China Naval Modernization: Implications for U.S. Navy Capabilities—Background and Issues for Congress

Updated October 19, 2023
China Naval Modernization: Implications for U.S. Navy Capabilities

Summary

China’s military modernization effort, including its naval modernization effort, is the top focus of U.S. defense planning and budgeting. China’s naval modernization effort has been underway for about 30 years, since the early to mid-1990s, and has transformed China’s navy into a much more modern and capable force. China’s navy is a formidable military force within China’s near-seas region, and it is conducting a growing number of operations in the broader waters of the Western Pacific, the Indian Ocean, and waters around Europe.

China’s navy is, by far, the largest of any country in East Asia, and sometime between 2015 and 2020 it surpassed the U.S. Navy in numbers of battle force ships. DOD states that China’s navy “is the largest navy in the world with a battle force of over 370 platforms, including major surface combatants, submarines, ocean-going amphibious ships, mine warfare ships, aircraft carriers, and fleet auxiliaries. Notably, this figure does not include approximately 60 HOUBEI-class patrol combatants that carry anti-ship cruise missiles (ASCM). The overall battle force [of China’s navy] is expected to grow to 395 ships by 2025 and 435 ships by 2030.” The U.S. Navy, by comparison, included 291 battle force ships as of October 19, 2023, and the Navy’s FY2024 budget submission projects that the Navy will include 290 battle force ships by the end of FY2030. U.S. military officials and other observers are expressing concern or alarm regarding the pace of China’s naval shipbuilding effort, the capacity of China’s shipbuilding industry compared with the capacity of the U.S. shipbuilding industry, and resulting trend lines regarding the relative sizes and capabilities of China’s navy and the U.S. Navy.

China’s naval modernization effort encompasses a wide array of ship, aircraft, weapon, and C4ISR (command and control, communications, computers, intelligence, surveillance, and reconnaissance) acquisition programs, as well as improvements in logistics, doctrine, personnel quality, education and training, and exercises. China’s navy currently has certain limitations and weaknesses, which it is working to overcome.

China’s military modernization effort, including its naval modernization effort, is assessed as being aimed at developing capabilities for, among other things, addressing the situation with Taiwan militarily, if need be; achieving a greater degree of control or domination over China’s near-seas region, particularly the South China Sea; defending China’s commercial sea lines of communication (SLOCs), particularly those linking China to the Persian Gulf; displacing U.S. influence in the Western Pacific; and asserting China’s status as the leading regional power and a major world power. Observers believe China wants its navy to be capable of acting as part of an anti-access/area-denial (A2/AD) force—a force that can deter U.S. intervention in a conflict in China’s near-seas region over Taiwan or some other issue, or failing that, delay the arrival or reduce the effectiveness of intervening U.S. forces.

The U.S. Navy has taken a number of actions to counter China’s naval modernization effort. Among other things, the U.S. Navy has shifted a greater percentage of its fleet to the Pacific; assigned its most-capable new ships and aircraft to the Pacific; maintained or increased general presence operations, training and developmental exercises, and engagement and cooperation with allied and other navies in the Indo-Pacific; increased the planned future size of the Navy; initiated, increased, or accelerated numerous programs for developing new military technologies and acquiring new ships, aircraft, unmanned vehicles, and weapons; developed new operational concepts for countering Chinese maritime A2/AD forces; and signaled that the Navy in coming years will shift to a more-distributed fleet architecture that will feature a substantially greater use of unmanned vehicles. The issue for Congress is whether to approve, reject, or modify the Biden Administration’s proposed U.S. Navy plans, budgets, and programs for responding to China’s naval modernization effort.
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Introduction

Issue for Congress

This report provides background information and issues for Congress on China’s naval modernization effort and its implications for U.S. Navy capabilities. China’s military modernization effort, including its naval modernization effort, is the top focus of U.S. defense planning and budgeting. The issue for Congress is whether to approve, reject, or modify the Biden Administration’s proposed U.S. Navy plans, budgets, and programs for responding to China’s naval modernization effort. Congress’s decisions on this issue could affect U.S. Navy capabilities and funding requirements, and the U.S. defense industrial base.

Sources and Terminology

This report is based on unclassified open-source information, such as the annual Department of Defense (DOD) report to Congress on military and security developments involving China, a 2019 Defense Intelligence Agency (DIA) report on China’s military power, a 2015 Office of Naval Intelligence (ONI) report on China’s navy, published reference sources such as IHS Jane’s Fighting Ships, and press reports.

For convenience, this report uses the term China’s naval modernization effort to refer to the modernization not only of China’s navy, but also of Chinese military forces outside China’s navy that can be used to counter U.S. naval forces operating in the Western Pacific, such as land-based anti-ship ballistic missiles (ASBMs), land-based surface-to-air missiles (SAMs), land-based Air Force aircraft armed with anti-ship cruise missiles (ASCMs), and land-based long-range radars for detecting and tracking ships at sea.

China’s military is formally called the People’s Liberation Army (PLA). Its navy is called the PLA Navy, or PLAN (also abbreviated as PLA[N]), and its air force is called the PLA Air Force, or PLAAF. The PLA Navy includes an air component that is called the PLA Naval Air Force, or PLANAF. China refers to its ballistic missile force as the PLA Rocket Force (PLARF).

This report uses the term China’s near-seas region to refer to the Yellow Sea, East China Sea, and South China Sea—the waters enclosed by the so-called first island chain. The so-called second island chain encloses both these waters and the Philippine Sea that is situated between the Philippines and Guam.

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1 For an overview of China’s military, see CRS Report R46808, China’s Military: The People’s Liberation Army (PLA), by Caitlin Campbell. For more on China’s military modernization effort being the top focus of U.S. defense planning and budgeting, see CRS Report R43838, Great Power Competition: Implications for Defense—Issues for Congress, by Ronald O'Rourke.


5 IHS Jane’s Fighting Ships 2021-2022, and previous editions.

6 For a map showing the first and second island chains, see 2023 DOD CMSD, p. 69.
Background

Brief Overview of China’s Naval Modernization Effort

Key overview points concerning China’s naval modernization effort include the following:

- China’s naval modernization effort, which forms part of a broader Chinese military modernization effort that includes several additional areas of emphasis, has been underway for about 30 years, since the early to mid-1990s, and has transformed China’s navy into a much more modern and capable force.

- China’s navy is a formidable military force within China’s near-seas region, and it is conducting a growing number of operations in more-distant waters, including the broader waters of the Western Pacific, the Indian Ocean, and waters around Europe.

- China’s navy, by far, the largest of any country in East Asia, and as shown in Table 2, sometime between 2015 and 2020, China’s navy surpassed the U.S. Navy in numbers of battle force ships (meaning the types of ships that count toward the quoted size of the U.S. Navy), making China’s navy the numerically largest in the world. DOD states: “The PLAN is the largest navy in the world with a battle force of over 370 platforms, including major surface combatants, submarines, ocean-going amphibious ships, mine warfare ships, aircraft carriers, and fleet auxiliaries. Notably, this figure does not include approximately 60 HOUBEI-class patrol combatants that carry anti-ship cruise missiles (ASCM). The PLAN’s overall battle force is expected to grow to 395 ships by 2025 and 435 ships by 2030. Much of this growth will be in major surface combatants.”

- The U.S. Navy, by comparison, included 291 battle force ships as of October 19, 2023, and the Navy’s FY2024 budget submission projects that the Navy will include 290 battle force ships by the end of FY2030.

- U.S. military officials and other observers are expressing concern or alarm regarding the pace of China’s naval shipbuilding effort, the capacity of China’s shipbuilding industry compared with the capacity of the U.S. shipbuilding industry, and resulting trend lines regarding the relative sizes and capabilities of China’s navy and the U.S. Navy. China’s navy is viewed as posing a major threat to the U.S. and its allies.

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7 Other areas of emphasis in China’s military modernization effort include space capabilities, cyber and electronic warfare capabilities, ballistic missile forces, and aviation forces, as well as the development of emerging military-applicable technologies such as hypersonics, artificial intelligence, robotics and unmanned vehicles, directed-energy technologies, and quantum technologies. For more on China’s military modernization effort in general, see CRS Report R46808, China’s Military: The People’s Liberation Army (PLA), by Caitlin Campbell. For a discussion of advanced military technologies, see CRS In Focus IF11105, Defense Primer: Emerging Technologies, by Kelley M. Sayler. U.S.-China competition in military capabilities in turn forms a dimension of a broader U.S.-China strategic competition that also includes political, diplomatic, economic, technological, and ideological dimensions.

8 2023 DOD CMSD, p. 55. See also 2019 DIA CMP, p. 63.

9 For additional discussion, see CRS Report RL32665, Navy Force Structure and Shipbuilding Plans: Background and Issues for Congress, by Ronald O'Rourke.

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challenge to the U.S. Navy’s ability to achieve and maintain wartime control of blue-water ocean areas in the Western Pacific—the first such challenge the U.S. Navy has faced since the end of the Cold War. China’s navy forms a key element of a Chinese challenge to the long-standing status of the United States as the leading military power in the Western Pacific.

- China’s naval ships, aircraft, and weapons are much more modern and capable than they were at the start of the 1990s, and are comparable in many respects to those of Western navies. DOD states: “Today, the PLAN is largely composed of modern multi-role platforms featuring advanced anti-ship, anti-air, and anti-

submarine weapons and sensors.”11 ONI states that “Chinese naval ship design and material quality is in many cases comparable to [that of] USN [U.S. Navy] ships, and China is quickly closing the gap in any areas of deficiency.”12

- China’s naval modernization effort encompasses a wide array of platform and weapon acquisition programs, including anti-ship ballistic missiles (ASBMs), anti-ship cruise missiles (ASCMs), submarines, surface ships, aircraft, unmanned vehicles (UVs),13 and supporting C4ISR (command and control,

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11 2023 DOD CMSD, p. 53.
China’s military modernization effort, including its naval modernization effort, is assessed as being aimed at developing capabilities for, among other things, addressing the situation with Taiwan militarily, if need be; achieving a greater degree of control or domination over China’s near-seas region, particularly the South China Sea; enforcing China’s view that it has the right to regulate foreign military activities in its 200-mile maritime exclusive economic zone (EEZ); defending China’s commercial sea lines of communication (SLOCs), particularly those linking China to the Persian Gulf; displacing U.S. influence in the Western Pacific; and asserting China’s status as the leading regional power and a major world power. Additional missions for China’s navy include conducting maritime security (including antipiracy) operations, evacuating Chinese nationals from foreign countries when necessary, and conducting humanitarian assistance/disaster response (HA/DR) operations.

- Observers believe China wants its navy to be capable of acting as part of an anti-access/area-denial (A2/AD) force—a force that can deter U.S. intervention in a conflict in China’s near-seas region over Taiwan or some other issue, or failing that, delay the arrival or reduce the effectiveness of intervening U.S. forces.

- The planned ultimate size and composition of China’s navy is not publicly known. In contrast to the U.S. Navy, China does not release a navy force-level goal or detailed information about planned ship procurement rates, planned total ship procurement quantities, planned ship retirements, and resulting projected force levels.

- Although China’s naval modernization effort has substantially improved China’s naval capabilities, China’s navy currently is assessed as having limitations or weaknesses in certain areas, including joint operations with other parts of China’s military, anti-submarine warfare (ASW), long-range targeting, a limited capacity for carrying out at-sea resupply of combatant ships operating far from

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For additional discussion, see CRS Report R42784, U.S.-China Strategic Competition in South and East China Seas: Background and Issues for Congress, by Ronald O'Rourke.


17 For a discussion focusing on these limitations or weaknesses, see Mike Sweeney, Assessing Chinese Maritime Power, Defense Priorities, October 2020, 14 pp. See also Tai Ming Cheung, “Russia’s Ukraine Disaster Exposes China’s Military Weakness,” Foreign Policy, October 24, 2022.

home waters, a limited number of overseas bases and support facilities, a
need to train large numbers of personnel to crew its new ships, non-commissioned
officers (NCOs) that are not empowered by unit commanders through mission
command to achieve a commander’s intent, and a lack of recent combat
experience. China is working to reduce or overcome such limitations and
weaknesses. Although China’s navy has limitations and weaknesses, it may
nevertheless be sufficient for performing missions of interest to Chinese leaders.
As China’s navy reduces its weaknesses and limitations, it may become sufficient
to perform a wider array of potential missions.

20 See, for example, Kristin Huang, “Size of China’s Navy May Be Closing Gap on US Fleet But What Can the PLA Do with Just One Overseas Naval Base?” South China Morning Post, March 14, 2021.
The use of a dual command structure in the crews of larger Chinese ships, involving both a commanding officer and a political officer, has been raised as a source of potential reduced command effectiveness in certain tactical situations. See Mallory Shelbourne, “At-Sea Political Officers Could Pose Problems for Chinese Navy in War, Experts Say,” USNI News, September 20, 2023; Roderick Lee, PLA Navy Submarine Leadership - Factors Affecting Operational Performance, China Maritime Studies Institute (CMSI), U.S. Naval War College, June 2023, 21 pp.
24 For example, China’s naval shipbuilding programs were previously dependent on foreign suppliers for some ship components. ONI, however, states that “almost all weapons and sensors on Chinese naval ships are produced in-country, and China no longer relies on Russia or other countries for any significant naval ship systems.” (Source: Unclassified ONI information paper prepared for Senate Armed Services Committee, subject “UPDATED China: Naval Construction Trends vis-à-vis U.S. Navy Shipbuilding Plans, 2020-2030,” February 2020, pp. 2-3. Provided by Senate Armed Services Committee to CRS and CBO on March 4, 2020, and used in this CRS report with the committee’s permission.) Regarding the ASW capabilities of China’s Navy, DOD states

The PLAN is also improving its anti-submarine warfare capabilities through the development of its surface combatants and special mission aircraft, but it continues to lack a robust deep-water anti-submarine warfare (ASW) capability. (2023 DOD CMSD, p. 56.)

In addition to modernizing its navy, China has substantially increased the size and capabilities of its coast guard. DOD states that China’s coast guard is “the largest maritime law enforcement fleet in the world.”\(^{25}\) China also operates a sizeable maritime militia that includes a large number of fishing vessels. China relies primarily on its maritime militia and coast guard to assert and defend its maritime claims in its near-seas region, with the navy operating over the horizon as a potential backup force.\(^{26}\)

### Numbers of Ships; Comparisons to U.S. Navy

#### Overview

DOD states: “The PLAN is the largest navy in the world with a battle force of over 370 platforms, including major surface combatants, submarines, ocean-going amphibious ships, mine warfare ships, aircraft carriers, and fleet auxiliaries. Notably, this figure does not include approximately 60 HOUBEI-class patrol combatants that carry anti-ship cruise missiles (ASCM). The PLAN’s overall battle force is expected to grow to 395 ships by 2025 and 435 ships by 2030. Much of this growth will be in major surface combatants.”\(^{27}\) DIA states that “the PLAN is rapidly retiring older, single-mission warships in favor of larger, multimission ships equipped with advanced antiship, antiair, and antisubmarine weapons and sensors and C2 [command and control] facilities.”\(^{28}\)

#### Ultimate Size and Composition of China’s Navy Not Publicly Known

The planned ultimate size and composition of China’s navy is not publicly known. The U.S. Navy makes public its force-level goal and regularly releases a 30-year shipbuilding plan that shows planned procurements of new ships, planned retirements of existing ships, and resulting projected force levels, as well as a five-year shipbuilding plan that shows, in greater detail, the first five years of the 30-year shipbuilding plan.\(^{29}\) In contrast, China does not release a navy force-level goal or detailed information about planned ship procurement rates, planned total ship procurement quantities, planned ship retirements, or resulting projected force levels. The ultimate

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\(^{25}\) DOD states that

The CCG’s [China Coast Guard’s] continued expansion and modernization makes it the largest maritime law enforcement fleet in the world. Newer CCG vessels are larger and more capable than older vessels, allowing them to operate further offshore and remain on station longer. While exact numbers are unavailable, open-source reporting and commercial imagery counts indicate the CCG has over 150 regional and oceangoing patrol vessels (more than 1,000 tons). These larger vessels include over 20 corvettes transferred from the PLAN, which were modified for CCG operations. The newer, larger CCG vessels are equipped with helicopter facilities, high-capacity water cannons, multiple interceptor boats and guns ranging from 20 to 76 millimeters, and can be used for limited offshore operations, and an additional 300 coastal patrol craft (100 to 499 tons).

\(^{26}\) For additional discussion, see 2023 DOD CMSD, pp. 79-80, and 2019 DIA CMP, p. 78.

\(^{27}\) 2023 DOD CMSD, p. 55. See also 2019 DIA CMP, p. 63.

\(^{28}\) 2019 DIA CMP, p. 69.

\(^{29}\) For more information on the U.S. Navy’s force-level goal, 30-year shipbuilding plan, and five-year shipbuilding plan, see CRS Report RL32665, *Navy Force Structure and Shipbuilding Plans: Background and Issues for Congress*, by Ronald O’Rourke.
size and composition of China’s navy might be an unsettled and evolving issue among Chinese military and political leaders. One observer states that “it seems the majority of past foreign projections of Chinese military and Chinese navy procurement scale and speed have been underestimates…. All military forces have a desired force requirement and a desired ‘critical mass’ to aspire toward. Whether the Chinese navy is close to its desired force or not, is of no small consequence.”

Number of Ships Is a One-Dimensional Measure, but Trends in Numbers Can Be of Value Analytically

Relative U.S. and Chinese naval capabilities are sometimes assessed by showing comparative numbers of U.S. and Chinese ships. Although the total number of ships in a navy (or a navy’s aggregate tonnage) is relatively easy to calculate, it is a one-dimensional measure that leaves out numerous other factors that bear on a navy’s capabilities and how those capabilities compare to its assigned missions. As a result, as discussed in further detail in Appendix A, comparisons of the total numbers of ships in China’s navy and the U.S. Navy are highly problematic as a means of assessing relative U.S. and Chinese naval capabilities and how those capabilities compare to the missions assigned to the two navies. At the same time, however, an examination of trends over time in these relative numbers of ships can shed some light on how the relative balance of U.S. and Chinese naval capabilities might be changing over time.

Three Tables Showing Numbers of Chinese and U.S. Navy Ships

Table Showing Figures from Annual DOD Reports

Table 1 shows numbers of certain types of Chinese navy ships—those that might be thought of as the principal combat ships of China’s navy—from 2005 to the present, along with the number of China coast guard ships from 2017 to the present, as presented in DOD’s annual reports on military and security developments involving China. As can be seen in Table 1, most types of Chinese navy ships shown in the table have increased numerically since 2005.

As can be seen in Table 1, about 53% of the increase since 2005 in the total number of Chinese navy ships shown in the table (a net increase of 59 ships out of a total net increase of 112 ships) resulted from increases in missile-armed fast patrol craft starting in 2009 (a net increase of 9 ships) and corvettes starting in 2014 (50 ships). These are the smallest surface combatants shown in the table. The 50-ship increase in corvettes is due to the Jingdao (Type 056) corvette program discussed later in this report. ONI states that “a significant portion of China’s Battle Force consists of the large number of new corvettes and guided-missile frigates recently built for the PLAN.” As can also be seen in the table, most of the remaining increase since 2005 in the number of Chinese navy ships shown in the table is accounted for by increases in cruisers and destroyers (29 ships) and amphibious ships (17 ships).

Table 1 lumps together less capable older Chinese ships with more capable modern Chinese ships. In examining the numbers in the table, it can be helpful to keep in mind that for many of the types of Chinese ships shown in the table, the percentage of the ships accounted for by more...

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capable modern designs was growing over time, even if the total number of ships for those types was changing little.

For reference, Table 1 also shows the total number of ships in the U.S. Navy (known technically as the total number of battle force ships), and compares it to the total number of the types of Chinese ships that are shown in the table.32 The result is an apples-vs.-oranges comparison, because the Chinese figures exclude certain ship types, such as auxiliary and support ships, while the U.S. Navy figure includes auxiliary and support ships but excludes patrol craft. Changes over time in this apples-vs.-oranges comparison, however, can be of value in understanding trends in the comparative sizes of the U.S. and Chinese navies.

On the basis of the figures in Table 1, it might be said that in 2015, the total number of principal combat ships in China’s navy surpassed the total number of U.S. Navy battle force ships (a figure that includes not only the U.S. Navy’s principal combat ships, but also other U.S. Navy ships, such as auxiliary and support ships). It is important, however, to keep in mind the differences in composition between the two navies. The U.S. Navy, for example, has many more aircraft carriers, nuclear-powered submarines, and cruisers and destroyers, while China’s navy has many more diesel attack submarines, frigates, and corvettes.

Table Showing ONI Figures from February 2020

Table 2 shows comparative numbers of Chinese and U.S. battle force ships (and figures for certain types of ships that contribute toward China’s total number of battle force ships) from 2000 to 2030, with the figures for 2025 and 2030 being projections. The figures for China’s ships are taken from an ONI information paper of February 2020. Battle force ships are the types of ships that count toward the quoted size of the U.S. Navy. For China, the total number of battle force ships shown excludes the missile-armed coastal patrol craft shown in Table 1, but includes auxiliary and support ships that are not shown in Table 1. Compared to Table 1, the figures in Table 2 come closer to providing an apples-to-apples comparison of the two navies’ numbers of ships, although it could be argued that China’s missile-armed coastal patrol craft can be a significant factor for operations within the first island chain.

As shown in Table 2, China’s navy surpassed the U.S. Navy in terms of total number of battle force ships sometime between 2015 and 2020. As mentioned earlier in connection with Table 1, however, it is important to keep in mind the differences in composition between the two navies. The U.S. Navy, for example, currently has many more aircraft carriers, nuclear-powered submarines, and cruisers and destroyers, while China’s navy currently has many more diesel attack submarines, frigates, and corvettes.

Table Showing U.S. Navy Figures from October 2020

Table 3 shows numbers of certain types of Chinese navy ships in 2020, and projections of those numbers for 2025, 2030, and 2040, along with the total number of U.S. Navy battle force ships in 2020, and projections of those numbers for 2025, 2030, and 2040. The figures for China’s ships were provided by the Navy at the request of CRS. As with Table 1, the result is an apples-vs.-oranges comparison between the Chinese navy and U.S. Navy totals, because the Chinese total excludes certain ship types, such as auxiliary and support ships, while the U.S. Navy total

32 The DOD report generally covers events of the prior calendar year. Thus, the 2021 edition covers events during 2020, and so on for earlier years. Similarly, for the U.S. Navy figures, the 2021 column in Table 1 shows the figure for the end of FY2020, and so on for earlier years.
includes auxiliary and support ships, but excludes patrol craft (although the U.S. Navy has very few patrol craft).

Table 1. Numbers of Certain Types of Chinese and U.S. Ships Since 2005

Figures for Chinese ships taken from annual DOD reports on military and security developments involving China for the years 2005-2023.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of DOD report</th>
<th>Submarines</th>
<th>Surface combatants</th>
<th>Amphibious ships</th>
<th>Total Chinese Coast Guard</th>
<th>U.S. battle force ships</th>
<th>U.S. vs. China</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SSB</td>
<td>SSN</td>
<td>SS</td>
<td>CV</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>24</td>
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<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>21</td>
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<td>2016</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>23</td>
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<tr>
<td>2017</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2018</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2019</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2020</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2021</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2022</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2023</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Change from 2005 to 2023:

|                   | +5 | 0  | -4 | +2 | +8 | +21 | +4 | +50 | +9 | +17 | +112 | n/a | -3 | -115 |

Sources: Table prepared by CRS based on 2005-2023 editions of annual DOD report to Congress on military and security developments involving China (known for 2009 and prior editions as the report on China military power), and (for U.S. Navy ships) U.S. Navy data as presented in CRS Report RL32665, Navy Force Structure and Shipbuilding Plans: Background and Issues for Congress, by Ronald O’Rourke. Consistent with the DOD report, which shows data for China for the year prior to the report’s publication date, the U.S. Navy data here shows data for the year prior to the prior to the DOD report’s publication date. For example, the figure of 294 shown for the U.S. Navy for 2022 shows the number of U.S. Navy ships at the end of FY2021. As shown elsewhere in this CRS report, China reportedly commissioned its first two LHAs in 2021 and a third in 2022. The 2023 edition of the DOD report is the first to show a separate figure for LHAs.
Key to abbreviations: n/a = data not available in annual DOD report. SSB = ballistic missile submarines. SSN = nuclear-powered attack submarines. SS = diesel attack submarines. CV = aircraft carriers. CG = cruisers. DD = destroyers. FF = frigates. FFL = corvettes (i.e., light frigates). PC = missile-armed coastal patrol craft. LST = amphibious tank landing ship. LPD = amphibious transport dock ship. LSM = amphibious medium landing ship. (Starting with the 2021 edition, the annual DOD report shows a combined figure for LST/LPD and LSM.) Column for Total PLAN ship types shown to right, which shows what might be thought of as the principal combat ships of China’s navy, does not include other PLAN ship types not shown to right, such as auxiliary and support ships. CCG = China Coast Guard ships. U.S. total = Total U.S. Navy battle force ships, which includes auxiliary and support ships but excludes patrol craft. U.S. vs. PLAN ship types shown = total U.S. Navy battle force ships compared to the column for Total PLAN ship types shown to right.

Notes: The DOD report generally covers events of the prior calendar year. Thus, the 2021 edition covers events during 2020, and so on for earlier years. Similarly, for the U.S. Navy figures, the 2021 column shows the figure for the end of FY2020, and so on for earlier years.

Table 2. Numbers of Chinese and U.S. Navy Battle Force Ships, 2000-2030

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ballistic missile submarines</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nuclear-powered attack submarines</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diesel attack submarines</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aircraft carriers, cruisers, destroyers</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frigates, corvettes</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of China navy battle force ships, including types not shown above</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>425</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total U.S. Navy battle force ships</td>
<td>318</td>
<td>282</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S. total above compared to China total above</td>
<td>+108</td>
<td>+62</td>
<td>+68</td>
<td>+16</td>
<td>-64</td>
<td>-114</td>
<td>-135</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: Table prepared by CRS. Source for China’s navy: Unclassified ONI information paper prepared for Senate Armed Services Committee, subject “UPDATED China: Naval Construction Trends vis-à-vis U.S. Navy Shipbuilding Plans, 2020-2030,” February 2020, 4 pp. Provided by Senate Armed Services Committee to CRS and CBO on March 4, 2020, and used in this CRS report with the committee’s permission. Figures are for end of calendar year. Source for figures for U.S. Navy: U.S. Navy data; figures are for end of fiscal year.

Note: In the column for the year 2000, the ONI information paper showed a figure for the total number of China navy battle force ships of 110, but the Navy later stated that this was a typo, and that the correct figure is 210.

As shown in Table 3, the U.S. Navy projects that between 2020 and 2040, the total number of Chinese ships of the types shown in the table will increase by 94, or about 39%, with most of that increase (77 ships out of 94) coming from roughly equal increases in numbers of large surface combatants (cruisers and destroyers—39 ships) and small surface combatants (frigates and corvettes—38 ships). Numbers of ballistic missile submarines and nuclear-powered attack submarines are each projected to more than double between 2020 and 2040, and the total number of diesel attack submarines is projected to remain almost unchanged. The number of large surface combatants is projected to almost double, and the number of small surface combatants is projected to increase by more than one-third. Numbers of larger (LHA- and LPD-type) amphibious ships are projected to increase, and the number of smaller (LST-type) amphibious ships is projected to decline, with the result that the total number of amphibious ships of all kinds is projected to decline slightly.
Table 3. Numbers of Chinese and U.S. Navy Ships, 2020-2040
Figures for Chinese ships are from U.S. Navy, reflecting data as of October 2020

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ship type</th>
<th>2020</th>
<th>2025</th>
<th>2030</th>
<th>2040</th>
<th>2040 change from 2020</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ballistic missile submarines</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>+6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nuclear-powered attack submarines</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>+10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diesel attack submarines</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aircraft carriers</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>+4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cruisers and destroyers</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>+39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frigates and corvettes</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>+38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LHA-type amphibious assault ships</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>+6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LPD-type amphibious ships</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>+7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LST-type amphibious tank landing ships</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>-15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL for China of types shown above</td>
<td>239</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>310</td>
<td>333</td>
<td>+94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL number of U.S. Navy battle force ships</td>
<td>297</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>329 or 331 or 352</td>
<td>+32 or +34 or +55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S. total above compared to China total above</td>
<td>+58</td>
<td>+10</td>
<td>-20</td>
<td>-4 or -2 or +19</td>
<td>-62 or -60 or -39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: For Chinese navy ships: U.S. Navy data provided to CRS by Navy Office of Legislative Affairs, reflecting data as of October 26, 2020.

Note: The figures for the U.S. Navy for 2040 show different alternatives presented in the Navy’s FY2024 budget submission.

Figure 1 presents one observer’s graphic comparison of numbers of ships in the U.S. Navy and China’s navy for the period 2000-2030, citing data presented in May 2023 and April 2023 editions, respectively, of this CRS report and the CRS overview report on U.S. Navy force structure and shipbuilding.33

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**Selected Elements of China’s Naval Modernization Effort**

This section provides a brief overview of elements of China’s naval modernization effort that have attracted frequent attention from observers.

**Anti-Ship Missiles**

*Anti-Ship Ballistic Missiles (ASBMs)*

China is fielding two types of land-based ballistic missiles with a capability of hitting ships at sea at extended ranges—the DF-21D (Figure 2), a road-mobile anti-ship ballistic missile (ASBM) with a range of more than 1,500 kilometers (i.e., more than 810 nautical miles), and the DF-26 (Figure 3), a road-mobile, multi-role intermediate range ballistic missile (IRBM) with a maximum range of 3,000 kilometers to 4,000 kilometers[^34] (i.e., about 1,620 nautical miles to 2,160 nautical miles) that DOD says “is designed to rapidly swap conventional and nuclear warheads and is capable of conducting precision land-attack and anti-ship strikes in the Western Pacific, the Indian Ocean, and the SCS [South China Sea] from mainland China.”[^35]

[^34]: 2023 DOD CMSD, p. 66. A map on page 69 of the report shows the DF-26 with a range of 4,000 kilometers.

[^35]: 2023 DOD CMSD, p. 67. The report similarly states on page 89: “The DF-26 intermediate range ballistic missile is a capable of ranging Guam and is capable of conducting nuclear, precision conventional, and maritime attacks.”
Until 2020, reported test flights of DF-21s and SDF-26s had not involved attempts to hit moving ships at sea. A November 14, 2020, press report stated that an August 2020 test firing of DF-21 and DF-26 ASBMs into the South China resulted in the missiles successfully hitting a moving target ship south of the Paracel Islands.36 A December 3, 2020, press report stated that Admiral Philip Davidson, the commander of U.S. Indo-Pacific Command, “confirmed, for the first time

from the U.S. government side, that China’s People’s Liberation Army has successfully tested an anti-ship ballistic missile against a moving ship.\footnote{Josh Rogin, “China’s Military Expansion Will Test the Biden Administration,” \textit{Washington Post}, December 3, 2020.}

Observers have expressed strong concerns about China’s ASBMs, because such missiles, in combination with broad-area maritime surveillance and targeting systems, would permit China to attack aircraft carriers, other U.S. Navy ships, or ships of allied or partner navies operating in the Western Pacific. The U.S. Navy has not previously faced a threat from highly accurate ballistic missiles capable of hitting moving ships at sea. For this reason, some observers have referred to ASBMs as a “game-changing” weapon.

In April 2022, it was reported that China may have developed a new type of ASBM, perhaps designated the YJ-21, that is small enough to fit into the vertical launch tube of a surface combatant, and that China had test fired such a weapon from a Type 055 cruiser (or large destroyer).\footnote{Rick Fisher, “China Deploys New Missiles Against the US Navy,” Epoch Times, April 29, 2022; Minnie Chan, “Chinese Navy Shows Off Hypersonic Anti-Ship Missiles In Public,” \textit{South China Morning Post}, April 20, 2022; Tyler Rogoway, “Mysterious New Missile Launched By China’s Giant Type 055 Destroyer,” \textit{The Drive}, April 20. See also Decker Eveleth, \textit{People’s Liberation Army Rocket Force Order of Battle 2023}, James Martin Center of Nonproliferation Studies, Middlebury Institute of International Studies at Monterey, 2023, 65 pp.}

China reportedly is developing hypersonic glide vehicles that, if incorporated into Chinese ASBMs, could make Chinese ASBMs more difficult to intercept. A February 2, 2023, press report states

For the first time, the PLA has officially revealed the performance of its advanced anti-ship hypersonic missile, sending a warning to the US amid high tensions in the Taiwan Strait, Chinese analysts said.

China’s YJ-21, or Eagle Strike-21, has a terminal speed of Mach 10, cannot be intercepted by any anti-missile weapons system in the world and can launch lethal strikes towards enemy ships, according to an article posted by the official Weibo account of the People’s Liberation Army Strategic Support Force on Monday [January 30]....

The article declares that the missile travels six times the speed of sound all the way, and has a terminal speed of 10 times the speed of sound, meaning a speed of 3,400 metres per second (11,155 feet per second) when it hits the target.

“Such a terminal speed cannot be intercepted by any anti-missile weapon system at this stage. Even if it is dropped directly at this terrifying speed [hitting the target] without an explosion it will cause a fatal strike to the enemy ship,” the article stated.

The debut of its export variant, the YJ-21E, at last year’s Airshow China “shows that the domestic version of the Eagle Strike-21 ship-borne hypersonic missile is no longer the navy’s most advanced ship-borne hypersonic missile, and more advanced ship-borne hypersonic missiles are likely to have appeared,” it said.

The article was first published on the website of China Science Communication, Guangming Online last year, but it was reposted by an official PLA account for the first time, a development experts described as a clear message for the US.\footnote{Amber Wang, ‘Chinese Military Announces YJ-21 Missile Abilities in Social Media Post Read as Warning to US Amid Tension in Taiwan Strait,” \textit{South China Morning Post}, February 2, 2023. Material in brackets as in original. See also Gabriel Honrada, “China’s Hypersonic Triad Pressing Down on US,” \textit{Asia Times}, April 4, 2023.}
Anti-Ship Cruise Missiles (ASCMs)

China’s extensive inventory of anti-ship cruise missiles (ASCMs) (see Figure 4, Figure 5, and Figure 6 for examples of reported images) includes both Russian- and Chinese-made designs, including some advanced and highly capable ones, such as the Chinese-made YJ-18.  

Figure 4. Reported Image of Anti-Ship Cruise Missile (ASCM)

Although China’s ASCMs do not always receive as much press attention as China’s ASBMs (perhaps because ASBMs are a more recent development), observers are nevertheless concerned about them. As discussed later in this report, the relatively long ranges of certain Chinese ASCMs have led to concerns among some observers that the U.S. Navy is not moving quickly enough to arm U.S. Navy surface ships with similarly ranged ASCMs.

Press reports in April 2019 and December 2021 stated that China might be developing a YJ-18 launcher that can be packaged inside a standard commercial shipping container, for the potential

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purpose of surreptitiously deploying YJ-18s on merchant ships (Figure 7), a capability that, if implemented, could violate the law of naval warfare.\footnote{Raul (Pete) Pedrozo, “China’s Container Missile Deployments Could Violate the Law of Naval Warfare,” International Law Studies (U.S. Naval War College), vol. 97, 2021: 1160-1170.}

**Figure 5. Reported Image of Anti-Ship Cruise Missile (ASCM)**

\textbf{Source:} Photograph accompanying “YJ-18 Eagle Strike CH-SS-NX-13,” GlobalSecurity.org, updated October 1, 2019. The article states, “A grand military parade was held in Beijing on 01 October 2019 to mark the People’s Republic of China’s 70th founding anniversary…. One weapon featured was a new generation of anti-ship missiles called YJ-18. China unveiled YJ-18/18A anti-ship cruise missiles in the National Day military parade in central Beijing.”

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Figure 6. Reported Image of Anti-Ship Cruise Missile (ASCM)


Figure 7. Illustration of Reported Potential Containerized ASCM Launcher

Submarines

Overview

China has been steadily modernizing its submarine force, and most of its submarines are now built to relatively modern Chinese and Russian designs. Qualitatively, China’s newest submarines might not be as capable as Russia’s newest submarines, but compared to China’s earlier submarines, which were built to antiquated designs, its newer submarines are much more capable. An August 2023 Naval War College Report on China’s submarines states:

After nearly 50 years since the first Type 091 SSN was commissioned, China is finally on the verge of producing world-class nuclear-powered submarines. This report argues that the propulsion, quieting, sensors, and weapons capabilities of the Type 095 SSGN could approach Russia’s Improved Akula I class SSN. The Type 095 will likely be equipped with a pump jet propulsor, a freefloating horizontal raft, a hybrid propulsion system, and 12-18 vertical launch system tubes able to accommodate anti-ship and land-attack cruise missiles. China’s newest SSBN, the Type 096, will likewise see significant improvements over its predecessor, with the potential to compare favorably to Russia’s Dolgorukiy class SSBN in the areas of propulsion, sensors, and weapons, but more like the Improved Akula I in terms of quieting. If this analysis is correct, the introduction of the Type 095 and Type 096 would have profound implications for U.S. undersea security.

A September 2023 Naval War College report on China’s submarine industrial base states:

In recent years, China’s naval industries have made tremendous progress supporting the modernization of the People’s Liberation Army Navy (PLAN) submarine force, both through robust commitment to research and development (R&D) and the upgrading of production infrastructure at the country’s three submarine shipyards…. Nevertheless, China’s submarine industrial base continues to suffer from surprising weaknesses in propulsion (from marine diesels to fuel cells) and submarine quieting. Closer ties with Russia could provide opportunities for China to overcome these enduring technological limitations by exploiting political and economic levers to gain access to Russia’s remaining undersea technology secrets.


45 For an additional overview of China’s submarine force, see U.S. Naval War College, China Maritime Studies Institute, Quick Look Report “Chinese Undersea Warfare: Development, Capabilities, Trends,” undated, 2 pp., which summarizes an academic conference on China’s undersea warfare capabilities that was held by the China Maritime Studies Institute on April 11-13, 2023.


Types and Numbers

Most of China’s submarines are non-nuclear-powered attack submarines (SSs). China also operates a small number of nuclear-powered attack submarines (SSNs) and a small number of nuclear-powered ballistic missile submarines (SSBNs). The number of SSNs and SSBNs may grow in coming years, but the force will likely continue to consist mostly of SSs. DOD states that “the PLAN has placed a high priority on modernizing its submarine force, but its force structure continues to grow modestly as it works to mature its force, integrate new technologies, and expand its shipyards. The PLAN currently operates six nuclear-powered ballistic missile submarines (SSBN), six nuclear-powered attack submarines (SSN), and 48 diesel-powered/air-independent powered attack submarines (SS). The PLAN’s submarine force is expected to grow to 65 units by 2025 and 80 units by 2035 despite the ongoing retirement of older hulls due to an expansion of submarine construction capacity.”

ONI states that “China’s submarine force continues to grow at a low rate, though with substantially more-capable submarines replacing older units. Current expansion at submarine production yards could allow higher future production numbers.” ONI projects that China’s submarine force will grow from a total of 66 boats (4 SSBNs, 7 SSNs, and 55 SSs) in 2020 to 76 boats (8 SSBNs, 13 SSNs, and 55 SSs) in 2030. A November 27, 2022, press report states “The dry-docks at China’s nuclear submarine facility at Huludao, Liaoning province, show increased activity. New construction halls are primed. Another dry dock is ready to go. International analysts point to this as evidence Beijing is gearing up for the mass production of a new generation of nuclear-powered attack and ballistic missile submarines.”

China’s newest series-built SS design is the Yuan-class (Type 039) SS (Figure 8), its newest SSN class is the Shang-class (Type 093) SSN (Figure 9), and its newest SSBN class is the Jin (Type 094) class SSBN (Figure 10).

48 2023 DOD CMSD, p. 55.
Figure 8. Yuan (Type 039) Attack Submarine (SS)


Figure 9. Shang (Type 093) Attack Submarine (SSN)

DOD states further that

Over the past 15 years, the PLAN has constructed 12 nuclear submarines—two SHANG I-class SSNs (TYPE 093), four SHANG II-class SSNs (TYPE 093A), and six JIN-class SSBNs (TYPE 094). Equipped with the CSS-N-14 (JL-2) submarine-launched ballistic missile (SLBM) (3,900NM) or the CSS-N-20 (JL-3) SLBM (5,400NM), the PLAN’s six operational JIN-class SSBNs represent the PRC’s first credible sea-based nuclear deterrent. Each JIN-class SSBN can carry up to 12 missiles. In 2019, Beijing displayed these missiles at the PRC’s 70th founding anniversary parade. The PRC’s next-generation TYPE 096 SSBN will reportedly be armed with follow-on longer range SLBM. The TYPE 096 will likely begin construction in the near future. Based on the projected 30-plus-year service life of the platforms, the PRC will operate its JIN and TYPE 096 SSBN fleets concurrently in the 2030s. This would align with Xi’s 2018 directive for the SSBN force to achieve “stronger growth.”

The PRC launched two SHANG III (TYPE 093B)-class guided-missile nuclear attack submarines (SSGN) between May 2022 and January 2023 and could have three hulls of this class operational hulls by 2025. This new SHANG-class variant will enhance the

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51 2023 DOD CMSD, p. 55.
PLAN’s anti-surface warfare capability and could provide a clandestine land-attack option if equipped with land-attack cruise missiles (LACM). The PLAN is also improving its anti-submarine warfare capabilities through the development of its surface combatants and special mission aircraft, but it continues to lack a robust deep-water anti-submarine warfare (ASW) capability.52

In February 2022, the first of a new class of SS, smaller than the Yuan design, was reported, but it is not clear whether this design is intended for China’s navy, for export to other countries, or both.53

A May 16, 2022, press report states

A submarine seen in a satellite photo of a Chinese shipyard shows what could be a new class or subtype of a nuclear-powered attack sub with a new stealthy propulsion system and launch tubes for cruise missiles.

The satellite photo of the shipyard at Huludao in Liaoning province, northern China, which was provided to Defense News by Planet Labs, was taken May 3 and shows a submarine on a drydock.

The unidentified boat’s presence at the yard was first noted in an April 29 satellite image by geospatial intelligence outfit AllSource Analysis. The organization said the submarine is possibly a new class undergoing construction by China.54

An April 3, 2023, press report states the following in connection with the 2022 edition of DOD’s annual report to Congress on military and security developments involving China:

China is for the first time keeping at least one nuclear-armed ballistic missile submarine constantly at sea, according to a Pentagon report—adding pressure on the United States and its allies as they try to counter Beijing’s growing military.

The assessment of China's military said China's fleet of six Jin-class ballistic missile submarines were operating "near-continuous" patrols from Hainan Island into the South China Sea. Equipped with a new, longer-range ballistic missile, they can hit the continental United States, analysts say.

The note in the 174-page report drew little attention when it was released in late November [2022], but shows crucial improvements in Chinese capabilities, according to four regional military attaches familiar with naval operations and five other security analysts.55

Submarine Weapons

China’s submarines are armed with one or more of the following: ASCMs, wire-guided and wake-homing torpedoes, and mines. Wake-homing torpedoes can be very difficult for surface ships to decoy. DOD states that each Jin-class SSBN is equipped to carry up to 12 JL-2 or JL-3

52 2023 DOD CMSD, pp. 55-56.
nuclear-armed submarine-launched ballistic missiles (SLBMs). The JL-3 is a new SLBM with a range longer than that of the JL-2. A May 2, 2021, press report stated that China’s latest Jin-class SSBN is armed with JL-3s.

Aircraft Carriers

Overview

China’s first aircraft carrier, Liaoning (Type 001) (Figure 11), entered service in 2012. China’s second aircraft carrier (and its first fully indigenously built carrier), Shandong (Type 002) (Figure 12) entered service on December 17, 2019. Liaoning and Shandong launch fixed-wing aircraft using a “ski ramp” at the ship’s bow.

Compared with Liaoning and Shandong, U.S. Navy aircraft carriers are larger (about 100,000 tons full load displacement), nuclear powered (giving them greater cruising endurance than a conventionally powered ship), able to embark and operate a larger number of aircraft (60 or more), and launch fixed-wing aircraft using catapults, which can give those aircraft a range/payload capability greater than that of aircraft launched with a ski ramp.

China’s third carrier, Fujian (Type 003) (Figure 13, Figure 14, and Figure 15), was launched (i.e., put into the water for the final stages of its construction) in on June 17, 2022. ONI expects the ship to enter service by 2024. The ship is expected to be conventionally powered, closer in

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56 2023 DOD CMSD, pp. 55, 108. DOD estimates the range of the JL-2 at 3,900 nautical miles (2023 DOD CMSD, p. 55). Such a range could permit Jin-class SSBNs to attack targets in Alaska (except the Alaskan panhandle) from protected bastions close to China, targets in Hawaii (as well as targets in Alaska, except the Alaskan panhandle) from locations south of Japan, targets in the western half of the 48 contiguous states (as well as Hawaii and Alaska) from mid-ocean locations west of Hawaii, or targets in all 50 states from mid-ocean locations east of Hawaii. DOD states that

With a range of approximately 3,900NM, a JIN equipped with the JL-2 would have to operate in the mid-Pacific Ocean in order to threaten targets in the western half of the Continental United States (as well as Hawaii and Alaska) or east of Hawaii in order to threaten targets on the East Coast of the United States. PRC sources claim the JL-3 has a range of over 5,400NM which would allow a JIN armed with this missile to target portions of CONUS [continental United States] from Chinese littoral waters.

(2023 DOD CMSD, p. 59. See also pp. viii, 104, 108.)


57 Minnie Chan, “China’s New Nuclear Submarine Missiles Expand Range in US: Analysts,” South China Morning Post, May 2, 2021. The article states that the JL-3 has a “range [of] over 10,000km (6,200 miles), a source close to the [Chinese] navy said.” Such a range could permit Jin-class SSBNs to attack larger portions of the United States from the locations described in the previous footnote.

58 For an article providing a review of developments in China’s aircraft carrier and carrier-based aircraft programs, see Rick Joe, “003 and More: An Update on China’s Aircraft Carriers,” Diplomat, September 29, 2020. Consistent with the discussion in that article, this CRS report uses the following updated designations of China’s carriers: China’s second aircraft carrier, previously referred to as the Type 001A, is now referred to as the Type 002; the next aircraft carrier design after that, previously referred to as the Type 002, is now referred to as the Type 003, and the potential design that could follow, previously referred to as the Type 003, is now referred to as the Type 004.


60 Source: Unclassified ONI information paper prepared for Senate Armed Services Committee, subject “UPDATED (continued...)”
size and flight deck configuration to U.S. Navy aircraft carriers, and equipped with catapults rather than a ski ramp for launching aircraft. China’s fourth carrier reportedly may have begun construction as early as 2021.

Observers have speculated that China may eventually field a force of four to six (or possibly more than six) aircraft carriers. In late November 2019, it was reported that the Chinese government, while deciding to proceed with the construction of the fourth carrier, had put on hold plans to build a fifth carrier, which was to be nuclear-powered, due to budgetary and technical considerations. Observers expect that it will be some time before China masters carrier-based aircraft operations on a substantial scale.

Liaoning (Type 001)

Liaoning is a refurbished ex-Ukrainian aircraft carrier that China purchased from Ukraine in 1998 as an unfinished ship. It is conventionally powered, has an estimated full load displacement of 60,000 to 66,000 tons, and reportedly can accommodate an air wing of 30 or more fixed-wing airplanes and helicopters, including 24 fighters. The Liaoning lacks aircraft catapults and instead launches fixed-wing airplanes off the ship’s bow using an inclined ski ramp.

Some observers have referred to the Liaoning as China’s “starter” carrier. China has been using Liaoning in part for pilot training. In May 2018, China reportedly announced that the aircraft carrier group formed around Liaoning had reached initial operational capability (IOC), although that term might not mean the same as it does when used by DOD in connection with U.S. weapon systems.

Shandong (Type 002)

Shandong is a modified version of the Liaoning design that incorporates some design improvements, including features that reportedly will permit it to embark and operate a larger air
wing of 40 aircraft that includes 36 fighters. Its displacement is estimated at 66,000 to 70,000 tons.

**Figure 11. Liaoning (Type 001) Aircraft Carrier**

![Liaoning Aircraft Carrier](source)


**Figure 12. Shandong (Type 002) Aircraft Carrier**

![Shandong Aircraft Carrier](source)


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**Fujian (Type 003)**

A May 4, 2023, press report states that Fujian has an estimated full load displacement of more than 79,000 tons and is equipped, as observers had expected, with electromagnetic catapults rather than a ski ramp, which will improve the range/payload capability of the fixed-wing aircraft that it operates.\(^{68}\)

![Figure 13. Fujian (Type 003) Aircraft Carrier](image)

**Source:** Photograph accompanying Brad Lendon, “Never Mind China’s New Aircraft Carrier, These Are the Ships the US Should Worry About,” CNN, June 26, 2022.

**China’s Fourth Carrier**

A May 1, 2022, press report states, “Recent images of a stealth fighter jet at a naval airbase suggest China has begun pilot training preparations for a fourth aircraft carrier, defence experts say.”\(^{69}\) Some sources have stated that China’s fourth aircraft carrier would be built to the Type 003 design. Press reports from October 10, 2022, and March 13, 2021, however, suggest that the ship may be nuclear-powered rather than conventionally powered.\(^{70}\)

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\(^{68}\) Naval News, “3rd China Navy’s Aircraft Carrier Fujian Holds Propulsion Tests,” *Navy Recognition*, May 4, 2023. The article states that the ship has “a normal displacement of 71,875 tons (70,740 long tons) and a full load displacement of over 80,000 [metric] tons (79,000 long tons). She measures 300 meters (984 feet 3 inches) in length at the waterline and 316 meters (1,036 feet 9 inches) overall, with a beam of 39.5 meters (129 feet 7 inches) at the waterline and 76 meters (249 feet 4 inches) overall. Its propulsion system consists of steam turbines, 8 boilers, and 4 shafts, providing over 220,000 horsepower (164MW).... Equipped with an electromagnetic aircraft launch and arrest system, it allows for more efficient and effective aircraft operations compared to its predecessors, the Liaoning and the Shandong.” See also China Power Team, “How Advanced Is China’s Third Aircraft Carrier?” China Power, Center for Strategic and International Studies (CSIS), updated May 18, 2023. By comparison, U.S. Navy aircraft carriers are nuclear powered and have a full load displacement of about 97,000 tons (Nimitz class) or 100,000 tons (Gerald R. Ford class), a length overall of 1,092 feet, a beam of 134 feet at the waterline, and a flight deck width of 252 feet (Nimitz class) or 256 feet (Gerald R. Ford class). (U.S. Navy, “Aircraft Carriers—CVN,” updated November 12, 2021.)


Figure 14. Fujian (Type 003) Aircraft Carrier

Source: Cropped version of photograph accompanying Minnie Chan, “China’s Fujian aircraft carrier doesn’t have radar and weapon systems yet, photos show,” South China Morning Post, July 19, 2022.

Figure 15. Fujian (Type 003) Aircraft Carrier

**Possible Type 076 Catapult-Equipped Amphibious Assault Ship**

See also the discussion of the possible catapult-equipped Type 076 amphibious assault ship *(Figure 27 and Figure 28)* in the section on China’s amphibious ships.

**Commercial Heavy-Lift Ship Reportedly Used in Exercise as Helicopter Carrier**

In August 2020, it was reported that China had used a commercial heavy-lift ship in a military exercise as a platform for operating at least two PLA Army helicopters.*

**Carrier-Based Aircraft**

China’s primary carrier-based fighter aircraft is the J-15 or Flying Shark *(Figure 16 and Figure 17)*, an aircraft derived from the Russian Su-33 Flanker aircraft design that can operate from carriers equipped with a ski ramp rather than catapults, but which some observers have critiqued for its range/payload limitations in operations from carriers equipped with ski ramps rather than catapults.† December 2021 press reports stated that China has developed an upgraded, catapult-capable version of the J-15 that could have improved range/payload when operated from a catapult-equipped carrier.‡

China may develop a carrier-capable variant of its FC-31/J-31 fifth-generation stealth fighter to complement or succeed the J-15 on catapult-equipped Chinese carriers.§ China reportedly is also

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developing a carrier-based airborne early warning (AEW) aircraft, called the KJ-600, that is similar to the U.S. Navy’s carrier-based E-2 Hawkeye AEW aircraft,\(^76\) and stealth drone aircraft.\(^77\)

**Figure 16. J-15 Flying Shark Carrier-Capable Fighter**

![Image of J-15 Flying Shark Carrier-Capable Fighter]


**Roles and Missions**

Although aircraft carriers might have some value for China in Taiwan-related conflict scenarios, they are not considered critical for Chinese operations in such scenarios, because Taiwan is within range of land-based Chinese aircraft. Consequently, most observers believe that China is acquiring carriers primarily for their value in other kinds of operations, and to demonstrate China’s status as a leading regional power and major world power. Chinese aircraft carriers could be used for power-projection operations, particularly in scenarios that do not involve opposing U.S. forces, and to impress or intimidate foreign observers.\(^78\)


\(^78\) For a discussion, see, for example, Bryan McGrath and Seth Cropsey, “The Real Reason China Wants Aircraft Carriers, China’s Carrier Plans Target U.S. Alliances, Not Its Navy,” *Real Clear Defense* (www.realcleardefense.com), April 10, 2014; Sebastien Roblin, “All of the Reasons Why the World Should Fear China’s Aircraft Carriers,” *National* (continued...)
Figure 17. J-15 Flying Shark Carrier-Capable Fighter


Chinese aircraft carriers could also be used for humanitarian assistance and disaster relief (HA/DR) operations, maritime security operations (such as antipiracy operations), and noncombatant evacuation operations (NEOs). Politically, aircraft carriers could be particularly valuable to China for projecting an image of China as a major world power, because aircraft carriers are viewed by many as symbols of major world power status. In a combat situation involving opposing U.S. naval and air forces, Chinese aircraft carriers would be highly vulnerable to attack by U.S. ships and aircraft, but conducting such attacks could divert U.S. ships and aircraft from performing other missions in a conflict situation with China.

Surface Combatants

Overview

China since the early 1990s has put into service numerous new classes of indigenously built surface combatants, including a new cruiser (or large destroyer), several classes of destroyers and frigates, a new class of corvettes (i.e., light frigates), and a new class of missile-armed patrol craft.

Interest, October 24, 2017. See also Ben Ho Wan Beng, “(Re)assessing the Near-Term Chinese Carrier Threat in a Taiwan Scenario,” Breaking Defense, July 21, 2023.
These new classes of surface combatants demonstrate a significant modernization of PLA Navy surface combatant technology. DOD states that China’s navy “remains engaged in a robust shipbuilding program for surface combatants. As of late 2022, the PLAN was building an aircraft carrier, a new batch of guided-missile cruisers, guided-missile destroyers, and a new batch of guided missile frigates, including a new 054 variant designated JIANGKAI III. These assets will significantly upgrade the PLAN’s air defense, anti-ship, and anti-submarine capabilities and will be critical as the PLAN expands its operations beyond the range of the PLA’s shore-based air defense systems.”

DIA states that “the era of past designs has given way to production of modern multimission destroyer, frigate, and corvette classes as China’s technological advancement in naval design has begun to approach a level commensurate with, and in some cases exceeding, that of other modern navies.” China is also upgrading its older surface combatants with new weapons and other equipment.

**Type 055 Cruiser/Large Destroyer**

China is building a new class of cruiser (or large destroyer), called the Renhai-class or Type 055 (Figure 18, Figure 19, and Figure 20), that reportedly displaces between 12,000 and 13,000 tons. A March 7, 2021, press report by a Chinese media outlet states that the ship displaces more than 12,000 tons. By way of comparison, the U.S. Navy’s Ticonderoga (CG-47) class cruisers and Arleigh Burke (DDG-51) class destroyers (aka the U.S. Navy’s Aegis cruisers and destroyers) displace about 10,100 tons and 9,700 tons, respectively, while the U.S. Navy’s three Zumwalt (DDG-1000) class destroyers displace about 15,700 tons.

![Figure 18. Renhai (Type 055) Cruiser (or Large Destroyer)](image)

Source: Cropped version of photograph accompanying Marielle Descalsota, “Take a Look at China’s Biggest Destroyer, a $920 Million Cruiser That’s Said to Be the 2nd Most Powerful in the World after the USS Zumwalt,” Business Insider, June 22, 2022. The photograph is credited to Sun Zifa/China News Service/Getty Images.

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79 2023 DOD CMSD. p. 56.
80 2019 DIA CMP. p. 70.
82 One article from a Chinese media outlet, for example, states, “This ship class has a displacement of more than 12,000 tons.” (Liu Xuanzun, “Chinese PLA’s Two Newly Commissioned Large Destroyers ‘Ready for Combat’ with Latest Drills,” *Global Times*, August 22, 2022.) See also China Daily, “2nd Type 055 Destroyer Enters Service,” *People’s Daily Online*, March 10, 2021.) For a discussion of the Type 055 design, see Sidharth Kaushal, “The Type 055: A Glimpse into the PLAN’s Developmental Trajectory,” Royal United Services Institute (RUSI), October 19, 2020.
ONI states that Type 055 ships are being built by two shipyards.\textsuperscript{84} The first Type 055 ship was reportedly commissioned into service in January 2020,\textsuperscript{85} and the eighth was reportedly commissioned into service in March 2023.\textsuperscript{86} A January 2022 press report stated that in addition to the first eight ships, at least two more were under construction.\textsuperscript{87}

\textsuperscript{84} Source: Unclassified ONI information paper prepared for Senate Armed Services Committee, subject “UPDATED China: Naval Construction Trends vis-à-vis U.S. Navy Shipbuilding Plans, 2020-2030,” February 2020, p. 4. Provided by Senate Armed Services Committee to CRS and CBO on March 4, 2020, and used in this CRS report with the committee’s permission.

\textsuperscript{85} Liu Xuanzun, “China’s 2\textsuperscript{nd} Type 055 Large Destroyer Enters Naval Service,” \textit{Global Times}, March 7, 2021. See also China Daily, “2\textsuperscript{nd} Type 055 Destroyer Enters Service,” \textit{People’s Daily Online}, March 10, 2021; Xavier Vavasseur, “China’s 2\textsuperscript{nd} Type 055 Destroyer ‘Lhasa’ 抗 姆 Commissioned With PLAN,” \textit{Naval News}, March 7, 2021; Xavier Vavasseur, “China Commissions A Type 055 DDG, A Type 075 LHD And A Type 094 SSBN In A Single Day,” \textit{Naval News}, April 24, 2021.


China Naval Modernization: Implications for U.S. Navy Capabilities

Figure 20. Renhai (Type 055) Cruiser (or Large Destroyer)
Unofficial illustration by Naval News


Type 052 Destroyer

China since the early 1990s has put into service multiple new classes of indigenously built destroyers, the most recent of which is the Luyang III (Type 052D) class (Figure 21), which displaces about 7,500 tons and is equipped with phased-array radars and vertical launch missile systems that outwardly are broadly similar to those on U.S. Navy cruisers and destroyers. Press reports in March 2021 stated that China is now commissioning an upgraded version of the Type 052D, informally called the Type 052DL, that incorporates an extended-length helicopter flight deck and a new radar.88

Type 052D ships have been in serial production for some time; a March 12, 2023, press report states that the 27th and the 28th Type 052D ships had been launched (i.e., put into the water for the final phase of their construction), and that three additional Type 052D ships were under construction at the same shipyard.89

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89 Tayfun Ozberk, “China Launches Two More Type 052DL Destroyers In Dalian,” Naval News, March 12, 2023. See also Liu Xuanzun, “China Launches Two New Type 052D Destroyers: Media,” Global Times, March 12, 2023; John Hill, “China’s Navy Launches New Destroyers at Dalian Shipyard,” Naval Technology, March 14, 2023. An August 21, 2022, press report (Xavier Vavasseur, “Five Type 052D Destroyers Under Construction In China,” Naval News, August 21, 2022) referred to a photograph of five Type 05D ships under construction at a shipyard at Dalian, China. The article stated, “Contacted by Naval News, two Chinese military observers confirmed that there are currently 25 destroyers of the class (13 Type 052D and 12 Type 052DL) currently in service with the PLAN. They will soon be joined by the five under construction at Dalian and (at least) one more being built at the Jiangnan Changxing (continued...)

Congressional Research Service 33
Type 054 Frigate

China since the early 1990s has also put into service multiple new classes of indigenously built frigates, the most recent of which is the Jiangkai II (Type 054A) class (Figure 22), which displaces about 4,000 tons. ONI stated in February 2020 that 30 Type 054As entered service between 2008 and 2019, and that no additional Type 054As were then under construction.\(^90\) An August 2021 press report from a Chinese media outlet, however, stated that “China is reportedly building another batch of Type 054A frigates for the People’s Liberation Army Navy (PLA Navy) after it had launched two new ships of this class over the past few months.”\(^91\) The press report noted that a report from the Jane’s organization had stated that the 32\(^{nd}\) Type 054A ship had recently been launched (i.e., put into the water for the final stages of its construction).\(^91\)

Other press reports state that China’s Type 054 production has shifted to a larger and improved version of the design called the Type 054B.\(^92\)

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Figure 22. Jiangkai II (Type 054A) Frigate

Source: Cropped version of photograph from Chinese Military Review, “Type 054A (Jiangkai II class) FFG-546 Yancheng Guided Missile Frigate in Mediterranean,” undated (but with a URL suggesting that it was posted in February of 2014), accessed August 29, 2018.

Type 056 Corvette

China also built—in large numbers over a relatively short time period—a new type of corvette (i.e., a light frigate, or FFL) called the Jiangdao class or Type 056 (Figure 23), which reportedly displaces 1,300 tons to 1,500 tons.93 Type 056 ships were built at a high annual rate in four shipyards—the first was commissioned in 2013, and the 72nd and final ship of the type was reportedly commissioned in early 2021, implying an average commissioning rate of about eight ships per year. DOD states that China’s navy “commissioned the 72nd JIANGDAO in February 2021, completing the production run. The PLAN subsequently transferred the early flight TYPE 056 variants, likely 22 ships total, to the China Coast Guard in 2021, probably due to the early models’ lack of towed-array sonar. The remaining JIANGDAOs (056A) are equipped with a towed-array sonar and are, thus, capable of contributing to ASW operations.”94 As shown in Table 1, the rapid growth in the number of Type 056 corvettes since 2013 accounts for a substantial share of the net increase in the total number of ships in China’s navy since 2013.

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93 For an overview of the Type 056 corvette, see Eric Wertheim, “China’s Jiangdao-class Corvette: Mainstay of the First Island Chain,” U.S. Naval Institute Proceedings, September 2022.
94 2023 DOD CMSD, p. 56.
Amphibious Ships

Type 071 Amphibious Ship

China’s new Yuzhao or Type 071 amphibious ships (Figure 24) have an estimated displacement of more than 19,855 tons,96 compared to about 25,900 tons for the U.S. Navy’s new San Antonio (LPD-17) class amphibious ships. A May 6, 2021, press report states that the eighth Type 071 ship “recently made its first publicly known maritime exercise appearance.”97

95 For an article providing a brief overview of China’s amphibious shipbuilding programs, see Yasmin Tadjdeh, “China Building Formidable Amphibious Fleet,” National Defense, June 25, 2021.
96 Unless otherwise indicated, displacement figures cited in this report are full load displacements. IHS Jane’s Fighting Ships 2017-2018, p. 156, does not provide a full load displacement for the Type 071 class design. Instead, it provides a standard displacement of 19,855 tons. Full load displacement is larger than standard displacement, so the full load displacement of the Type 071 design is more than 19,855 tons.
Type 075 Amphibious Assault Ship

In April 2021, China commissioned into service the first of a new type of amphibious assault ship, called the Yushen or Type 075 (Figure 25 and Figure 26), that has an estimated displacement of about 35,000 tons, compared to 41,000 to 45,000 tons for U.S. Navy LHA/LHD-type amphibious assault ships. In March 2022, it was reported that the first Type 075 ship had achieved initial operational capability (IOC), although that term might not mean the same as it does when used by DOD in connection with U.S. weapon systems.

The second Type 075 ship reportedly was commissioned into service in late December 2021. The third was reportedly commissioned on or perhaps a few days prior to October 1, 2022.

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98 Amphibious assault ships, also referred to as helicopter carriers or (in British parlance) commando carriers, look like medium-sized aircraft carriers. U.S. Navy amphibious assault ships are designated LHA or LHD.

99 See, for example, Mike Yeo, “China simultaneously commissions three warships on Navy anniversary,” Defense News, April 26, 2021. For an in-depth discussion of the Type 075 design, see Conor M. Kennedy and Daniel Caldwell, The Type 075 LHD: Development, Missions, and Capabilities, China Maritime Studies Institute (CMSI), U.S. Naval War College, China Maritime Report No. 23, October 2022, 45 pp.


In July 2020, it was reported that China might be planning to build the first of a new class of amphibious assault ships, called the Type 076 by observers (Figure 27 and Figure 28), that would be equipped with electromagnetic catapults, which would enhance its ability to support operations by fixed-wing aircraft and make it somewhat more like an aircraft carrier. A September 2023 press report stated that China had completed construction of a dry dock that some observers believe may be used to build Type 076 ships.

Amphibious Ship Roles and Missions

Although larger amphibious ships such as the Type 071 and Type 075 would be of value for conducting amphibious landings in Taiwan-related conflict scenarios, some observers believe that China is building such ships as much for their value in conducting other operations, such as operations for asserting and defending China’s claims in the South and East China Seas, humanitarian assistance/disaster relief (HA/DR) operations, maritime security operations (such as antipiracy operations), and noncombatant evacuation operations (NEOs). Politically, amphibious...

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ships can also be used for naval diplomacy (i.e., port calls and engagement activities) and for impressing or intimidating foreign observers.\textsuperscript{105}

\textbf{Figure 26. Type 075 Amphibious Assault Ship}

\textbf{Source:} Photograph accompanying Liu Zhen, “Chinese Military’s First Type 075 Amphibious Assault Ship Begins Sea Trial,” South China Morning Post, August 7, 2020. The article credits the photograph to Weibo. Possible Type 076 Catapult-Equipped Amphibious Assault Ship.

\textsuperscript{105} See, for example, Grant Newsham, “China’s Amphibious Force Emerges,” Asia Times, November 5, 2019.
Potential Use of Commercial Ships

In assessing China’s capacity for conducting an amphibious invasion of Taiwan, some observers have focused on China’s potential for using civilian ferries and other commercial ships to augment the transport and landing capacity of China’s amphibious ships. Reported Chinese exercises indicate that China is exploring and testing this concept.¹⁰⁶

¹⁰⁶ See, for example, Matthew P. Funaiole, Brian Hart, Jaehyun Han, and Jennifer Jun, “China Accelerates Construction of ‘Ro-Ro’ Vessels, with Potential Military Implications,” China Power (Center for Strategic and International Studies [CSIS]), October 11, 2023; Jack Lau, “China’s Navy Includes Civilian Ferry in Military Transport Drill,” South China Morning Post, July 26, 2023; John Konrad, “Is COSCO China’s Secret Invasion Fleet?” gCaptain, (continued...)
Operations Away from Home Waters

Ship Operations

Although China’s navy operates primarily in China’s home waters, Chinese navy ships are conducting increasing numbers of operations away from China’s home waters, including the broader waters of the Western Pacific, the Indian Ocean, and the waters surrounding Europe, including the Mediterranean Sea and the Baltic Sea. A November 23, 2019, DOD news report quoted Admiral Philip Davidson, the commander of the U.S. Indo-Pacific Command, as stating that China’s navy had conducted more global naval deployments in the past 30 months than it had in the previous 30 years.107 DOD states that “the PLAN’s ability to perform missions beyond the FIC [first island chain] is modest but growing as it gains more experience operating in distant waters and acquires larger and more advanced platforms. The PRC’s experience in extended range operations primarily comes from extended task group deployments and its ongoing counterpiracy mission in the Gulf of Aden.”108 China has been conducting antipiracy operations in the Gulf of Aden since December 2008 via a succession of more than 40 rotationally deployed naval escort task forces.109 China’s long-distance naval deployments have also been for making diplomatic port calls and conducting training exercises.


108 2023 DOD CMSD, p. 54. See also p. 91.

Current or Potential Bases Outside China

China’s distant naval operations are supported in part by China’s military base in Djibouti, where the Gulf of Aden meets the Red Sea. China officially opened the base in August 2017 as its first overseas military base.111 Some observers expect that China in coming years will seek to establish a global network of locations in various parts of the world for refueling and resupplying Chinese navy ships conducting distant naval operations.112

Observers are now following developments at Cambodia’s Ream naval base, which fronts onto the Gulf of Thailand. DOD states: “In June 2022, a PRC official confirmed that the PLA would have access to parts of Cambodia’s Ream Naval Base.”113

A July 26, 2023, press report states

Cambodian officials say renovation work on a naval base in the coastal city of Sihanoukville is nearly complete, but U.S. officials have voiced suspicions the facility, being upgraded by China, will be used exclusively by China’s military.

Suspicious about China’s intentions for the Ream naval base were raised after satellite imagery showed that a major pier capable of anchoring aircraft carriers had been constructed on the site.

Chhum Socheat, a spokesman for the Cambodia National Defense Ministry, confirmed to VOA Khmer that the work will be completed soon but said, “I don’t know the inauguration day.”

He denied speculation that China will use the base to expand its influence in the region against its rival, the United States.…..

Satellite imagery taken by BlackSky, a U.S. commercial imagery company that monitors the construction at Ream naval base, noted “the rapid pace of development of a large Chinese military naval station from August 2021 until July 2023.”114

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113 2023 DOD CMSD, p. 154.
114 Sun Narin and Han Noy, “Cambodian Ream Naval Base Modernized by China Nears Completion: Defense Ministry,” VOA, July 26, 2023. See also James Brooke, “China Completing Major Naval Base in Cambodia, Capable (continued...)
A security agreement between China and the Solomon Islands that was announced by the Solomon Islands in April 2022 has led some observers to express concern that the agreement could eventually lead to, among other things, the establishment of a Chinese naval base in that country.\(^\text{115}\) The Prime Minister of the Solomon Islands ruled out that possibility, stating that it would “put our country and our people as targets for potential military strikes.”\(^\text{116}\)

In December 2021, it was reported that China may be seeking to establish a military (including naval) base at a port in Equatorial Guinea, a country located on the Atlantic coast of Africa—a location that could enhance China’s ability to conduct naval operations in the Atlantic.\(^\text{117}\)

A January 3, 2023, press report states “China is once again pressuring Argentina to build a naval base in Ushuaia, Tierra del Fuego province, which would mean opening the door to Antarctica for Beijing.”\(^\text{118}\)

U.S. Navy Response

Overview

The U.S. Navy has taken a number of actions to counter China’s naval modernization effort. Among other things, the U.S. Navy has

- shifted a greater percentage of its fleet to the Pacific;\(^\text{119}\)


\(^\text{119}\) Efforts in this regard began at least as far back as 2006: The final report on the 2006 Quadrennial Defense Review (QDR) directed the Navy “to adjust its force posture and basing to provide at least six operationally available and sustainable carriers and 60% of its submarines in the Pacific to support engagement, presence and deterrence.” (U.S. Department of Defense, Quadrennial Defense Review Report, Washington, 2006. February 6, 2006, p. 47.) Subsequent to this directive, the Navy announced an intention to increase to 60% (from a starting point of about 55%) the percentage of the fleet as a whole that is assigned to the Pacific. An October 13, 2021, press report stated, “US Naval Chief of Operations, Admiral Michael Gilday, on Tuesday kicked off his 5-day visit to India by meeting his Indian counterpart Admiral Karambir Singh, Chief of Defence Staff General Bipin Rawat and other senior government officials.... Asked about what the US intends to do to counter China’s aggressive modernisation of its Navy, Gilday (continued...)
• assigned its most-capable new ships and aircraft to the Pacific;
• maintained or increased general presence operations, training and developmental exercises, and engagement and cooperation with allied and other navies in the Indo-Pacific;
• increased the planned future size of the Navy;
• initiated, increased, or accelerated numerous programs for developing new military technologies and acquiring new ships, aircraft, unmanned vehicles, and weapons;
• developed new operational concepts (i.e., new ways to employ Navy and Marine Corps forces) for countering Chinese maritime A2/AD forces; and
• signaled that the Navy in coming years will shift to a more distributed fleet architecture that will feature a substantially greater use of unmanned vehicles.

Some of the above items are discussed in more detail below.

**Planned Size of Navy**

As discussed in greater detail in another CRS report, the Navy’s existing force-level goal, which the Navy released on December 15, 2016, calls for achieving and maintaining a fleet of 355 ships—an increase of 47 ships over the previous 308-ship force-level goal of March 2015. As also discussed in the other CRS report, the Navy and the Office of the Secretary of Defense (OSD) have been working since 2019 to develop a successor for the 355-ship force-level goal but have not been able to come to closure on a successor goal. The Navy’s FY2023 30-year (FY2023-FY2052) shipbuilding plan, released on April 20, 2022, presented the results of three studies on possibilities for the Navy’s successor force-level goal. These studies call for a future Navy with 321 to 404 manned ships and 45 to 204 large surface and underwater unmanned vehicles (UVs).

**Highly Capable Ships, Aircraft, Weapons, and Other Systems**

Many of the Navy’s programs for acquiring highly capable ships, aircraft, weapons, and other systems can be viewed as intended, at least in part, at improving the U.S. Navy’s ability to counter Chinese maritime A2/AD capabilities. Examples include the following:

- Virginia-class nuclear-powered attack submarines (SSNs); for more on the Virginia-class program, see CRS Report RL32418, *Navy Virginia-Class Submarine Program and AUKUS Submarine Proposal: Background and Issues for Congress*, by Ronald O'Rourke.
- the Navy’s envisaged next-generation SSN, called the SSN(X); for more on the SSN(X) program, see CRS In Focus IF11826, *Navy Next-Generation Attack Submarine (SSN[X]) Program: Background and Issues for Congress*, by Ronald O'Rourke.
- Gerald R. Ford (CVN-78) class nuclear-powered aircraft carriers (CVNs); for more on the CVN-78 program, see CRS Report RS20643, *Navy Ford (CVN-78) Class Aircraft Carrier Program: Background and Issues for Congress*, by Ronald O'Rourke.

said they will not try to outspend it, but partners like India in the region will be the key to ensure that the Indian Ocean Region (IOR) is stable. Given the importance of the region, 60 per cent of US Navy’s forces are now in the Indo-Pacific, he said.” (Krishna Kaushik, “60% Navy Forces in Indo-Pacific Region Now: US Navy Chief,” *Indian Express*, October 13, 2021.)

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121 For more on the Virginia-class program, see CRS Report RL32418, *Navy Virginia-Class Submarine Program and AUKUS Submarine Proposal: Background and Issues for Congress*, by Ronald O'Rourke.

122 For more on the SSN(X) program, see CRS In Focus IF11826, *Navy Next-Generation Attack Submarine (SSN[X]) Program: Background and Issues for Congress*, by Ronald O'Rourke.

123 For more on the CVN-78 program, see CRS Report RS20643, *Navy Ford (CVN-78) Class Aircraft Carrier Program: Background and Issues for Congress*, by Ronald O'Rourke.
China Naval Modernization: Implications for U.S. Navy Capabilities

- Navy and Marine Corps versions of the F-35 Joint Strike Fighter (JSF),\textsuperscript{124}
- Arleigh Burke (DDG-51) class guided missile destroyers (DDGs),\textsuperscript{125}
- the Navy’s envisaged next-generation DDG, called the DDG(X),\textsuperscript{126}
- Constellation (FFG-62) class frigates,\textsuperscript{127}
- new anti-ship weapons, such as the Long-Range Anti-Ship Missile (LRASM), also known as the Offensive Anti-Surface Warfare (OASuW) Increment 1 weapon;\textsuperscript{128}
- hypersonic weapons, including the ship-launched Conventional Prompt Strike (CPS) weapon and the Hypersonic Air-Launched OASuW (HALO) weapon, also known as OASuW Increment 2,\textsuperscript{129}
- shipboard high-energy lasers;\textsuperscript{130}
- new electronic warfare systems; and
- undersea surveillance systems for detecting and tracking adversary submarines.\textsuperscript{131}

**Fleet Architecture and Operational Concepts**

Remarks from Navy and DOD officials since 2019 have indicated that the successor to the 355-ship force-level goal will introduce a change in fleet architecture, meaning basic the types of ships that make up the Navy and how these ships are used in combination with one another to perform Navy missions. This new fleet architecture is to be more distributed than the fleet architecture reflected in the 355-ship goal or previous Navy force-level goals. In particular, the new fleet architecture is expected to feature a substantially greater use of unmanned vehicles (UVs).\textsuperscript{132} Navy and DOD leaders believe that shifting to a more distributed fleet architecture is

\textsuperscript{124} For more on the JSF program, see CRS Report RL30563, *F-35 Joint Strike Fighter (JSF) Program*, by John R. Hoehn.

\textsuperscript{125} For more on the DDG-51 program, see CRS Report RL32109, *Navy DDG-51 and DDG-1000 Destroyer Programs: Background and Issues for Congress*, by Ronald O'Rourke.

\textsuperscript{126} For more on the DDG(X) program, see CRS In Focus IF11679, *Navy DDG(X) Next-Generation Destroyer Program: Background and Issues for Congress*, by Ronald O'Rourke.

\textsuperscript{127} For more on the FFG-62 program, see CRS Report R44972, *Navy Constellation (FFG-62) Class Frigate Program: Background and Issues for Congress*, by Ronald O'Rourke.

\textsuperscript{128} For more on the LRASM program, see CRS In Focus IF11353, *Defense Primer: U.S. Precision-Guided Munitions*, coordinated by Nathan J. Lucas.

\textsuperscript{129} For more on the CPS program, see CRS Report R45811, *Hypersonic Weapons: Background and Issues for Congress*, by Kelley M. Sayler.

\textsuperscript{130} For more on Navy laser programs, see CRS Report R44175, *Navy Shipboard Lasers: Background and Issues for Congress*, by Ronald O'Rourke.


• **operationally necessary**, to respond effectively to the improving maritime anti-access/area-denial (A2/AD) capabilities of other countries, particularly China;\(^{133}\)
• **technically feasible** as a result of advances in technologies for UVs and for networking widely distributed maritime forces that include significant numbers of UVs; and
• **affordable**—no more expensive, and possibly less expensive, than the current fleet architecture for a given level of overall fleet capability, so as to fit within expected future Navy budgets.

Shifting to a more distributed force architecture, Navy and Marine Corps officials have indicated, will support implementation of the Navy and Marine Corps’ new overarching operational concept, called Distributed Maritime Operations (DMO), and a supporting Marine Corps operational concept called Expeditionary Advanced Base Operations (EABO).\(^{134}\) A key aim of DMO and EABO is to improve the ability of the Navy and Marine Corps to counter China’s improving maritime military capabilities.

Some elements of the Navy’s new, more distributed fleet architecture are reflected in Navy budget submission, including the following:

• development of a smaller amphibious warship called the Medium Landing Ship (LSM) (previously referred to as the Light Amphibious Warship, or LAW);\(^ {135}\)
• development of a smaller resupply ship called the Light Replenishment Oiler (TAOL) (previously referred to as Next-Generation Medium Logistics Ship, or NGLS);\(^ {136}\)
• development of two types of larger unmanned surface vehicles (USVs)—Large USVs (LUSVs) and Medium USVs (MUSVs);\(^ {137}\) and

\(^{133}\) Some observers have long urged the Navy to shift to a more distributed fleet architecture, on the grounds that the Navy’s current architecture—which concentrates much of the fleet’s capability into a relatively limited number of individually larger and more expensive surface ships—is increasingly vulnerable to attack by the improving A2/AD capabilities (particularly anti-ship missiles and their supporting detection and targeting systems) of potential adversaries, particularly China. Shifting to a more distributed architecture, these observers have argued, would

• complicate an adversary’s targeting challenge by presenting the adversary with a larger number of Navy units to detect, identify, and track;
• reduce the loss in aggregate Navy capability that would result from the destruction of an individual Navy platform;
• give U.S. leaders the option of deploying USVs and UUVs in wartime to sea locations that would be tactically advantageous but too risky for manned ships; and
• increase the modularity and reconfigurability of the fleet for adapting to changing mission needs.

For more on China’s maritime A2/AD capabilities, see CRS Report RL33153, *China Naval Modernization: Implications for U.S. Navy Capabilities—Background and Issues for Congress*, by Ronald O’Rourke.

\(^{134}\) For more on DMO, see, for example, Edward Lundquist, “DMO is Navy’s Operational Approach to Winning the High-End Fight at Sea,” *Seapower*, February 2, 2021. For more on EABO, see CRS Report R46374, *Navy Light Amphibious Warship (LAW) Program: Background and Issues for Congress*, by Ronald O’Rourke.

\(^{135}\) For more on the LSM program, see CRS Report R46374, *Navy Medium Landing Ship (LSM) (Previously Light Amphibious Warship [LAW]) Program: Background and Issues for Congress*, by Ronald O’Rourke.

\(^{136}\) For more on the TAOL program, see CRS In Focus IF11674, *Navy Light Replenishment Oiler (TAOL) (Previously Next-Generation Logistics Ship [NGLS]) Program: Background and Issues for Congress*, by Ronald O’Rourke.

\(^{137}\) For more on the LUSV and MUSV programs, see CRS Report R45757, *Navy Large Unmanned Surface and Undersea Vehicles: Background and Issues for Congress*, by Ronald O’Rourke.
• procurement of large unmanned underwater vehicles (UUVs) called Extra Large UUVs (XLUUVs).\textsuperscript{138}

Cooperation with Naval Forces of Allies and Other Countries

U.S. Navy efforts to increase cooperation with naval forces from allies such as Japan and Australia and other countries such India appear aimed in part at expanding existing bilateral forms of naval cooperation (e.g., U.S.-Japan, U.S.-Australia, U.S.-India) into trilateral (e.g., U.S.-Japan-Australia, U.S.-Australia-India) or quadrilateral (U.S.-Japan-Australia-India) forms that could enhance the ability of the United States and its allies in the Indo-Pacific region to balance against China’s growing military capabilities and deter potential assertive actions by China.\textsuperscript{139}

Issues for Congress

Overview

The overall issue for Congress is whether to approve, reject, or modify the Biden Administration’s proposed U.S. Navy plans, budgets, and programs for responding to China’s naval modernization effort. Within this overall issue, specific issues include the following:

• the current and potential future U.S.-China balance of naval power in general, and in specific geographic areas, particularly the Taiwan Strait and the South China Sea;
• whether the planned size of the Navy will be appropriate for countering China’s naval modernization effort in coming years while also permitting the Navy to perform other missions, including countering Russian military forces in the Atlantic and the Mediterranean, and defending U.S. interests in the Middle East;
• whether Navy shipbuilding plans, Navy plans for keeping existing Navy ships in service, and resulting Navy projections of future Navy force levels are consistent with the goal of increasing the size of the Navy toward a total of 355 ships or a successor force-level goal;
• whether the Navy is doing enough to
  • improve its ability to counter China’s ASBMs, hypersonic weapons, or other maritime A2/AD weapons, such as wake-homing torpedoes;
  • develop and procure new ASCMs with ranges that match or exceed those of China’s longer-ranged ASCMs;
  • increase the operating range of Navy carrier air wings, so as to improve the ability of carriers and their air wings to achieve effects while operating at longer distances from Chinese ASBMs and other A2/AD weapons; and
• whether Congress should modify acquisition policies or the metrics for judging the success of acquisition programs so as to facilitate faster development of new technologies and weapons for the Navy—and if so, how those policies or metrics should be modified.

\textsuperscript{138} For more on the XLUUV program, see CRS Report R45757, \textit{Navy Large Unmanned Surface and Undersea Vehicles: Background and Issues for Congress}, by Ronald O'Rourke.

\textsuperscript{139} For additional discussion, see CRS In Focus IF11678, \textit{The “Quad”: Security Cooperation Among the United States, Japan, India, and Australia}, coordinated by Emma Chanlett-Avery.
U.S.-China Balance of Naval Power

Regarding the U.S.-China balance of naval power in general, U.S. and other observers generally assess that while the United States today has more naval capability overall, China’s naval modernization effort since the 1990s has substantially reduced the U.S. advantage, and that if current U.S. and Chinese naval capability trends (such as those shown in Table 1 and Table 2) do not change, China might eventually draw even with or surpass the United States in overall naval capability. In remarks to a conference on November 3, 2022, for example, Admiral Charles A. Richard, commander of U.S. Strategic Command, stated

As I assess our level of deterrence against China, the ship is slowly sinking. It is sinking slowly, but it is sinking, as fundamentally they are putting capability in the field faster than we are. As those curves keep going, it isn't going to matter how good our [operating plan] is or how good our commanders are, or how good our forces are—we're not going to have enough of them. And that is a very near-term problem....

Undersea capabilities is still the one ... maybe the only true asymmetric advantage we still have against our opponents. But unless we pick up the pace, in terms of getting our maintenance problems fixed, getting new construction going ... if we can't figure that out ... we are not going to put ourselves in a good position to maintain strategic deterrence and national defense.140

Regarding the U.S.-China naval balance of power specifically in the South China Sea, some observers are concerned that China has already drawn even with or even surpassed the United States. U.S. Navy Admiral Philip Davidson, in responses to advance policy questions from the Senate Armed Services Committee for an April 17, 2018, hearing before the committee to consider nominations, including Davidson’s nomination to become Commander, U.S. Pacific Command (PACOM),141 stated that “China is now capable of controlling the South China Sea in all scenarios short of war with the United States.”142

Skeptics of assessments like those above might argue that they do not give adequate weight to relative U.S. strengths (and corresponding Chinese relative weaknesses and limitations) in areas such as undersea warfare; personnel quality, training, and initiative; operational experience (particularly in combat situations); joint operations with other U.S. military services; and potential support from allies and partners, particularly Japan and Australia. A December 7, 2022, blog post, for example, states

One of the data points used to bolster the China threat argument is the relative size of the two naval fleets, but not all fleets are created equal. In terms of the number of ships, the People’s Liberation Army Navy (PLAN) is significantly larger than the U.S. Navy.... The discrepancy between the Chinese fleet and the U.S. fleet is already striking, but it will likely only grow in the coming years, and that simple fact will undoubtedly continue to be exploited by defense hawks....

While the raw data may seem alarming, they hardly tell a complete story. What the U.S. fleet lacks in total numbers it more than makes up in tonnage. The relative weight of a fleet


141 The name of the command has since been changed to the U.S. Indo-Pacific Command (INDOPACOM).

142 Advance Policy Questions for Admiral Philip Davidson, USN Expected Nominee for Commander, U.S. Pacific Command, p. 18. See also pp. 8, 16, 17, 19, and 43.
is significant because it indicates the sailing range and purpose of the fleet. Larger ships are needed for longer voyages, since they can carry more fuel and munitions. For instance, the U.S. Navy’s global mission necessitates larger ships capable of spanning oceans and operating away from friendly shores and land-based defenses.

The Chinese fleet combined displaces approximately 1,854,000 tons, less than half of the total tonnage of the U.S. Navy. The difference is easy to see when comparing similar vessel types.

The larger American ships give the fleet a significant advantage in a number of areas, including the capacity to launch cruise missiles. U.S. surface ships have more than 9,000 vertical missile launch cells, compared to the 1,000 in the Chinese fleet.

When it comes to submarines, the Chinese force is about the same size as the U.S. Navy’s, but the two differ significantly in capability.

China’s Navy would have a difficult time operating outside the waters adjacent to the mainland because it lacks the structure necessary to do so. Much has been made about Chinese aircraft carriers in recent years, but the carrier fleet remains in its infancy.

The Chinese military overall lacks experience conducting major modern combat operations. The Chinese last fought a war in 1979, when the People’s Liberation Army briefly invaded northern Vietnam in support of China’s allies in Cambodia and to disrupt the alliance between the Vietnamese and the Soviet Union. Chinese military leaders are now two generations removed from actual combat experience, which calls into question their potential prowess.

**Davidson Window/Decade of Concern**

Some Members of Congress and other U.S. observers are concerned about the possibility that China might attack Taiwan sometime between 2021 and 2027 (a timeframe sometimes referred to as the Davidson window) or between 2020 and 2030 (a timeframe sometimes referred to as the

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144 At a March 9, 2021, hearing before the Senate Armed Services Committee, Admiral Philip S. Davidson, Commander, U.S. Indo-Pacific Command (USINDOPACOM), when asked about a timeline for a potential conflict in the Taiwan Strait, replied

> I think our concerns are manifest here during this decade not only on the development, the number of ships, aircraft, rockets, etc. that they have—that they have put in the field but the way they are advancing those capabilities as well in combination with everything that you just cited Hong Kong and Tibet and line of actual control in the South China Sea, in the East China Sea.

> I worry that they are accelerating their ambitions to be—to supplant the United States and our leadership role in a rules-based international order which they have long said that they want to do that by 2050. I’m worried about the moving that target closer. Taiwan is clearly one of their ambitions before that, and I think the threat is manifest during this decade, in fact, in the next six years.


The period between 2021 and 2027 subsequently came to be referred to by some observers as the Davidson window. Possibly the earliest user of the term was Jerry Hendrix; see, for example, Jerry Hendrix, “Closing the Davidson Window,” *Real Clear Defense*, July 3, 2021. See also Miya Tanaka, “Ex-U.S. Indo-Pacific Commander Sticks to 2027 Window on Taiwan Aattack,” *Kyodo News*, January 23, 2023.
decade of concern), and about the readiness the U.S. military, including the U.S. Navy, for a conflict in that timeframe.

In addition to the Davidson window and the decade of concern, some observers have offered alternative near-term time windows. Still other observers, including some DOD officials, believe a Chinese attack on Taiwan does not appear to be imminent or is not particularly likely to occur in the near term, or have questioned the notion of identifying a particular time window.

For observers who are concerned about the Davidson window or decade of concern, given the time needed to build major U.S. Navy warships (typically several years), decisions made now on procuring new ships for the Navy will have only a small impact on the number of ships the Navy will have in service during the Davidson window or the decade of concern. (Decisions made now on procuring new ships for the Navy will primarily impact the number of ships the Navy will have in service in years after the Davidson window or the decade of concern, a time period which is also of potential concern to policymakers.) Options for bolstering Navy capabilities during the Davidson window or the decade of concern focus mostly on matters other than procuring new ships, including but not limited to the following, which are not presented in any particular order:


• keeping existing ships and aircraft in service during the Davidson window or decade of concern rather than retiring them during the Davidson window or decade of concern (while preserving the option of retiring them after the end of the Davidson window or decade of concern);
• increasing the material readiness of existing ships and aircraft, so as to maximize the percentage of them that are available for operations, by working down ship and aircraft maintenance backlogs;
• shifting additional ships, aircraft, weapons, and supplies from the Atlantic theater to the Pacific theater (although the risks of doing that in connection with deterring and responding to Russian actions in the Atlantic and Mediterranean would be a factor to consider);
• upgrading existing ships, aircraft, and weapons, particularly through the installation of improved or additional systems or components that can be quickly switched out or bolted on;
• procuring new aircraft, weapons, and unmanned systems, if they can enter service before the end of the Davidson window or the decade of concern;¹⁴⁹
• procuring spare parts and supplies and positioning them in the Pacific;
• acting to alleviate bottlenecks or otherwise increase the capacity of the industrial base to produce aircraft, weapons, and supplies and/or repair ships, aircraft, weapons, and supplies;
• hardening air bases and other land-based facilities in the Pacific that support U.S. Navy operations so as to improve their ability to withstand attack by Chinese missiles or other weapons;
• increasing intelligence, surveillance and reconnaissance (ISR) activities for understanding and monitoring China’s naval forces;
• increasing activities for measuring and understanding the physical operating environment in the Pacific;
• increasing the operational proficiency of Navy personnel through training and exercises; and
• increasing operations for demonstrating U.S. Navy capabilities to China and/or perhaps creating uncertainty or confusion in China about U.S. Navy capabilities, concepts of operations, or tactics.

Divest to Invest

Related to discussion of the Davidson window or decade of concern is discussion of what DOD refers to as its divest-to-invest budget strategy, which refers to DOD’s budget proposals for eliminating certain existing U.S. military platforms (e.g., ships and aircraft) and capabilities that it views as not well aligned with current and projected mission needs so as to release funding for application to what DOD views as higher priorities, including expanding other current military capabilities that DOD views as better aligned with current mission needs, and developing future military capabilities that DOD views as better aligned with projected future mission needs.¹⁵⁰ As

¹⁵⁰ In connection with DOD’s proposed FY2023 budget, for example, see Jim Garamone, “Austin Lays Out Reasoning Behind DOD Budget Request,” DOD News, April 7, 2022.
part of DOD’s divest-to-invest strategy, the military services have included proposed divestments as part of their proposed budgets for FY2024 and prior years. The Department of the Navy states in its FY2024 budget submission that it “continues to scrutinize the portfolio and divest where appropriate to field the strongest balance of capabilities.” Proposed divestments in Navy budget submissions for FY2024 and prior years include proposals to retire certain ships (particularly Littoral Combat Ships, or LCSs) before the end of their expected service lives.

The Navy, DOD, and other supporters of the divest-to-invest strategy argue that it is not cost effective to continue expending funds on platforms and capabilities that are not well aligned with current and projected mission needs, particularly if doing so reduces funding available for current or future capabilities that would be better aligned with current or projected future mission needs. Skeptics of the divest-to-invest strategy argue that it can reduce near-term capabilities that could be useful during the Davidson window or decade of concern, and do so in return for, in some cases, the promise of future capabilities whose realization is uncertain and would happen after the Davidson window or decade of concern. Rather than divesting certain existing platforms, they argue, military officials should focus more on identifying how those platforms might be modified to better align with current and projected future mission needs.

**Other Specific Issues**

As noted earlier, the planned size of the Navy and the shift to a more-distributed fleet architecture are discussed in detail in another CRS report.

The issue of the Navy’s ability to counter China’s ASBMs and hypersonic weapons is discussed in detail in this report in Appendix B.

The issue of the Navy’s ability to counter wake-homing torpedoes may have been made more pressing by the reportedly poor performance of an anti-torpedo torpedo that the Navy was developing as a means for Navy surface ships to counter hard-to-decoy wake-homing torpedoes and other torpedoes. The Navy reportedly removed the anti-torpedo torpedo system from the ships that were equipped with it.

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152 Department of the Navy, Highlights of the Department of the Navy FY 2024 Budget, March 2023, p. 12-3. See also the discussion of proposed Navy FY2023 divestments in Department of the Navy, Highlights of the Department of the Navy FY 2023 Budget, 2022, pp. 12-2 through 12-7.

153 See, for example, Mallory Shelbourne, “SECNAV, CNO Pushing Plans to Decommission 11 Warships in Fiscal Year 2024,” USNI News, March 20, 2023, and the discussion of proposed Navy FY2023 divestments in Department of the Navy, Highlights of the Department of the Navy FY 2023 Budget, 2022, pp. 12-2 through 12-7.


The Navy has initiated efforts to develop and procure longer-ranged ASCMs and other new weapons, but some observers have expressed frustration that these efforts are not moving quickly enough. In support of its efforts, the Navy testified in March 2023 as follows:

**Tomahawk [cruise missile]**

The Navy is continuing investment into Tomahawk Block V new production, Maritime Strike [i.e., anti-ship] Tomahawk, and recertification/modernization of Tomahawk Block IV. The FY 2024 budget request adds $23.4 million to reduce Tomahawk production lead time. These funds are being invested to increase industrial capacity, specifically by relieving chokepoints within the Tomahawk production line.

In the FY 2024 budget request, the Department sustains the Tomahawk as the nation's premier all-weather, long-range, survivable deep strike offensive weapon to include new production of and recertification of current inventory into modernized BLK V Tomahawk missiles. BLK V(a) Maritime Strike Tomahawk (MST) provides a long-range moving maritime strike capability [i.e., a capability to hit moving ships at sea] to meet current and future threats, supporting the Surface Warfare Mission area through the inclusion of a seeker suite in the Tomahawk BLK V missile. The FY 2024 budget request for MST provides continuation of Test and Evaluation (T&E) plans that include missile functional ground testing and missile test flights from a ground launcher apparatus to assess seeker performance, mature and refine seeker algorithms, and provide verification and validation data for Modeling and Simulation. MST IOC [initial operational capability] is planned for FY 2025. The FY 2024 budget request continues engineering, manufacturing, and development of the Joint Multiple-Effects Warhead System (JMEWS), which will deliver a hardened target penetration capability with the Tomahawk BLK V(b) missile in FY 2027. The FY 2024 budget request continues engineering, manufacturing, and development of the Military Code Global Positioning System (GPS) receiver, which will deliver significant increased resiliency in spoofing and jamming threat environments to the Tomahawk BLK V missile in FY 2026.

**Offensive Anti-Surface Warfare (OASuW) Increment 1 / Long Range Anti-Ship Missile (LRASM), LRASM C-1/C-3, and OASuW Increment 2 / HALO**

The FY 2024 President’s Budget requests $639.6 million to initiate LRASM MYP [multiyear procurement] with the USAF. The FY 2024 procurement funding covers the EOQ [economic order quantity materials [i.e., up-front batch orders of components] along with the buy of 91 DON LRASM weapon systems in the initial year of the five-year MYP. The FY 2024 President’s Budget request also includes RDT&E funding for the completion of the LRASM 1.1 capability improvements.

The LRASM C-1 and C-3 variants add near-term, cost-effective capacity to the DON’s long range strike capability while enhancing the OASuW mission. The FY 2024 budget requests funding for Navy strike mission integration and employment by upgrading the existing AGM-158 product [i.e., LRASM] to respond to rapidly changing threats. Navy AGM-158 development efforts also involve development and integration of a Beyond Line-of-Sight radio subsystem to enable dual mission capability and enhanced operational flexibility, optimizing carrier magazine capacity to complement OASuW warfighting capability. The FY 2024 President’s Budget requests $141.9 million to continue developing

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158 For more on MYP contracting, see CRS Report R41909, *Multiyear Procurement (MYP) and Block Buy Contracting in Defense Acquisition: Background and Issues for Congress*, by Ronald O'Rourke.
AGM-158 derived capability and radio integration on F/A-18; develop software for strike mission planning, Universal Armament Interface and missile Operational Flight Plan. The FY 2024 President’s Budget request also includes $83.7 million for procurement of the initial 10 LRASM in the C-3 configuration.

The FY 2024 President’s Budget includes $95.8 million in support of OASuW Increment 2, which is now referred as Hypersonic Air Launched OASuW (HALO). HALO supports the national imperative to mature hypersonic capabilities and will provide the Navy a necessary air-launched, carrier-based weapon to address evolving long range, high speed threats from near peer competitors. In order to deliver this capability to the warfighter when needed, the DON will collaborate heavily with the Air Force.159

**Advanced Anti-Radiation Guided Missile (AARGM) & AARGM Extended-Range (AARGM-ER)**

AARGM domestic procurement completed in FY 2021 with the award of the last DON Full Rate Production (FRP) contract. There have been 1450 AARGMs (All Up Rounds, Training Missiles, and Spares) delivered to the Fleet as of March 2023. Program of record delivery is 1803 missiles. Deliveries continue through FY 2024 in support of the transition to AARGM-ER. AARGM-ER provides the DON with a 5th generation compatible extended-range asset to project power and provide Suppression of Enemy Air Defenses, both at-sea and on land. The first AARGM-ER delivery is scheduled for 4QFY23. The budget requests $195.7 million in Weapons Procurement, Navy (WPN) to procure 77 AARGM-ER all-up rounds and six Captive Air Training Missiles. The FY 2024 President’s Budget requests $51.8 million in RDT&E to support operational and Integration testing of production representative hardware.

**Hypersonic Program**

The DON is developing a hypersonic weapon system that will enable precise and timely strike capability against deep inland targets in contested environments. In collaboration with the Army, the Department is leveraging a common All Up Rounds missile design and test opportunities to field a conventional hypersonic weapon system [i.e., the Conventional Prompt Strike weapon (CPS)]. Zumwalt Class DDGs will be the first Navy platform to field this hypersonic capability in the mid-2020s, followed by Block V Virginia Class SSNs starting in the early 2030s. In March 2020, the Services executed a successful flight test of the Common Hypersonic Glide Body [to be used on CPS], and in June 2022, the Services followed up that testing with several static-fire tests and a flight test of the newly developed two-stage Solid Rocket Motor. The DON has validated the design of the Navy’s cold-gas launch approach and continued sounding rocket testing in support of future capability, manufacturability, and affordability improvements. This rapid development and demonstration of hypersonic strike weapon systems supports the U.S. ability to deter, and if necessary, defeat potential adversaries.

The Department’s FY 2024 budget request funds continued build of the first three All Up Rounds [of CPS] to be delivered to the first Zumwalt Class DDG and All Up Rounds for future flight testing, supports construction of the Underwater Launch Test Facility, and executes two flight tests, including the first launch of the CPS All Up Round using the cold-gas launch approach for sea-based fielding. The request totals $901 million in CPS R&D funding. Additionally, the request includes $341 million in funding to procure additional rounds in support of Zumwalt Class fielding.

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The Marine Corps is working towards the capability to employ smaller, highly mobile hypersonic weapons through science and technology initiatives. The Marine Corps is pursuing an acquisition strategy that leverages the developmental work of other Services and agencies, investing when the capability has reached a higher technology readiness level that allows for expedited prototype experimentation at reduced costs.

**Torpedoes**

The Department continues to invest heavily in increasing the capacity and capability of both the Heavyweight and Lightweight Torpedo inventories to maintain our advantage in the undersea domain against our strategic competitors. The MK 48 Heavyweight Torpedo is the Navy’s primary submarine-launched ASW and ASuW weapon. While the Navy has continued to upgrade its existing inventory to incorporate the latest technology and capability, the Navy restarted production of the MK 48 to meet munitions requirements and during the summer of 2022 accepted the first new production heavyweight torpedoes in over twenty years. In addition, the Department is progressing development of new capabilities with the MK 48 MOD 8 and MK 48 MOD 9 to maintain our advantage over the threat today and in the future. The MK 54 Lightweight Torpedo, which is employed by both surface ships and air platforms, continues to be produced and upgraded to keep pace with the ASW threat. At current production demand, the torpedo industrial base remains healthy, producing the MK 54 MOD 0 for the Nation’s allied partners in addition to the upgraded MK 54 MOD 1 for the U.S. Navy.

The Department has also partnered with industry and University Affiliated Research Centers to rapidly develop and field new and advanced capabilities to further our advantage in the undersea domain. This includes the MK 54 MOD 2, which will improve performance against the high-end threat, as well as a Very Light Weight Torpedo that will deliver multi-mission capability as both a hard-kill torpedo countermeasure and a short range ASW weapon. The Navy is also expanding the methods in which the MK 54 is employed to provide greater flexibility, effectiveness, and lethality. From high altitude via the P-8A and the High Altitude ASW Weapon Capability (HAAWC) wing kit, to the Hammerhead encapsulated effector and future stand-off ASW capabilities, MK 54 payloads will continue to be essential to the US Navy’s and its Allies’ ASW mission.160

An April 19, 2021, press report stated, “Exposing a new layer of long-range striking power for the U.S. Navy carrier battle group, a photo obtained by Aerospace Daily shows what appears to be a Raytheon RIM-174 SM-6 [Standard Missile 6] missile integrated on a left wing pylon of a Boeing F/A-18F Super Hornet in flight.”161

The issue of the operating range of Navy carrier air wings is a key component of an ongoing debate over the future survivability, utility, and cost-effectiveness of aircraft carriers and their air wings, with critics arguing that the current operating range of Navy carrier air wings will force Navy aircraft carriers to operate well within the ranges of Chinese ASBMs or other A2/AD systems, which could put the carriers’ survivability at substantial risk, or alternatively require

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160 Statement of Frederick J. Stefany, Assistant Secretary of the Navy (Research, Development and Acquisition), Acting and Vice Admiral Scott Conn, Deputy Chief of Naval Operations, Warfighting Requirements and Capabilities (OPNAV N9) and Lieutenant General Karsten S. Heckl, Deputy Commandant, Combat Development and Integration, Commanding General, Marine Corps Combat Development Command, before the Subcommittee on Seapower of the Senate Armed Services Committee on Department of the Navy Fiscal Year 2024 Budget Request for Seapower, March 28, 2023, pp. 33-36. See also Aaron-Matthew Lariosa, “US Navy Looks To Drastically Increase Missile Production,” Naval News, April 5, 2023; Brian Everstine, “New U.S. Navy Weapons Plan Favors Speed Over Range,” Aviation Week, September 19, 2022.

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carriers to operate beyond the range of those Chinese A2/AD systems, in locations that are safer but so far away that the carriers and their air wings will contribute little combat capability.

A key U.S. Navy program for increasing the operating range of Navy carrier air wings is the MQ-25 Stingray program, which is a program to acquire a carrier-based unmanned aerial vehicle (UAV) for use as a tanker for in-flight refueling of manned carrier-based aircraft (with a secondary mission of intelligence, surveillance, and reconnaissance). Some observers, while not necessarily objecting to the MQ-25 program, argue that the Navy should do more to increase the operating range of Navy carrier air wings, such as developing a stealthy, carrier-based UAV capable of penetrating enemy air defenses and striking land targets at very long ranges.

The issue of acquisition policies and the metrics for judging their success is discussed in more detail in another CRS report.162

Legislative Activity for FY2024

Coverage in Related CRS Reports

A variety of CRS reports cover U.S. Navy programs that in varying degrees can be viewed as responses to, at least in part, China’s naval modernization effort. These reports, which include legislative activity on the programs they cover, include but are not limited to the following:

- CRS Report RL32665, Navy Force Structure and Shipbuilding Plans: Background and Issues for Congress, by Ronald O'Rourke
- CRS Report RL32418, Navy Virginia-Class Submarine Program and AUKUS Submarine Proposal: Background and Issues for Congress, by Ronald O'Rourke
- CRS In Focus IF11826, Navy Next-Generation Attack Submarine (SSN[X]) Program: Background and Issues for Congress, by Ronald O'Rourke
- CRS Report RS20643, Navy Ford (CVN-78) Class Aircraft Carrier Program: Background and Issues for Congress, by Ronald O'Rourke
- CRS Report RL30563, F-35 Joint Strike Fighter (JSF) Program, by Jeremiah Gertler (the JSF program is a joint DOD program with Navy participation)
- CRS Report RL32109, Navy DDG-51 and DDG-1000 Destroyer Programs: Background and Issues for Congress, by Ronald O'Rourke
- CRS In Focus IF11679, Navy DDG(X) Next-Generation Destroyer Program: Background and Issues for Congress, by Ronald O'Rourke
- CRS Report RL33745, Navy Aegis Ballistic Missile Defense (BMD) Program: Background and Issues for Congress, by Ronald O'Rourke
- CRS Report R44972, Navy Constellation (FFG-62) Class Frigate Program: Background and Issues for Congress, by Ronald O'Rourke
- CRS Report R46374, Navy Medium Landing Ship (LSM) (Previously Light Amphibious Warship [LAW]) Program: Background and Issues for Congress, by Ronald O'Rourke

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- CRS In Focus IF11674, *Navy Light Replenishment Oiler (TAOL) (Previously Next-Generation Logistics Ship [NGLS]) Program: Background and Issues for Congress*, by Ronald O'Rourke
- CRS Report R45757, *Navy Large Unmanned Surface and Undersea Vehicles: Background and Issues for Congress*, by Ronald O'Rourke
- CRS Report R44175, *Navy Shipboard Lasers: Background and Issues for Congress*, by Ronald O'Rourke


**House**

In H.R. 2670 as reported by the House Armed Services Committee (H.Rept. 118-125 of June 30, 2023)

- **Section 184** would direct DOD to submit a to expedite the full integration of the Long-Range Anti-Ship Missile (LRASM) into Air Force B-52 bombers, F-16 fighter aircraft, and any other type of aircraft fleet the Secretary of Defense determines appropriate for inclusion in the plan.

- **Section 1079** would direct DOD to conduct an assessment of, and provide a report on, the effectiveness of low-cost anti-ship weapons in the Indo-Pacific.

- **Section 1314** would direct DOD to provide a report on the feasibility of implementing one or more naval blockades of shipments of fossil fuels to China in the event of an armed conflict between the United States and China.

**Senate**

In S. 2226 as reported by the Senate Armed Services Committee (S.Rept. 118-58 of July 12, 2023), **Section 1367** would direct DOD to complete an analysis of, and provide a report on, the risks and implications of a sustained military blockade of Taiwan by China.
Appendix A. Comparing U.S. and Chinese Numbers of Ships and Naval Capabilities

This appendix presents some additional discussion of factors involved in comparing U.S. and Chinese numbers of ships and naval capabilities.

U.S. and Chinese naval capabilities are sometimes compared by showing comparative numbers of U.S. and Chinese ships. Although the total number of ships in a navy (or a navy’s aggregate tonnage) is relatively easy to calculate, it is a one-dimensional measure that leaves out numerous other factors that bear on a navy’s capabilities and how those capabilities compare to its assigned missions. One-dimensional comparisons of the total numbers of ships in China’s navy and the U.S. Navy are highly problematic as a means of assessing relative U.S. and Chinese naval capabilities and how those capabilities compare to the missions assigned to those navies, for the following reasons:

- **A fleet’s total number of ships (or its aggregate tonnage) is only a partial metric of its capability.** Many factors other than ship numbers (or aggregate tonnage) contribute to naval capability, including types of ships, types and numbers of aircraft, the sophistication of sensors, weapons, C4ISR systems, and networking capabilities, supporting maintenance and logistics capabilities, doctrine and tactics, the quality, education, and training of personnel, and the realism and complexity of exercises. In light of this, navies with similar numbers of ships or similar aggregate tonnages can have significantly different capabilities, and navy-to-navy comparisons of numbers of ships or aggregate tonnages can provide a highly inaccurate sense of their relative capabilities. The warfighting capabilities of navies have derived increasingly from the sophistication of their internal electronics and software. This factor can vary greatly from one navy to the next, and often cannot be easily assessed by outside observation. As the importance of internal electronics and software has grown, the idea of comparing the warfighting capabilities of navies principally on the basis of easily observed factors such as ship numbers and tonnages has become increasingly less reliable, and today is highly problematic.

- **Total numbers of ships of a given type (such as submarines or surface combatants) can obscure potentially significant differences in the capabilities of those ships, both between navies and within one country’s navy.** Differences in capabilities of ships of a given type can arise from a number of other factors, including sensors, weapons, C4ISR systems, networking capabilities, stealth features, damage-control features, cruising range, maximum speed, and reliability and maintainability (which can affect the amount of time the ship is available for operation).

- **A focus on total ship numbers reinforces the notion that changes in total numbers necessarily translate into corresponding or proportional changes in aggregate capability.** For a Navy like China’s, which is modernizing by replacing older, obsolescent ships with more modern and more capable ships, this is not necessarily the case. For example, while China’s attack submarine force has fewer boats now than it had in 2000 or 2005 (see Table 1 and Table 2), it has

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163 For further discussion, see, for example, Robert McKeown, “Assessing Military Capability: More than Just Counting Guns,” *U.S. Naval Institute Proceedings*, December 2022.
considerably more aggregate capability than it did in 2000 or 2005, because the force today includes a much larger percentage of relatively modern designs.

- **Comparisons of total numbers of ships (or aggregate tonnages) do not take into account the differing global responsibilities and homeporting locations of each fleet.** The U.S. Navy has substantial worldwide responsibilities, and a substantial fraction of the U.S. fleet is homeported in the Atlantic. As a consequence, only a certain portion of the U.S. Navy might be available for a crisis or conflict scenario in China’s near-seas region, or could reach that area within a certain amount of time. In contrast, China’s navy has more-limited responsibilities outside China’s near-seas region, and its ships are all homeported along China’s coast at locations that face directly onto China’s near-seas region. In a U.S.-China conflict inside the first island chain, U.S. naval and other forces would be operating at the end of generally long supply lines, while Chinese naval and other forces would be operating at the end of generally short supply lines.

- **Comparisons of numbers of ships (or aggregate tonnages) do not take into account maritime-relevant military capabilities that countries might have outside their navies,** such as land-based anti-ship ballistic missiles (ASBMs), land-based anti-ship cruise missiles (ASCMs), and land-based Air Force aircraft armed with ASCMs or other weapons. Given the significant maritime-relevant non-navy forces present in both the U.S. and Chinese militaries, this is a particularly important consideration in comparing U.S. and Chinese military capabilities for influencing events in the Western Pacific. Although a U.S.-China incident at sea might involve only navy units on both sides, a broader U.S.-China military conflict would more likely be a force-on-force engagement involving multiple branches of each country’s military.

- **The missions to be performed by one country’s navy can differ greatly from the missions to be performed by another country’s navy.** Consequently, navies are better measured against their respective missions than against one another. Although Navy A might have less capability than Navy B, Navy A might nevertheless be better able to perform Navy A’s intended missions than Navy B is to perform Navy B’s intended missions. This is another significant consideration in assessing U.S. and Chinese naval capabilities, because the missions of the two navies are quite different.

As mentioned earlier, while comparisons of the total numbers of ships in China’s Navy and the U.S. Navy are highly problematic as a means of assessing relative U.S. and Chinese naval capabilities and how those capabilities compare to the missions assigned to those navies, an examination of the trends over time in the relative numbers of ships can shed some light on how the relative balance of U.S. and Chinese naval capabilities might be changing over time.
Appendix B. U.S. Navy’s Ability to Counter Chinese ASBMs and Hypersonic Weapons

This appendix provides additional discussion of the issue of the U.S. Navy’s ability to counter China’s ASBMs and hypersonic weapons.

Ability to Counter ASBMs

Although China’s ASBMs, as a new type of weapon, might be considered “game changers,” that does not mean they cannot be countered. There are several potential approaches for countering an ASBM that can be imagined, and these approaches could be used in combination. ASBMs are not the first “game changer” that the Navy has confronted; the Navy in the past has developed counters for other new types of weapons, such as ASCMs, and is likely exploring various approaches for countering ASBMs.

Countering China’s projected ASBMs could involve employing a combination of active (i.e., “hard-kill”) measures, such as shooting down ASBMs with interceptor missiles, and passive (i.e., “soft-kill”) measures, such as those for masking the exact location of Navy ships or confusing ASBM reentry vehicles. Employing a combination of active and passive measures would attack various points in the ASBM “kill chain”—the sequence of events that needs to be completed to carry out a successful ASBM attack. This sequence includes detection, identification, and localization of the target ship, transmission of that data to the ASBM launcher, firing the ASBM, and having the ASBM reentry vehicle find the target ship.

Attacking various points in an opponent’s kill chain is an established method for countering an opponent’s military capability. A September 30, 2011, press report, for example, quotes Lieutenant General Herbert Carlisle, the Air Force’s deputy chief of staff for operations, plans, and requirements, as stating in regard to Air Force planning that “We’ve taken [China’s] kill chains apart to the ‘nth’ degree.” To attack the ASBM kill chain, Navy surface ships, for example, could operate in ways (such as controlling electromagnetic emissions or using deception emitters) that make it more difficult for China to detect, identify, and track those ships. The Navy could acquire weapons and systems for disabling or jamming China’s long-range maritime surveillance and targeting systems, for attacking ASBM launchers, for destroying ASBMs in various stages of flight, and for decoying and confusing ASBMs as they approach their intended targets. Options for destroying ASBMs in


flight include the SM-3 midcourse BMD interceptor missile (including the new Block IIA version) and the SM-6 terminal-defense BMD interceptor missile.\textsuperscript{166} Options for decoying and confusing ASBMs as they approach their intended targets include equipping ships with systems, such as electronic warfare systems or systems for generating radar-opaque smoke clouds or radar-opaque carbon-fiber clouds, that could confuse an ASBM’s terminal-guidance radar.\textsuperscript{167}

An October 4, 2016, press report states the following:

Several times in the past, [Chief of Naval Operations John] Richardson has stressed that long range weapons developments from adversarial nations like Russia and China aren’t the end-all, be-all of naval conflicts.

Just because China’s “carrier-killer” missile has a greater range than the planes aboard a US aircraft carrier doesn’t mean the US would shy away from deploying a carrier within that range. Richardson has stated on different occasions.

Again, Richardson challenged the notion that a so-called A2/AD zone was “an impenetrable keep out zone that forces can only enter at extreme peril to their existence, let alone their mission.”

Richardson took particular issue with the “denial” aspect of A2/AD, repeating his assertion that this denial is an “aspiration” not a “fait accompli.” The maps so common in representing these threats often mark off the limits of different system’s ranges with “red arcs that extend off coastlines,” with the implication that military forces crossing these lines face “certain destruction.”

But this is all speculation according to Richardson: “The reality is far more complex, it’s actually really hard to achieve a hit. It requires the completion of a really complex chain of events... these arcs represent danger for sure... but the threats they are based on are not insurmountable, and can be managed, will be managed.”

“We can fight from within these defended areas, and we will... this is nothing new and has been done before,” said Richardson.

So while Russia and China can develop missiles and radars and declare their ranges on paper, things get a lot trickier in the real world, where the US has the most and best experience in operating.

“Potential adversaries actually have different geographic features like choke points, islands, ocean currents, mountains,” said Richardson, who urged against oversimplifying complicated, and always unique circumstances in so-called A2/AD zones.

“Have no doubt, the US navy is prepared to go wherever it needs to go, at any time, and stay there for as long as necessary in response to our leadership’s call to project our strategic influence,” Richardson concluded.

Similarly, an August 29, 2016, press report states the following:

\textsuperscript{166} For more on the SM-3, including the Block IIA version, and the SM-6, see CRS Report RL33745, \textit{Navy Aegis Ballistic Missile Defense (BMD) Program: Background and Issues for Congress}, by Ronald O'Rourke.

The United States Navy is absolutely confident in the ability of its aircraft carriers and carrier air wings to fly and fight within zones defended by so-called anti-access/area denial (A2/AD) weapons.

In the view of the U.S. Navy leadership, A2/AD—as it is now called—has existed since the dawn of warfare when primitive man was fighting with rocks and spears. Overtime, A2/AD techniques have evolved as technology has improved with ever-greater range and lethality. Rocks and spears eventually gave way to bows and arrows, muskets and cannons. Thus, the advent of long-range anti-ship cruise and ballistic missiles is simply another technological evolution of A2/AD.

“This is the next play in that,” Adm. John Richardson, chief of naval operations, told The National Interest on Aug. 25 during an interview in his office in the Pentagon. “This A2/AD, well, it’s certainly a goal for some of our competitors, but achieving that goal is much different and much more complicated.”

Indeed, as many U.S. Navy commanders including Richardson and Rear Adm. (Upper Half) DeWolfe Miller, the service’s director of air warfare, have pointed out, anti-access bubbles defended by Chinese DF-21D or DF-26 anti-ship ballistic missile systems or Russian Bastion-P supersonic anti-ship missile systems are not impenetrable ‘Iron Domes.’ Nor do formidable Russian and Chinese air defense systems such as the S-400 or HQ-9 necessarily render the airspace they protect into no-go zones for the carrier air wing.

Asked directly if he was confident in the ability of the aircraft carrier and its air wing to fight inside an A2/AD zone protected by anti-ship cruise and ballistic missiles as well as advanced air defenses, Richardson was unequivocal in his answer. “Yes,” Richardson said—but he would not say how exactly how due to the need for operational security. “It’s really a suite of capabilities, but I actually think we’re talking too much in the open about some of the things we’re doing, so I want to be thoughtful about how we talk about things so we don’t give any of our competitors an advantage.”...

Miller said that there have been threats to the carrier since the dawn of naval aviation. In many ways, the threat to the carrier was arguably much greater during the Cold War when the Soviet Union massed entire regiments of Tupolev Tu-22M3 Backfires and deployed massive cruise missile-armed Oscar-class SSGN submarines to hunt down and destroy the Navy’s flattops. The service developed ways to defeat the Soviet threat—and the carrier will adapt to fight in the current environment.

“We could have had this interview twenty-years-ago and there would have been a threat,” Miller said. “The nature of war and A2/AD is not new—that’s my point. I don’t want to downplay it, but our improvements in information warfare, electronic warfare, payloads, the weapons systems that we’ve previously talked about—plus our ability to train to those capabilities that we have—we will create sanctuaries, we’ll fight in those sanctuaries and we’re a maneuver force.”

An October 18, 2017, blog post states the following:

Assuming the DF-21D is ready for battle, can America defend against China’s mighty missile?

While opinions are clearly mixed—in speaking to many sources over the last several years on this topic—it seems clear there is great nervousness in U.S. defense circles. However, as time has passed, initial fears have turned towards a more optimistic assessment.

In the end, the weapon might not be the great “game-changer” that many point it out to be, but a great complicator.\textsuperscript{169}

A January 28, 2021, press report states

The U.S. Navy’s top intelligence officer has said the service is watching closely as China expands its anti-ship missile capabilities, particularly in and around the disputed South China Sea, to include the ongoing development of long-range anti-ship ballistic missiles. At the same time, he said he “hopes” that China’s People’s Liberation Army will continue to invest significant resources into these efforts, hinting that the U.S. Navy already has extensive measures to counter these threats already in use now or in development.

Navy Vice Admiral Jeffrey Trussler, the Deputy Chief of Naval Operations for Information Warfare, made his remarks about China’s anti-ship missile arsenal during an online event put on by the non-profit Intelligence and National Security Alliance on Jan. 27, 2021. …

… not only did Vice Admiral Trussler seem less concerned about PLA anti-ship missile capabilities than one would expect, he made clear he was happy with them continuing to pour time and resources into those efforts.

“I hope they just keep pouring money into that type of thing,” he said. “That may not be how we win the next war.”

The clear indication here is that Trussler is aware of countermeasures, whether they be certain systems or tactics, techniques, and procedures, that are either available now or in development. The Vice Admiral did not offer any specific details about what the Navy is doing to go along with these remarks. …

We also know that, by 2019, warships assigned to the Navy’s 7th Fleet, which is based in Japan, were fitted with the AN/SLQ-59 Transportable Electronic Warfare Modules (TEWM). TEWM is described as a “counter-terminal threat defensive system,” indicating that it is designed to help defeat incoming anti-ship missiles, or other threats, such as swarms of small drones, in the final phase of their attack on a ship. Based on the information available, The War Zone previously assessed that the AN/SLQ-59 was most likely acquired in response to growing cruise missile threats, and Chinese developments, in particular, given its fielding first on ships forward-deployed in Japan.

The Navy has also been hard at work developing an entire networked electronic warfare “ecosystem,” as part of its shadowy Netted Emulation of Multi-Element Signature against Integrated Sensors program, or NEMESIS. The goal here has been to craft a ‘system of systems’ comprising of various manned and unmanned ships, as well as submarines and aircraft, equipped with electronic warfare systems that can work together cooperatively. One of the key uses of these capabilities would be to generate signals that mimic real fleets of ships and aircraft to distract and confuse opponents, making it difficult for them to effectively spot and target real Navy assets. These networked electronic warfare platforms could also employ other kinds of electronic warfare tactics across a broad area to protect against various kinds of threats. You can read more about NEMESIS in detail in this past War Zone feature.\textsuperscript{170}

A highly adaptive and deeply networked electronic warfare ecosystem could be particularly useful against long-range anti-ship missile strikes, especially using ballistic missiles, which


\textsuperscript{170} The article linked at this point is Brett Tingley, “The Navy’s Secretive And Revolutionary Program To Project False Fleets From Drone Swarms,” \textit{The Drive}, November 7, 2019.
would require targeting information from offboard platforms and the ability to send updated information to the weapon during the mid-course stage of flight.

The Navy does have Arleigh Burke class destroyers outfitted specifically for ballistic missile defense, including the ability to launch the SM-3 Block IIA interceptor, which is designed to knock down ballistic missiles during the mid-course portion of their flight. Those ships are also slated to get interceptors designed to bring down hypersonic weapons in the future as part of the Regional Glide Phase Weapon System (RGPWS) program.

The Navy, which has been looking to stop deploying Arleigh Burkes on dedicated missile defense missions, could seek to make more widespread use of the SM-3 Block IIA in the future. Those destroyers and other ships could gain additional missile defense capabilities as the improved Block IB variant of the SM-6 missile begins to enter service. Existing Block I and IA versions of the SM-6 already have the ability to intercept ballistic missiles during the terminal phase of their flight, as well as engage various other aerial and surface threats. The SM-6, in particular, potentially provides a potent defense against anti-ship ballistic missiles, especially those that break through mid-course traditional ballistic missile defenses, if mid-course ballistic missile defense assets are available at all.

There’s the possibility that Vice Admiral Trussler is aware of other developments in the classified realm that could further mitigate some or all of these threats, as well. Beyond that, there’s no discounting that his public comments, which are certain to be scrutinized by the PLA itself, are a form of misinformation designed to prompt concerns within the Chinese military that its priorities may be, in some way, seriously off base.

Whatever the case, the threat posed by China’s anti-ship missile arsenal, which continues to grow in capability, including with the development of new anti-ship ballistic missiles, is real. At the same time, while the Navy obviously knows this, the service seems to be strongly hinting that it feels it making very good progress on getting around these challenges, or at least wants to make the Chinese think so.171

Regarding the above-reported remarks by Vice Admiral Trussler, a January 29, 2021, press report stated:

That confident [U.S. Navy] posture caught the attention of the Chinese military establishment. “What Trussler is saying is that the U.S. has sufficient power to handle the anti-ship missile threat from China,” former People’s Liberation Army instructor Song Zhongping told the South China Morning Post on Friday [January 29]. “The U.S. is emphasizing that threat and it will further boost its defenses against Chinese missiles.”172

**Ability to Counter Hypersonic Weapons**

Another CRS report provides a brief survey of DOD (including Navy) efforts for developing defenses against hypersonic weapons.173

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Regarding the Navy efforts to develop capabilities for countering hypersonic weapons, at a May 9, 2023, hearing on missile defense programs before the Strategic Forces subcommittee of the Senate Armed Services Committee, the Director of the Missile Defense Agency (MDA) stated

MDA plans to conduct a Tracking Exercise, Flight Test Other (FTX)-23, with two [U.S. Navy] Aegis ships to perform target scene data collection of an MRBM with countermeasures. We will also demonstrate Aegis SBT [sea-based terminal defense] with a salvo engagement in Flight Test Aegis Weapon System (FTM)-32, firing two (salvo) SM-6 Dual II software upgrade guided missiles against a MRBM [medium-range ballistic missile]. In FTX-40 we will fire a simulated SM-6 missile against a hypersonic glide vehicle....

We also are developing a layered defense capability against regional hypersonic threats and have initiated a development program for a Glide Phase Interceptor [GPI], leveraging existing systems where possible, including proven engage-on-remote and launch-on-remote capabilities. We are focusing on the proven Aegis Weapon System to provide the depth-of-fire needed for a layered defense against hypersonic threats. In FY 2024, MDA will continue to develop and mature the GPI capability and leverage the Aegis Weapon System. Today, MDA already provides the Navy an initial terminal defense capability. We also are working closely with the Navy to develop, field, and upgrade SBT defenses to counter more advanced maneuvering and hypersonic threats. We anticipate delivering these Increment 3 capabilities in 2025. In FY 2024, Aegis SBT will demonstrate an engagement against an advanced target in the terminal phase (FTM-32) and a simulated engagement against a hypersonic glide vehicle (FTX-40). In FY 2025, SBT Increment 3 will demonstrate an engagement against a hypersonic glide vehicle firing an SM-6 Block IAU missile (FTM-43).\textsuperscript{174}

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For more on the Aegis ballistic missile defense (BMD) program, see CRS Report RL33745, \textit{Navy Aegis Ballistic Missile Defense (BMD) Program: Background and Issues for Congress}, by Ronald O'Rourke.
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