to missile defense in Europe. The new approach centered on the Aegis missile defense system and was to be deployed in four main phases from 2011 to 2020. This system, initially sea-based, was to be also based on land as “Aegis-Ashore” in later phases. The Standard Missile-3 (SM-3) interceptor technology was also to be upgraded gradually, and the system was to be integrated with an evolving network of land and space-based sensors.

The EPAA was designed to deal with the threat posed by Iranian short-and intermediate-range ballistic missiles to U.S. assets, personnel and allies in Europe. This new direction for European missile defense broke with the plans pursued by the Bush Administration. The Bush plans had called for deployment of a ground-based missile defense system in Europe, similar to the system deployed in California and
Alaska. This included bilateral agreements to station ground-based interceptors in Poland and a radar installation in the Czech Republic.

At the NATO Lisbon Summit in 2010, President Obama and his fellow NATO heads of state and government approved a new strategic concept which took the historic step of committing to the defense of European NATO populations and territory against the growing threat of ballistic missiles.

Probably the highlight of U.S. Army Lieutenant General Patrick J. O’Reilly’s tenure as the Director of the Missile Defense Agency, (2008-2012) was the conduct of Flight Test Interceptor-01 (FTI-01) at the U.S. Army Kwajalein Atoll (USAKA/Reagan Test Site) in October 2012. Testifying before a Senate Appropriations Committee on April 18, 2012, General O’Reilly told the committee that MDA “will conduct the largest missile defense test in history involving the first simultaneous intercept of multiple short and medium-range ballistic missiles and cruise missiles by PATRIOT Advanced Capability-3, Terminal High Altitude Area Defense (THAAD), and Aegis BMD systems, integrated with a forward-based radar.”

General O’Reilly’s testimony became a reality when FTI-01 commenced at Kwajalein on October 25, 2012. It was held to demonstrate regional Ballistic Missile Defense System (BMDS) ability to defend a raid of up to five near-simultaneous threats in an operationally realistic scenario. FTI-01 was a combined Developmental Test/Operational Test of BMDS regional/theater, integrated operations. The exercise was an unprecedented integrated, system-level, live-fire event that was conducted at Kwajalein. It demonstrated interoperability among three currently fielded weapons platforms: Aegis Ballistic Missile Defense (BMD), THAAD, the AN/TPY-2 Terminal Mode, and the PATRIOT. Representative threats for the exercise included three ballistic missiles and two air-breathing (cruise missile) targets. Targets were flown at multiple ranges and trajectories in an operationally realistic scenario. The engagement scenario was as follows: FTI-01 began with the launch of a medium-range ballistic missile, E-LRALT (Extended Long Range Launched Target). A USAF C-17 airdropped the E-LRALT over the ocean north of Wake Island. The BMDS radars, including the AN/TPY-2 detected and tracked the E-LRALT providing information to C2BMC. An MQM-107 (cruise missile) launched from Roi-Namur Island (Marshall Islands) on an attack run towards Meck Island (Marshall Islands). A BQM-74E (cruise missile) dropped from a Gulfstream aircraft and initiated an attack run towards an Aegis destroyer, the USS Fitzgerald (DDG 62). Following the BQM-74E launch, an Aegis Readiness Assessment Vehicle (ARAV)-B, representing a short-range ballistic missile, launched from Wake Island. The Aegis destroyer detected and tracked the ARAV-B with its onboard AN/SPY-1 radar. The THAAD system, located on Meck Island, detected, tracked, developed a fire-control solution, and engaged the E-LRALT with a THAAD interceptor. The USS Fitzgerald tracked the ARAV-B, developed a fire-control solution, and engaged the target with a SM-3 Block 1A missile.

On Meck Island, PATRIOT radar, command and control systems detected and tracked the MQM-107, engaging it with a PATRIOT interceptor, launched from PATRIOT’s on nearby Omeleck Island (Marshall Islands). A short time later, the Aegis BMD ship engaged and intercepted the BQM-74E with an SM-2 Block IIIA missile. Lastly, the third ballistic target, a short-range ballistic missile, launched from a mobile platform located in the broad ocean area northeast of Kwajalein. The Meck/Omeleck PATRIOT emplacement detected, tracked, and engaged the SRBM target with a second PATRIOT intercept.

**Threats from Iran and North Korea**

As President Obama began his second term in January 2013, new threats emerged on the horizon from both Iran and North Korea. North Korea’s young, new ruler, Kim Jong-un, son of the late Kim Jong-il, became increasingly bellicose in threats made against the United States and the Republic of Korea. Events leading up to this bellicosity began in 2011, when North Korea completed a 10-year construction project at Sohae Satellite Launching Station. The new base included a movable launch pad and a 10-story tall tower exceeding the needs of North Korea’s largest ballistic missile and space launch vehicles. The base was comprised of several missile assembly and testing structures, a launch warehouse, and observation tower, and
a rocket engine test pad. The site far outpaced North Korea’s Toghae facility, where it tested short-range, medium-range, and intercontinental missiles.

On December 12, 2012, just one month prior to President Obama’s second inaugural, North Korea re-tested its Unha-3 (“Milky Way 3”) rocket from Sohae launching facility, successfully putting a satellite in orbit. While North Korea referred to its rocket as a space launch vehicle, the technology was very similar to that of a long-range missile. With minor changes to allow for re-entry, Pyongyang could deliver a WMD payload. In February 2013, North Korea declared it had miniaturized a nuclear warhead and also put on display what appeared to be a road-mobile ICBM. In March 2013, North Korea fired two short-range missiles, tests which appeared to be in response to annual U.S.-ROK military exercises. North Korea’s sudden and unexpected advances caught the U.S. off-guard. A statement released by the Center for Strategic and International Studies noted that “After North Korea’s successful December 2012 [orbital] launch and third nuclear test, threats are not completely empty.”

It was those threats that prompted President Obama, in his State of the Union Address in February 2013 to specifically refer to the U.S. Ballistic Missile Defense System:

“America will continue to lead the effort to prevent the spread of the world’s most dangerous weapons. The regime of North Korea must know that they will only achieve security and prosperity by meeting their international obligations. Provocations of the sort we saw last night will only isolate them further, as we stand by our allies, strengthen our own missile defense, and lead the world in taking firm action in response to these threats.”

On March 15, 2013, Secretary of Defense Chuck Hagel held a news conference at the Pentagon and announced the Obama Administration’s decision to reinstate 14 ground-based interceptors which it reduced in its first term, to Ft. Greely, Alaska and Vandenberg AFB, California (for a grand total of 44) by the year 2017. An additional AN/TPY-2 forward-based radar would be placed in Japan, and the administration would continue to move forward with an environmental study of a third U.S. missile defense site, as well as the restructuring of the future SM-3 Block IIB missile program that was originally scheduled for European deployment in 2020. The restructuring of the SM-3 Block IIB program will result in greater support for a new and enhanced kill vehicle for the modernization of missile defense interceptors.

Iran’s continued efforts to develop nuclear capabilities and long-range ballistic missiles were not as advanced as those of North Korea. However, as with the case of North Korea, the gravest threat from Iran was the possible confluence of future nuclear capability with ballistic missile technology. Iran has the largest ballistic missile inventory in the Middle East. It has a modified Shahab 3 medium-range ballistic missile to extend its claimed range of some 2,000 kilometers.

On January 26, 2013, the Missile Defense Agency successfully completed a flight test of a three-stage Ground-Based Interceptor (GBI), launched from Vandenberg AFB, California. This event was designated Ground-Based Midcourse Defense Control Test Vehicle (GM CTV)-01. Data from this flight test was used to evaluate the Exoatmospheric Kill Vehicle system performance in a flight environment. If a target were present, the Exoatmospheric Kill Vehicle would collide directly with the threat warhead to perform a hit-to-kill intercept. A target missile launch was not planned for this flight test. After performing fly out maneuvers, the three-stage booster deployed the Exoatmospheric Kill Vehicle executed a variety of pre-planned maneuvers to collect performance data in space. Flight test results show that all components performed as designed. In the aftermath of the test, the new MDA Director, VADM James Syring, sent out a congratulatory message to the personnel of the MDA, which read in part, “Today, I especially want to thank those responsible for making CTV-01 flight test mission a reality. . .Your success and its importance to our GMD return to flight test campaign cannot be overstated.”

On February 13, 2013, a unitary medium-range ballistic missile target was launched from the Pacific Missile Range Facility, Hawaii. The target flew northwest towards a broad ocean area of the Pacific. The in-orbit Space Tracking and Surveillance System-Demonstrators (STSS-D) detected and tracked the target, and forwarded the track data back to the USS Lake Erie. The ship, equipped with the second-generation Aegis BMD
weapons system, used Launch on Remote doctrine to engage the target. The ship developed a fire control solution from the STSS-D track and launched the SM-3 Block 1A guided missile approximately five minutes after the target launch. The SM-3 maneuvered to a point in space and released its kinetic warhead. The kinetic warhead acquired the target reentry vehicle, diverted into its path, and using only the force of a direct impact, engaged and destroyed the target. This event was designated Flight Test Standard Missile-20 (FTM-20), the “Stellar Eyes” mission, and demonstrated the ability of space-based assets to provide mid-course fire control quality data on an Aegis BMD ship, extending the battlespace, providing the ability for longer range intercept and defense of larger areas.

From its establishment in early 2002 to the present, the Missile Defense Agency has fielded a Ballistic Missile Defense System of an integrated “layered” architecture that provides multiple opportunities to destroy missiles and their warheads before they can reach their targets. The system’s architecture includes: networked sensors and ground-and sea-based radars for target detection and tracking; ground-and sea-based interceptor missiles for destroying a ballistic missile using either the force of a direct collision, called “hit-to-kill” technology, or an explosive blast fragmentation warhead; and a command, control, battle management, and communications network that provides the warfighter with the needed links between the sensors and interceptor missiles.

The United States is developing increasingly proven, comprehensive, and integrated missile defenses. If hostilities break out, missile defenses can protect U.S. and allied critical infrastructure, population centers, and military capabilities for responsive operations. Over the next decade, the Missile Defense Agency will continue to execute a program that builds on the technological and engineering achievements of the past and will continue to perform a vital role in our national defense strategy.