
LEADERSHIP: 2000 AND BEYOND

Second Edition | Volume II

OFFICERSHIP ♦ MANAGEMENT ♦ COMMUNICATIONS ♦
CONFLICT MANAGEMENT ♦ PROBLEM SOLVING ♦ COUNSELING



June 2004

LEADERSHIP: 2000 AND BEYOND

Second Edition

PREFACE

Cadets may study this second edition or the original 1993 edition to complete leadership laboratory requirements.

This two-volume text is used by CAP cadets to study the art of leadership. For details on how the leadership laboratory is implemented in the CAP Cadet Program, see CAPR 52-16, *Cadet Program Management*, available at www.cap.gov.

Nearly identical to its predecessor, the second edition maintains the fundamental goals and plan of the original 1993 edition. However, the editors have slightly modified the text by:

- ▶ Clarifying the learning objectives and revising the end-of-chapter study aids;
- ▶ Simplifying the text and focusing solely on leadership content, to include removing CAP policy guidance and promotion requirements best described in other directives;
- ▶ Updating the images depicting airpower pioneers and removing art that did not advance the text's educational goals;
- ▶ Organizing the chapters into two volumes instead of three (one volume for enlisted cadets and one for cadet officers);
- ▶ Keeping the narrative intact for the sake of consistency, except for editing the grammar and style in a few instances.

Most of the edits described above were needed because the cadet grade structure, promotion requirements, and CAP policy described in the 1993 edition have evolved since its publication. By focusing solely on *leadership*, the second edition does not reiterate perishable information already explained in other CAP publications.

Therefore, with no fundamental changes to the text's content, cadets may study either the first or second edition of *Leadership: 2000 and Beyond*. Their choice will have no adverse effect on their ability to pass achievement tests and milestone exams.

Leadership: 2000 and Beyond contains many valuable leadership insights. However, this second edition will also be its last. The next edition of the CAP cadet leadership text will be completely redesigned through a partnership with senior CAP leaders and cadet program experts, members of the USAF Air University faculty, and HQ CAP education managers. That text will continue to introduce cadets to Air Force leadership concepts.



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Chapter 8

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, you will learn the duties and responsibilities of the flight commander. You also will learn what management generally is, with specific attention to planning and organizing. As you progress through this and following chapters, you will start learning the fundamentals of officership and will cross the threshold from technician (doer) to supervisor to manager. You will learn how to plan meetings, drill larger units, and what some of the details are of specific unit positions.

THE CADET OFFICER

When you read Chapter 3, you became aware of how an officer's role is different from a NCO's. Now, instead of dealing directly with new cadets, you should be dealing primarily with the cadet noncommissioned officers. In most cases they should be giving orders directly to the lower ranking cadets.

Assuming an Assignment

In assuming a new assignment, first read the position description. Consult CAPR 20-1, *Organization of Civil Air Patrol*, as well as CAPP 52-14, *Cadet Staff Duty Analysis*.

Then, get more details; talk to the cadet officer directly responsible for you. If you are assisting the cadet aerospace education officer, for example, talk to the cadet aerospace officer. If you are not an assistant, talk to the cadet commander about what is expected from you.. Also talk to the cadet who held the position before you.

Because you are a member of a team, you will need to be familiar with (but not know in as much detail as your own job) the duties and responsibilities of other cadets. This way, when you function, you will not be doing their jobs, you will get your job done without disrupting theirs, and you will have a better idea of how you can help each other.

Occasionally, you may be working directly with your senior member counterparts as well. If so, they will tell you how they do their jobs, but you are responsible to apply and adapt their ways to what will best work for you and your cadet commander. Senior members guide you with their technical assistance, not give you orders (except if you are a cadet commander, when someone designated by the senior member unit commander will have this authority). You will be working under the direction of the cadet commander.

Occasionally, a unit will have its own standard operating procedures manual to help you know what particular staff procedures work best with what the cadet unit commander wants. In such cases, obtain a copy of your unit manuals and study them carefully.

IDENTIFY THE BASIC CONCEPTS AND STEPS INVOLVED IN ASSUMING AN ASSIGNMENT.

Obviously, you give direct orders to your unit en masse and should follow up with some direct contact with each of your cadets occasionally.

Set limits on the latitude of your cadet officer assistants to (1) assure safety, (2) produce positive results, and (3) produce the results on time.

Assuming a Command Assignment

If you are functioning only as a flight commander, and not as a cadet unit commander, you command only your flight. Whenever the cadet unit commander is absent from command for any reason, the next cadet present in the unit's chain of command automatically assumes command until relieved by higher authority. In this case, and when temporarily put in command (and expecting the cadet commander to return shortly), strictly stick to the cadet commander's policies. In such a situation, you shoulder all the responsibility and the authority previously held by the cadet unit commander. Act slowly and cautiously; sometimes officers assuming command are too quick to change standing operating procedures, policies and generally create confusion. Study the organization, its members overseeing the cadet program. Look at the staff duty analyses in this chapter and in Chapter 15, as you need them.

Supporting existing unit commander's policies is an example of loyalty and of earning loyalty in the future. This is a part of earned authority, the best form of authority.

Assuming a Staff Assignment

Normally, you will not be expected to give orders, except when asked to command the flight or squadron. Otherwise, you, as a staff officer will give orders only to those cadets who are assisting you in performing those staff duties assigned to you.

Here, again, you exercise loyalty to your commander and earn loyalty when you become a commander in the future. Through your actions you foster a sense of responsibility in your cadets even as a staff officer.

You certainly should not bother your cadet commander with details. Rather, you should deal with details on your own initiative in support of your commander's views. If you do not yet know your commander's views, ask! Until you and your cadet commander get used to working with each other, communicate at least weekly on all unit matters. As you gain experience, you will be able to tell what is routine and what is not. Identify what these routine matters are and tell your commander you would like to handle these and report about them at the staff meeting. In matters that are unusual, difficult, or unfamiliar, think about what to do, suggest it to the cadet commander, then ask for the cadet commander's advice before acting. As you learn more about your staff assignment, more will seem "routine." Still, you both must agree upon what requires commander approval and what you do strictly on your own. Act within the commander's authority and policies, and as if you yourself bore the sole responsibility for your actions. Would you be willing to undertake the execution of the decision you recommend if you were a subordinate element commander receiving orders of this staff?

Developing a Sense of Responsibility in Your Cadets

Learn the duties and responsibilities of your superiors to prepare to accept their duties. Do not wait for them to ask you, ask them first. By seeking responsibility, you develop professionally and increase your leadership abilities. Develop responsibility in your NCO's by giving them enough authority to get the job done. This develops mutual confidence and respect between you and your NCO's. It also encourages them to exercise initiative and to give you their whole-hearted cooperation.

Make a list of the different tasks in your flight. How many have you assigned to NCO's and others in the flight? Could you delegate more? What can you say about the types of jobs you have delegated? What kind of things are you still doing?

By showing faith in them, you will increase their desire to accept greater responsibilities. Here are some guidelines for delegating authority and assigning responsibility:

- ▶ After they are trained, tell your NCO's what to do, not how to do it, and hold them responsible for results. Delegate and monitor, but do not intervene and supervise, unless necessary.
- ▶ Give them frequent chances to do duties at the next higher level of responsibility.
- ▶ Give advice and assistance freely when they ask for it.
- ▶ Correct errors in their judgment and initiative in a way that encourages them. Correct in private, praise in public.
- ▶ Be prompt and fair in backing your NCO's. Until convinced otherwise, have faith in each of them.

DECISION-MAKING

Decision-making is important whether you work alone or in conferences, advisory councils, and seminars. In either case, this helps you when regulations and procedures do not answer all your questions. You need to quickly and to accurately evaluate a situation and make a sound decision. Constant study, training, and proper planning will lay the groundwork for professional competency. Problem-solving, discussed in the next chapter, expands on decision-making. For now, here are some things you can do to help yourself.

Develop a logical and orderly thought process. Each day constantly update your objective estimate of the situation.

Try to plan for serious thing that can go wrong.

- ▶ Consider the advice and suggestions of your NCO's before making your final decision.
- ▶ Analyze past decisions to see why they were good or bad.
- ▶ Announce decisions early enough to let NCO's and staff make necessary plans to support you.
- ▶ Encourage input from inside your flight or unit.

IDENTIFY WAYS YOU CAN PREPARE YOURSELF TO MAKE SOUND DECISIONS.

MANAGEMENT: AN OVERVIEW

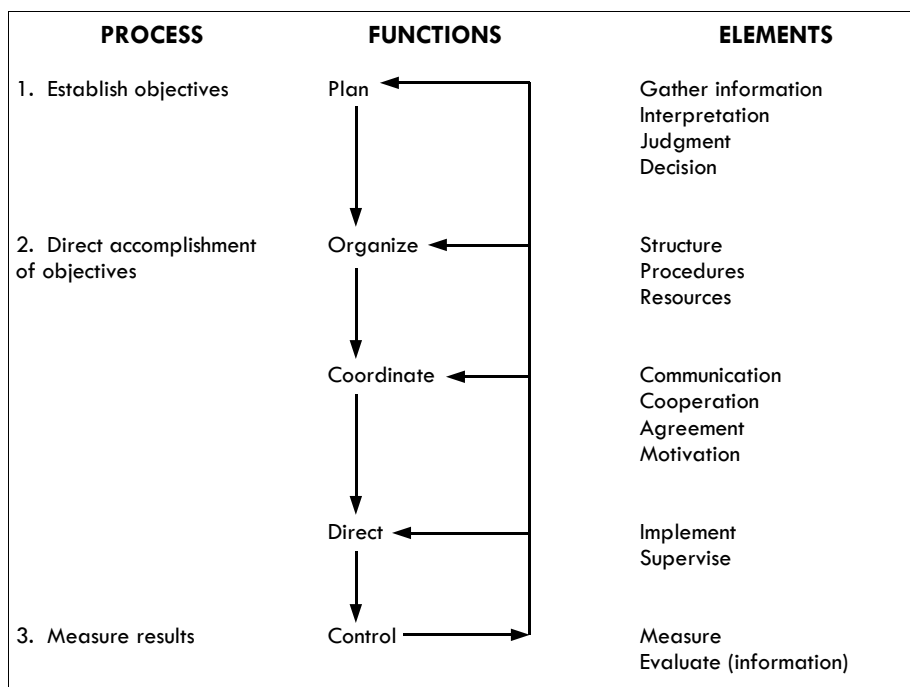
The Air Force defines management as “the process of organizing and using resources to accomplish predetermined objectives.” When you manage, you try to get results effectively and efficiently through the efforts of other people. Management is different from technical proficiency. You must understand the nature of the work, but not do the actual (technical) job yourself. Instead, you deal with the meaning, purpose, and results of the work. Set goals and create the conditions for reaching them. The resources you use in managing are people, money, material, and time. Managers provide leadership, guidance, policies, and decisions so that the efforts of all are brought together toward achieving their goals.

DEFINE MANAGEMENT, THE DIFFERENT MANAGEMENT SCHOOLS OF THOUGHT, AND STATE THE FUNCTIONS OF MANAGEMENT.

The Air Force uses management ideas from four schools of thought. From the *traditional* school, comes the idea of the straight-line chain of command that places the responsibility on one person with authority to give orders to subordinates. The *behavioral* school emphasizes people are its most valuable resource, and that individual efforts must be recognized and rewarded. The *mathematical* school requires that decisions be based on precise analytical data. The *systems* school emphasizes flow charts and flow diagrams to plot and analyze internal and external factors and how they effect mission achievement. The Air Force management philosophy is summed up in seven statements:

- ▶ Management is an inherent responsibility of command.
- ▶ Management policy must assure progressively achieving general goals.
- ▶ Achieve the greatest effectiveness possible with available resources.
- ▶ Local control of operations is essential to their best use.
- ▶ Central control of resources is essential to their best use.
- ▶ Maximum effectiveness can be achieved only if people are recognized and respected as individuals.
- ▶ Confidence in the organization is maintained by demonstrated managerial ability and individual integrity.

The management process has three basic steps: establish objectives, accomplish objectives, and measure results. To do these steps you must do five things: plan, organize, coordinate, direct, and control. These functions are further subdivided into elements. The figure below shows the way these steps, functions, and elements relate to each other. You will further explore planning in Chapter 9, Organizing in Chapter 10, Coordinating in Chapter 11, Directing in Chapter 12, and Controlling in Chapter 13.



THE MANGEMENT PROCESS

TYPES OF COMMUNICATION

Verbal. One way to be sure your orders are understood is to politely ask them to repeat the orders if they are complex or extremely important. This lets you know how completely and accurately they heard you. It also emphasizes two-way communication. Discussing the directives not only helps ensure followers understand your desires, but it also helps them understand each other.

There are four types of verbal direction: demand, request, suggestion, and volunteer. The *demand* type of direction is most effective when you require immediate action and strict control, such as in drill, or in an emergency. If you use it unnecessarily or too often, however, it causes resentment. The *request* is mostly used in day-to-day directing. It is just as binding as the demand type of direction, but it is more respectful and polite. When you deal with willing and cooperative workers, this type of direction gets the best results. The *suggestion* is mostly effective with fully competent individuals who readily accept responsibility. This type of direction stimulates their initiative more than the other types of direction since it allows them to decide what specifically to do. The *volunteer* method of direction is rarely used, except for tasks that are beyond the call of duty and in situations involving danger or abnormal conditions. It implies a choice; the other types of direction do not.

Written. Use written communications for precise or complicated instructions. Use it when people are to be held accountable, directions must be followed exactly, permanent record of the procedure is necessary, or people have trouble following oral instructions.

Remember, when writing directives, write so everyone involved can discuss them. If time permits, give directives a “trial run” by letting some individuals read them to see if your meaning is clear.

Verbal directions are used to give routine minor details, to clarify a written order, to help in emergencies, and to give your people a chance to ask questions. Use oral instructions most of the time to stimulate initiative and promote favorable attitudes. However, too many of both written and oral orders weaken authority and cause confusion. The fewer orders the better. In addition, there should be a clearly defined chain of command where each person receives orders from one source only.

STAFF MEETINGS

As you gain rank and hold command and staff positions, you will be called on to set up, be a part of, or conduct, a staff meeting. You may have to plan training with your flight sergeant and element leaders as co-instructors for a weekend activity like first-aid training, communications training, or safety.

Staff meetings can be held anytime depending on the local need and the situation. These meetings should be businesslike and brief. Be well prepared with a pre-determined agenda and a specified time to conclude the meeting. Types of agenda items include “standing” and “special.” A standing agenda item recurs at every staff meeting, such as cadet progress and cadet orientation flights flown. A special agenda item has temporary interest or action attached to it. Examples of this would be encampments, unit activities, and recruiting drives. Good staff

NAME AND DESCRIBE THE DIFFERENT TYPES OF COMMUNICATION.

As your people grow in experience and competence, your leadership style will change. As you and they grow more confident in one another, your style will be less autocratic and will become more democratic.

Policies are often standard operating procedures (SOP's) which are written orders.

IDENTIFY THE PURPOSE OF STAFF MEETINGS. EXPLAIN THE TYPES OF AGENDA ITEMS, AND STATE THE REASONS FOR FEEDBACK.

Be sure you see the staff meeting agenda at your unit. Have a staff member review the “standing” and “special” items with you.

meetings provide information, give a chance to seek advice and feedback, to plan, and to solve problems. For cadet staff meetings, a senior member should attend to observe, advise, and to serve as a link to the senior staff about cadet affairs.

In going through agenda items, go into enough detail to accomplish your purpose. Inform about upcoming events and ensure tasks are assigned, understood and followed up. Communication between staff members ensures tasks are successfully done and that the channels for feedback are open.

Getting staff feedback is very important to the commander. An uninformed commander will make poor decisions or act with incomplete information. Every member attending is obligated to provide the “bad” news and the “good” news. Feedback may identify the need for problem solving.

A staff meeting is a chance for you to delegate needed tasks. The commander may find a small group of four to five can work as a committee to help run the unit. Avoid cliques making up a whole committee because they lose sight of the need for involvement outside the committee. Keep in mind that many units fail because too few members have too many jobs. A task force is a temporary committee working on special agenda items. Committees gather information that may not be readily available and bring a recommendation to the staff.

Cadets and seniors should each have their own staff meetings, but occasional joint meetings are needed; cadets and seniors must communicate because their missions are all related. Conduct occasional social affairs, such as picnics, dances, and sports with both cadets and seniors participating. Recreation is as vital to mission accomplishment as conducting the mission, when kept in proper balance.

Appoint a recorder to keep accurate minutes. This will save time at following meetings due to backtracking and forgetting assignments. Accurately recording the minutes will also create a written calendar of events, assignments suspense dates and priorities.

Examples of coordination include having a senior member participate at a cadet meeting or having a cadet participate at a senior staff meeting.

Make sure you have a copy of the last staff meeting minutes to distribute and discuss. It could be posted for everyone to see.

Handouts are particularly useful when reporting on something complex or providing numerous details which other staff members will need for future reference.

DRILL AND CEREMONIES

In AFMAN 36-2203, study squadron-level drill, to include the following movements:

- Close on Leading Flight
- Right (Left) Turn
- Squadron Mass Left
- Extended Mass Formation
- Stand Fast
- Column of Flights
- Continue the March

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Describe what steps you would take if asked to assume a new staff assignment or command assignment.
2. Describe how a cadet officer can develop a sense of responsibility in cadet NCOs and airmen.
3. Explain the principle, “correct in private, praise in public.” Why is it not the other way around?
4. Describe some principles that can guide you in making sound decisions.
5. Identify and describe the four management ideas or schools of thought described in this text.
6. Explain the function of management. Does it differ from leadership? How?
7. Identify the three basic steps in the management process.
8. Identify the two basic types of communication. Describe the circumstances when each will be most effective.
9. Explain the purpose of the staff meeting.
10. Discuss the importance of feedback, minutes, and coordination during staff meetings.

SPECIAL READINGS

OATH OF OFFICE

I, [state your name], having been appointed a second lieutenant, United States Air Force do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will support and defend the Constitution of the United States against all enemies, foreign and domestic; that I will bear true faith and allegiance to the same; that I take this obligation freely, without any mental reservation or purpose of evasion; and that I will well and faithfully discharge the duties of the office upon which I am about to enter, so help me God.

GENERAL ARNOLD'S LETTER TO LT. COL. STEFEN

In 1947, Lt. Col. LeRoy L. Stefen wrote to General of the Army H.H. Arnold and asked the question: "What qualities help an officer to get ahead in the service?" Gen. Arnold's response was as follows:

Dear Colonel Stefen:

Your recent question has so many ramifications, I can suggest but a few of what appear to me to be the most generally important requisites for a successful military career. Here they are:

1. **Basic knowledge.** Exact, clear knowledge: not a hazy smattering. This kind of knowledge of the basics of your profession; of every assignment you are given—this is your "technique," this constitutes your "tools."

2. **Hard Work.** Unrelenting hard work. Some persons have a natural capacity for it; others have to develop it. No outstanding success is ever achieved without it.

3. **Vision.** The degree of vision depends, naturally, upon the quality of an individual's imagination; yet, one can train himself to look beyond his immediate assignment, to its relation to the next higher echelon of command, and the next, and the next, and, so on, to the highest level or overall sphere of activity of which he can envision its being a part. He can also—if he has the capacity—envision possibilities yet underdeveloped: new horizons of activity. This is the kind of vision that begets enthusiasm; and enthusiasm is the eager, driving force that converts dreams into realities.

4. **Judgment.** Not only the judgment that makes quick, correct decisions, but the ability to judge human nature, as well. Putting the right men in the right places—this is an essential in building a strong, successful organization.

5. **Articulateness.** A comparatively overlooked factor, but, nevertheless, a most important one. Many an excellent idea is "stillborn" because its originator did not have the ability "to put it across." Public speaking courses are excellent aids to acquiring this faculty.

6. **Properly adjusted human relationships.** Naturally, this is largely a matter of personality: some persons just naturally get along with people; others, just as naturally, do not. But in the military sphere, if one is going "to get to first base," he

must be able to handle men successfully, The study of psychology is undoubtedly a great practical help to those who find the matter of human relationships somewhat difficult; but I have also observed these things help: firmness, plus tolerance; sympathetic understanding of the little man's position and problems, as well as understanding of one's relation to the man at the top. Best of all, of course, is the practical application of the Golden Rule—the simplest and the best code of ethics as yet devised.

7. **Personal integrity.** This covers a very wide field, To touch upon one or two—it means, for example, maintaining the courage of one's convictions. By no means should this be confused with stubborn thinking. Stubborn thinking is as outmoded as the ox cart. Its exact opposite, resilient thinking, is Today's Must: a man must be able to accommodate his thinking quickly and accurately to his rapidly changing world; nevertheless, it must be his thinking—not someone's else. integrity also means moral integrity. Regardless of what appear to be some superficial ideas of present-day conduct, fundamentally—today as always—the man who is genuinely respected is the man who keeps his moral integrity sound: who is trustworthy in every respect. To be successful, a man must trust others: and a man cannot trust others, who does not trust himself.

These are but a few thoughts. When it comes right down to “brass tacks,” however, in the military field, as in all other fields, it would seem to be a man's native ability that spells the difference between failure and mediocrity; between mediocrity and success. Two men may work equally hard toward a common goal; one will have just that “something” the other lacks, that puts him at the top. This is the intangible—the spirit of a man.

With very best wishes for your success,
H. H. ARNOLD,
General of the Army

Chapter 9

INTRODUCTION

Now it is time to focus on some staff positions essential to operating a CAP unit. Administration requires much behind-the-scenes work. Without it, unit progress will be sporadic. This chapter describe what administrative work entails, how it is done, and why it is done.

MANAGEMENT PRINCIPLES: PLANNING

Planning is the first of the five management functions mentioned in Chapter 8. It is unique because it establishes the objectives necessary to all the unit's effort. High-echelon planning is broad and general; detailed planning is done at lower echelons. Since operations are always changing, you must plan all the time. You must make plans before you can know what kind of organizing, coordinating, directing and controlling are necessary. When you manage, you will always have to plan, although the nature and scope of planning depends on your authority and with limits higher headquarters sets for you. Plans are efficient only if they attain objectives without too high a cost. Many military commanders have successfully carried out plans to seize an enemy stronghold, but failed because the operation costs too much in men and equipment. Planning efficiently goes beyond dollars, work hours, and other measurable factors; it includes individual and unit satisfaction.

Define and Analyze Your Objective. Since the nature of the mission determines what your plan will be, understand the mission objective in order to make good decisions. You must break the mission into parts and see the relationships between them. Analyze each objective to learn what you need to achieve it. Decide which specific tasks you will analyze until you decide exactly who does what. Then, establish relationships between one person doing one task and another person doing another. Finally, find the sequence of steps necessary to finish the job. Planning answers what should be done, how and where it should be done, who should do it, and with what resources—money, material, time and human. How detailed you get depends on what organizational level you are planning for. The higher the unit, the more general the planning.

Evaluate the Situation. Decide the roles of, and establish liaison with, the other parts of the unit. Decide how far you can rely on their help, how they fit into the scheme of the operation, what contribution they can make, and what are the relative priorities of these contributions.

Consider Possible Courses of Action. Get your people together, explain the objective, tell them what resources are available, and ask them to “brainstorm” for ideas (see Chapter 15 to learn more about creative thinking).

Select the Best Course of Action. During this process, you usually think in terms of suitability, feasibility, adequacy, and acceptability. To be suitable, a course of action must fit the assigned mission. To be feasible, it must be possible. To be

STATE THE REASONS FOR PLANNING.

EXPLAIN THE STEPS IN PLANNING.

Planning is similar to a journey. First you need a place to go (objective). Second, a starting place. Evaluate where you are now (note resources). Then you can figure out how to go from start to objective.

adequate it must meet established requirements. To be acceptable, it must merit approval as part of the larger plan.

Develop an Alternate Plan. Conditions often change, resources may not be available as expected, or even the specific objective may change. In certain situations there may be no time to re-plan. Your alternate plan must be as carefully selected and as fully developed as your primary plan.

Test Both Plans for Completeness. Be sure the plans explain “what, where, when, who and how.” As you ask these questions, decide whether your plan is suitable, feasible, adequate, and acceptable. Question not only the general plan, but each detail.

CORRESPONDENCE

As a cadet officer, you will write correspondence. It could be a simple formal letter to your cadet unit commander, Cadet Advisory Council, or someone outside CAP. Often you will write for (or polish the writings of) your cadet commander and other staff officers. Your duties may involve writing personnel authorizations or participation letters for cadet activities.

**DESCRIBE THE FUNCTION AND
FORMAT OF EACH TYPE OF CAP
CORRESPONDENCE.**

Letters

There are three types of Civil Air Patrol letter formats—military, business, and endorsement. After we discuss all three types, you will write examples of each

The military format letter is used primarily for communication with CAP units and military agencies. As shown in CAPR 10-1, *Preparing and Processing CAP Correspondence* you may use the CAP seal on this type of letter. In the body, individual paragraphs are numbered. Subparagraphs are lettered or numbered as shown in the regulation. Unlike a business-style letter, you may use attachments and information copies listed on a military formal letter.

An endorsement letter is actually something you type at the bottom of a military letter. The military letter requests approval and the endorsement indicates whether or not the approval has been given. It is used between or within CAP units to save time and resources. The text is single-spaced and each endorsement is numbered in sequence. Endorsement letters may have more than one page for endorsements and attachments for each endorsement.

In a business letter you are usually communicating with someone outside of CAP. A business-style letter usually contains a letterhead, a date, a body, and a signature element, as a military-style letter does. There are three acceptable letter formats: the full blocked style, the modified block style with blocked paragraphs, and the modified block style with indented paragraphs. In all three business formats paragraphs are never numbered. In CAP we use the full block style with all parts of the letter and all typing started flush with the left margin.

Personnel Authorizations

Personnel Authorizations assign specific tasks to individual. They are particularly useful if several people have been reassigned or assigned at one time; simply make a copy for each person’s personnel file, rather than make a separate CAPF 2a for each person. They can be used at all levels to appoint individuals to member-

ship on boards or committees or to make assignments. Briefly, these must be on the letterhead of the unit making the assignment. They must be numbered sequentially beginning with 1 during the calendar year. The effective date of these actions is usually the date on which they are published, unless otherwise stated in the letter. They must have a commander's signature element followed by a list of people and places where the authorization will be distributed. (See CAPR 10-1 for further details.)

Participation Letters

Participation letters verify attendance and participation at CAP activities. These letters can be short and informal. They need to state the activity, the date(s) and who attended.

PROBLEM SOLVING

This section expands on decision-making presented in Chapter 8. There are two levels of problem solving. The first one is discussed here, the second level deals with how to write the problem-solving process as a staff study report. The staff study report will appear in a later chapter.

The problem solving steps follow a logical sequence. But, do not follow this sequence blindly. Developments in one phase may cause you to reconsider a previous phase. The sequence also may vary with different types of problems and with the way you recognize the problem. The sequence is as follows:

Recognize the Problem. Creative thinking determines how successful you will be. In every problem there is a goal, an individual or group wanting to achieve the goal, and an obstacle to the goal. Always make certain you do not confuse the obstacle for the problem.

Gather Data. This process begins when you recognize the obstacle and it continues until you implement the solution. Data is classified as facts, criteria, and assumptions.

List Possible Solutions. Use creative thinking during this phase to allow yourself to visualize, perceive, and produce new ideas. Remember, the rules of brainstorming and do not pass judgment on any solution at this phase.

Test Possible Solutions. This begins with a general evaluation of the solutions. Discard solutions that are obviously unworthy and reevaluate your list until just one or two solutions are left.

Select the Best Possible Solution. If you eliminated all but one solution, you have selected the best possible solution. If you have more than one solution, establish additional criteria (or more stringent criteria) to find the best possible solution.

Apply the Solution. Your purpose in working with a problem is to solve it. Selecting a solution alone cannot solve it; you must put it into effect, then test its effectiveness.

LIST AND EXPLAIN EACH STEP IN PROBLEM SOLVING.

You cannot solve a problem if you cannot define it.

Asking questions and listening is crucial to accomplishing many of the problem solving steps.

How you apply the solution can help or kill the solution.

You have reviewed the steps in problem solving, now look try to solve some problems. Here are three situations showing how to apply the problem-solving process just discussed. Think of how you would solve these; you may find it helpful to discuss them in leadership class:

Problem 1. You are a cadet major and the commander of a four year old CAP cadet squadron. You started the squadron and, many of the cadets are original members. They have progressed gradually until all cadet command and staff slots are filled by experienced and capable cadet officers. Cadet Jack Armstrong has recently transferred into your squadron from another CAP region. His father, a senior Air Force officer, has relocated in your squadron area. In his old unit, Jack was recently promoted to lieutenant colonel and next in line to be cadet commander. He appears capable, is enthusiastic, forceful and ambitious, and has a highly laudatory letter of recommendation from his former squadron commander. It is obvious that he expects to assume a position of leadership if he remains in your unit.

Differentiate between what people “know” and how they “feel” about a situation or solution.

You hate to lose Jack, but if you place him in a command or staff position, it will mean a job demotion for a cadet who has worked long and hard for the same position. The next nearest squadron is over fifty miles away. What do you do?

Problem 2. You are a cadet second lieutenant who transferred to this area 6 months ago. You are the cadet training officer. You are aware that an unusually low percentage of cadets pass the leadership portion of Phase II achievements. You have heard that this squadron “does its own thing,” and the commander has conveyed the idea that “if wing will just leave us alone, we’ll get along fine.” You have tried to recruit some new cadets. This evening one of them shows up.

The squadron commander appears late, makes a loud apology, sees you and your friend, and comes over to shake hands. On the way over, he spots a cadet doing something undesirable and orders the cadet to do ten push-ups.

In a brief conversation with you and your friend, the commander tells you that the achievements are not very important to him or the squadron. The togetherness activities are the main thing “keeping the kids off the streets.” The commander orders instant push-ups for two cadets he spotted talking at parade rest. Your friend leaves and says that he will see you tomorrow. You find yourself wondering about this situation. This squadron commander is very forceful and confident. What do you do to get things back on track?

Problem 3. You are the cadet commander of a large Type A encampment. So far things have not gone all that well for you or your staff. The senior member encampment commander is a “Little Hitler” and now you have just walked into the barracks to hear another cadet calling your cadet officers “maggots.”

Discussion. In Problem 1, your problem is what to do with the new cadet. Obstacles are what to do with any cadets that he may displace or what to do with Jack if you do not assign him to a command or staff position.

In problem 2, your problem is to convince the squadron commander that he needs to stress passing the achievements more. Your obstacles are the commander’s arguments and the superficial success and cohesiveness of the unit. What about the Cadet Protection Policy?

Problem 3 requires you to solve two problems at once. They may be interrelated or separate, but they must be solved. You need to get the encampment commander to change his/her leadership style. You need to counsel the individual who degraded your cadet officers. What about the Cadet Protection Policy?

STAFF STUDY REPORT

The purpose of a staff study report is to give your commander a complete solution to a problem. You present your commander with all the written material necessary to put the solution into action. Completed staff work has three results. First, it protects the commander from illogical ideas, incomplete or wordy reports and vague oral reports. Second, it frees the commander to do work at the command level. Third, it gives the staff officers a hearing for new ideas. The final test of the completeness of your staff study is: Would you as the officer receiving the report, be willing to stake your reputation on the recommended solution?

Heading. The heading consists of (1) the originating unit title, (2) the reference line, (3) the date and (4) the subject.

Body. The body of the report contains five sections: (1) Problem, (2) Factors Bearing on the Problem, (3) Discussion, (4) Conclusion, and (5) /action Recommended. These parts correspond to the phases of the problem-solving process.

Conclusion. The conclusion offers only one thing: a brief restatement of the best possible solution to the problem. In the conclusion, two things are entirely out of place: Continuation of the discussion and introduction of new material.

Action Recommended. In this section, you tell the reader what action should be taken. Your recommendation should be worded so your superior can react simply by signing it for action or disapproval.

Ending. Give (1) your signature, grade, title, and those of the other people responsible and (2) References to attachments.

Attachments. Furnish all the detailed material necessary to support the facts, assumptions and opinions in your report.

EXPLAIN THE FUNCTION OF A STAFF STUDY REPORT

IDENTIFY THE COMPONENTS OF A STAFF STUDY REPORT

DRILL AND CEREMONIES

A parade is made up of a formation, any number of ceremonies, and a review. The formation is simply the arrangement of cadets in an organized way. Ceremonies are events to honor persons, units, and our country. A review is the formation of cadets in a unit and marching them properly. A parade is a ceremony within itself where respect is paid to the US flag, as in reveille and retreat. In the Cadet Drill manual you will learn more about these.

Formation. Usually the normal formation for the wing during a review is the wing in-line with squadrons in mass formation. Occasionally, the wing may be formed in-line with groups in mass formation.

The interval between squadrons is 6 paces with 12 paces between groups and/or band. The color guard is positioned in the center of the formation and is considered when measuring interval. Distance is measured from the rear of the leading element to the front of the element next to the order of march.

Ceremonies. CAP members at encampments and other special functions may be asked to participate in any or all of the special military ceremonies discussed in the next chapter, such as Retreat (and Reveille), Inspection by a Reviewing Officer, Presentation of Decorations, Retirement, and Change of Command. The purpose of a ceremony is to (1) promote teamwork and pride; (2) display proficiency and state of training; and (3) accord distinctive honors to national symbols or individuals on special occasions.

DEFINE THE FOLLOWING: CEREMONY, REVIEW, AND PARADE

HEADQUARTERS
CIVIL AIR PATROL ALASKA WING
UNITED STATES AIR FORCE AUXILIARY
16322 37TH ST ELMENDORF AFB AK 99506

6 June 2004

MEMORANDUM FOR

FROM: Cadet Advisory Council

SUBJECT: Preparing a Staff Study Report

PROBLEM

1. Clearly and concisely state the problem you are trying to solve.

FACTORS BEARING ON THE PROBLEM

2. Facts. Limit your facts to only those directly relating to the problem.
3. Assumptions. Should be realistic and support your study.
4. Criteria. Give standards, requirements, or limitations you will use to test possible solutions. Ensure you can use standards to measure or test solutions.
5. Definitions. Describe or define terms that may confuse your audience.

DISCUSSION

6. This section shows the logic used in solving the problem. Introduce the problem and give some background, if necessary. Then explain your solution or possible solution.

CONCLUSION

7. State your conclusion as a workable, complete solution to the problem you described previously in "Discussion."

ACTION RECOMMENDED

8. Tell the reader the action necessary to implement the solution. This should be worked so the boss only needs to sign to make the solution happen.

Jane F. Curry

JANE F. CURRY, C/Capt, CAP
Chair

Attachments:

1. Results from cadet survey
2. Talking paper on Program X

STAFF STUDY REPORTS

For detailed guidance, see "Tongue & Quill," available at www.cap.gov.

Leaving the heading blank allows the report to seek its own level

In the "from" line, use your office symbol, if you have one

State the subject concisely

What are you trying to solve?

Differentiate between absolute facts and assumptions.

It is not a sign of weakness to list a few assumptions.

Criteria could include budgets, regulatory requirements, and qualitative measures of success.

Know your audience: define jargon, but recognize CAP leaders probably know most CAP terms.

The discussion is crucial because it shows the logic used to solve the problem. Generally, some background information is necessary to properly introduce your problem. The introduction may be one paragraph or several paragraphs, depending on the detail required.

After showing how you reasoned the problem through, state your conclusion. The conclusion must provide a complete, workable solution to the problem. It is nothing more than a brief restatement of the best possible solution(s). Never introduce new material this late in the report. Double-check: does it satisfy the problem?

The action recommended advises the reader exactly how to proceed. Word the recommendations so your boss need only sign for action.

If you have detailed information or supporting documents to offer, include them as attachments to the report.

Each ceremony is a sequence of events. Each ceremony may fit into a larger sequence of events called a parade. In ceremonies, you realize that your personal performance reflects upon the unit's efficiency. Pride in the unit comes when you feel you have a responsibility in making your unit efficient. A sense of unity is promoted by pride on your accomplishments, by pride in your unit's reputation, and by confidence in your unit companions. Everyone participating in the ceremony feels this unity of effort.

It is essential for you to understand thoroughly the different military ceremonies used in Civil Air Patrol, the purposes and relationship of these ceremonies to each other, and the steps involved in each. You should concentrate on learning the sequence of events for each type of ceremony, particularly parades. This knowledge is essential for you to perform confidently any assigned role in a ceremony. After initial study, you should mentally review what will be required when filling various positions in a ceremony.

Review. A review is the formation of cadets in a group and/or wing and marching in a prescribed manner. The purpose is to inspect how well a unit drills and what condition their equipment is in. A review may be held to let a higher commander, official, or dignitary see how well a unit is trained. A review may consist of the:

- Formation of troops
- Inspection of troops (from the reviewing stand or as outlined in AFMAN 36-2203)
- March in review

Two or more groups are formed on the final line and presented to the troop commander. The adjutant, by order of the unit commander, posts on line with the staff. The unit commander may then present the cadets to the reviewing officer. Inspection of cadets may follow if the reviewing officer wants. See AFMAN 36-2203 further details regarding drill of the unit in parade and ceremonies situations.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Discuss the reasons for planning. How does it fit into the five functions of management?
2. Explain why defining and analyzing objectives is critical to planning.
3. Identify the six basic steps of planning, as discussed in this chapter.
4. Identify the three types of letter formats used in CAP. Discuss the purpose of each.
5. Explain the function of the personnel authorization.
6. Identify and discuss the six steps in the problem solving process.
7. Explain the purpose of the staff study report.
8. Identify the components of a staff study report.
9. Compare the components of the staff study report with the steps of the problem solving process. What do you notice? What does this tell you about staff study reports?
10. Define the following: review, parade, and ceremony.

SPECIAL READINGS

REFLECTIONS ON PROFESSIONALISM by Maj Gen Pete Todd From *Contrails*, Vol. 33, United States Air Force Academy

I salute the men and women of the Class of 1991 and welcome you to the Long Blue Line! As the temporary custodian of the “point position” in that formation, I feel a special warmth and kinship with you, its newest members. You’re entering an exciting and challenging new phase of your lives, and doing so at a time when the Air Force is poised for many equally exciting changes—new systems, new applications, new concepts.

However, despite all our soaring technological progress, the Air Force’s fundamental mission remains what it has always been: to remain constantly ready to contribute to the defense of our country and our national interests. Stripped to its essentials, I believe that mission also defines what the Air Force Academy is all about—to prepare you to join, contribute to, and eventually lead these efforts.

It is in this context that each of you should recognize that the Air Force is a profession, indeed a “calling,” rather than “just another job” or occupation. The hallmark of that profession is Service, with a capital “S.” By the same token, the Academy is far more than just a college or a “trade school.” In the broadest sense, it’s a leadership laboratory designed to educate, broaden, toughen and motivate you for a life of dedicated service to your country.

You’ve got a lot on your minds right now, but I think it’s important for you to grasp this essential nature of the Air Force and the Academy early. Without this perspective, the intellectual, physical, and emotional challenges you will face as a cadet in the days ahead may seem pointlessly rigorous. More important, the demands you will face later as an officer may overtax your tolerance unless your career goals are framed by the question, “What am I in for?” rather than “What’s in it for me?” What you should be “in” for is service to country, and it’s not too early to begin evaluating the Academy and yourself in that framework.

Each of you was selected on the basis of excellence, qualities of intellect, character, integrity, and leadership, which made you stand out from most of your peers. I urge each of you, in your own private way, to make a personal commitment to excellence in every aspect of your lives. Build upon and develop the qualities that won you admission to this select group. Set your personal and professional standards just a little higher than the “system” establishes for you. Whether you leave the Air force early or decide to devote your life’s energies to its mission, the important thing is to make the professionalism you will learn at the Academy the personal touchstone of your daily living.

I’ve learned lots of lessons in the nearly quarter of a century since I stood where you are, but one of the most elevating of all has been this: give me 10 dedicated professionals with a selfless willingness to service and I can accomplish more than with scores of “job holders.” We’ll never outnumber our adversaries, so we have to out think and out perform them. We simply have no room for the “summer soldier of the sunshine patriot”—in peace or wartime.

I want to emphasize, though that the dedication and commitment I'm talking about mustn't be a blind and unquestioning form of ancestor worship, with out a shred of initiative or imagination. On the contrary, the Air Force depends for its vitality on the innovation and vision of our people. In my book there's no inconsistency between selfless loyalty and a constant search for better ways to perform our mission.

All of these concerns probably seem very remote to you right now; I can remember that my early horizons as a new cadet were often limited to how to get through the next formation alive! But I want to assure you that it won't be long before each of you has to confront many of these professional issues of commitment, challenge, integrity, goals, etc., head on. I hope these random thoughts from somebody who's been through it all will provide a peg on which to hang some of your own thinking. Good luck to all of you and I look forward to serving with you in the best and most professional Air Force in the world.

FEEDBACK: A UNIQUE KEY TO LEADERSHIP

By Lt Col Henry A. Staley (Edited for CAP)

We've been wringing our hands for the past decade over the decline of personal integrity and the slow slide of "professionalism" down the slope toward "occupationalism." Most of our pre-commissioning and Professional Military Education (PME) institutions devote blocks of instruction to integrity, leadership, professionalism, officership, and the like. Specific definitions are seldom forthcoming, but the emotionally soggy word "professionalism," "leadership," "integrity," and "officership," make a good press.

Written or spoken words rarely lead to significant behavioral change unless those communications are consistently supported with action. Our integrity, our professionalism, and our officership erode a little every time we see leadership pull a fast one, act inconsistently, or fail to meet that seldom defined ideal. For me, that idea conjures up a definite mental picture. I see an officer who has the strength of character to be humble and the wisdom to be reasonably suspicious of gut reactions. I see someone who sincerely values the opinions of others and considers many alternative paths to an objective. Even when time limits full consideration of all paths, I see an officer who never stops trying to find them. I see an officer who's intellectually stimulated by open debate. Above all, I see a person who's acutely aware that almost mythical isolation from reality that slowly and insidiously overtakes a leader as he or she advances in rank.

I learned long ago never to criticize without offering alternatives for improvement. Therefore, I'll introduce my suggestion by mentioning a grassroots activity that occurs in thousands of situations every day. It plays an important role in all human relationships. It's called feedback. But the type of feedback usually provided by officers brings multiple injuries to our profession every hour of the day: it's death by a thousand cuts.

We tend to create a majority of officers who become emotionally frazzled at the mere suggestion of disagreeing with anyone in the authority chain. I won't belabor this truism since you've each witnessed your share of "yes men and women"—careerists, opportunists, and manipulators. You may be one of these types yourself. In fact, we're all members of that overwhelming brotherhood and sisterhood to some extent.

Is there something wrong here? Should we resist those aspects of training and education that reinforce the “Yessir, yessir, three bags full” mentality? YES! There is something wrong here and you can sense it. Yes, I am suggesting we overcome the traditional approach.

Most staff members will slant their comments so they agree with the perceived objectives of the decision maker (leader). There may be conventional recognition of opposing viewpoints, but it will most likely be written or spoken in a less than emphatic fashion. A truly effective leader literally squeezes, begs, demands, and cajoles the staff to provide all the reasons Issue X may or may not be logical. Equal emphasis is given the position that runs counter to the decision maker’s personal viewpoint.

A truly effective leader understands the basic character of the corps—the basic need to “Yessir, yessir, three bags full” and overcomes it through personal action. A truly effective leader has the strength of character to realize that his or her intuitive judgment is usually a poor substitution for the collective wisdom of the staff. In those rare cases when intuitive judgment is best, listening to the viewpoints of the opposition will neither weaken a sound decision or strengthen a poor one. A truly effective leader’s success will hinge in no small part on frequent and meaningful reward for honest feedback. This reward can be as informal as, “Thanks for that candid and provocative viewpoint.”

An effective leader realizes that fighting for feedback really is a fight. Staff members will resist it. After all, this is a new experience. It short-circuits all of their subservience training and career survival wisdom. An effective leader must struggle doggedly against these initial reactions. In other words, a true leader must lead. There is obviously no grand design or complex conspiracy aimed at shielding leaders from bad news or contrary viewpoints, but the effect is almost the same. What I’m suggesting is really quite simple. It takes only a personal commitment to demand and reward honest feedback. The responsibility for effective or ineffective feedback rests squarely on the leader’s shoulders. Some people suggest that our pre-commissioning and PME systems should approach officership training and education from a more enlightened perspective that we should nurture a more questioning, creative, and assertive approach in our professional programs.

Instead of preaching “Yessir, yessir, three bags full” we should be teaching “Yessir, we can probably do what you ask, but the costs will be...” Until a decision maker actually decides, the staff officer should be compelled by his or her professional; integrity to render a thorough, no-punches-pulled assessment of every staff issue. Until that time comes the key to opening the lock to honest feedback waits in the pocket of every leader. The truly effective leader will reach for it.

Chapter 10

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, you will learn principles of conflict management. Also, you will continue your study of the five functions of management, focusing on principles of organization. Finally, you will learn fundamentals of good writing.

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

We have all seen conflict. It can range from quiet resentment, to yelling, to calling people names, to physical fighting. However, conflict does not have to be bad. How you manage it determines if it is good or bad. This section explains the three conflict situations, methods of handling them, and effectively resolving them.

Conflict Situations

Win-Win Situations. Win-win problem solving methods focus on ends or goals. Typically win-win situations are problem-solving and establish super-ordinate goals. The problem-solving strategy involves identifying the sources of conflict so that you can present them as a problem to be solved. A super-ordinate goal is a goal greater than your unit's goals; it is a goal all involved units, or departments, strive for. They share an aim that cuts across conflict and cannot happen without cooperation. In a SAR mission, the super-ordinate goal, finding the missing people, is highly valued. Most individuals recognize that if this common purpose is to be achieved, they must act to reduce conflict between themselves. Thus, the starting ground of the conflict management process on a SAR mission is finding the missing people.

Win-Lose Situations. The typical exercise of authority shows the first win-lose situation. When you say, "Do what I say because I am the boss," you are depending on legitimate power bestowed on you by the organization. This authority lets you reward or punish unit members. In a second and related approach, you use mental or physical power to force compliance on another individual or unit. For example, when you secretly or openly threaten to dismiss your NCO's and officers lose because the compliance was forced. The most important thing to remember about a win-lose situation is that the winner has not been able to see someone else's side of the problem.

Lose-Lose Situations. In these situations, neither side really gets what it wants or each side only gets part of what it wants. Lose-lose methods assume half a loaf of bread is better than none, and avoiding conflict is better than confrontation.

Side Payments. In essence, when you offer a side payment you are saying, "I will bribe you to take a losing position." Organizations use side payments a lot, and at great cost. For example, they pay people extra to do unpleasant tasks. In these cases both sides are partial losers.

EXPLAIN THE THREE CONFLICT SITUATIONS, METHODS OF HANDLING CONFLICTS, AND HOW TO EFFECTIVELY RESOLVE THEM.

A win-lose situation leaves resentment and can lead to conflict.

In your words tell why a win-lose situation is a lose-lose situation that is about to happen.

A lose-lose situation is justified only when you have to sever a relationship because of chronic problems, situations, or circumstances that are beyond your control. For example, the unit loses a senior member or cadet and the troubled person loses CAP but the situation requires that you minimize your losses.

Mediation. When you and another commander ask your common superior to resolve your conflict, you avoid confrontation and problem solving. You are “passing the buck” hoping the superior will solve the problem for you.

In summary, the methods discussed so far have several things in common:

- ▶ There is a clear *we/they* distinction between you and the other person, rather than a *we-versus-the-problem* orientation.
- ▶ You direct your energies toward the other person in an atmosphere of total victory or total defeat.
- ▶ Each of you see the issue only from your own point of view, rather than defining the problem in terms of mutual needs.
- ▶ The emphasis is on getting a solution, rather than on defining goals, values or motives.
- ▶ You take things too personally, rather than remain objective in the conflict, missing a focus on facts and issues.
- ▶ There is no difference between conflict-resolving activities and other group processes, nor is there a planned sequence of those activities.
- ▶ You both are conflict-oriented, emphasizing the immediate disagreement, rather than relationship-oriented emphasizing the long term effect of your differences and how to resolve them.

Methods of Handling Conflict

There are several ways to handle conflict. Choosing the best method depends on your management style, the maturity of your cadets, and the situational limits. Below are five approaches to managing conflict in units, with a brief discussion of their strengths and weaknesses.

Suppression and Smoothing. This conflict-reducing technique involves two processes. Here, you suppress the differences and focus on similarities in the arguments. This can be done by playing down sharp differences between points of view while seeking common points of agreement. This technique lasts for a short time; the differences probably will come up again.

Denial. This approach simply denies the conflict exists. It might be useful for a short time, but the conflict could get worse and become unmanageable.

The Use of Power. Our society often resolves conflict by giving the “majority” power, like in a national election. Although the “losers” in the election may be dissatisfied, they will usually support the outcome to some extent. Some managers will refer frequently to “the system” (something the “majority” agreed to) as the reason for their doing something you do not like.

Compromise. Many see compromise as a way of helping people resolve their differences. They often assume both sides give up something, but in the end, each comes out a relative winner. Actually, both sides work together, but neither really commits itself to the revised objectives. Bargaining can create dynamics that generate new conflict, which consume much time and energy.

Confrontation or Integration. Here, you and the opposition are encouraged to present your viewpoints in hopes that this will reduce your differences.

The underlying assumption is group effort will exceed the sum of the individual members' contributions. Confrontation can prevent unwise, poor, and unacceptable resolutions. Its difficulty is it requires careful management so it does not create new problems.

Critical questions: Are you compromising on work effort or principles? An "IOU" on the former can be paid, but compromising principles are always lose-lose situations.

Setting Up Effective Conflict Resolution

Participative management is the heart of the win-win approach; it depends on gaining your people's agreement and commitment to objectives. When you use this approach, you are telling your people they need a solution that will achieve both their goals and their subordinates' goals, in a mutually acceptable way they still want to control. This approach reaches an agreement without specifying its specific content. To manage conflict effectively, identify each side's goals. Write a mutually acceptable statement of these goals, or of the obstacles to those goals. In other words, you may have different goals, but each of you must accept the stated goals of the other. Then, consider the problem in the first place, use the following six guidelines:

- ▶ Analyze the problem to identify the basic issues.
- ▶ Avoid stating goals as personal priorities.
- ▶ State the problem as a goal or as an obstacle rather than as a solution.
- ▶ Identify obstacles to getting the goal.
- ▶ Depersonalize the problem.
- ▶ Identifying the problem, generating solutions, and evaluating solutions all should be separate processes from each other.

Earlier in this chapter you saw the need to separate defining the problem from searching for its solutions. As you can see now, problem solving and conflict management are interrelated. A problem can be a conflict, and a conflict can be thought of as a problem. As you grow in Civil Air Patrol and in your personal life, you will have many chances to use what you learned in this achievement. Your success may depend on how well you apply what you have learned.

MANAGEMENT PRINCIPLES: ORGANIZING

This is the second of the five management functions mentioned in Chapter 8.

Principles

Some of the basic principles underlying the structural organization of a unit are unity of command, span of control, logical assignment, and delegation of authority. When you understand, adapt, and apply these principles you can develop and maintain a sound command structure.

Unity of Command. This means only one person has control of, and bears responsibility for, the activity. When doing something, unity of command keeps responsibilities from overlapping with each other, thus preventing misunderstanding, friction, and confusion.

Span of Control. This is how many cadet NCO's and officers you can effectively supervise. It depends on your physical and mental capabilities. The factors

EXPLAIN THE PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIZING.

are: the number of people assigned to the job, the time required by you, and the distance between the activities. Supervisors at the lowest organizational level usually have more people working for them than those at higher levels. This is because personnel at the lowest level usually are assigned tasks that are simpler.

Span of control is important because it determines whether an organizational structure will be a “flat” or “deep” one. That is, will there be few or many supervisory levels within the chain of command? The larger the organization, the narrower the span of control. The larger the organization, the deeper (more supervisory levels) there are between the commander and the person lowest in the organizational structure.

Logical Assignment. This sometimes is called homogeneous assignment or functional grouping. It means grouping related functions to improve operational efficiency. Experience, equipment, skills, and facilities are pooled and better used. To start grouping your resources by similar functions, put all functions that have a common purpose together.

Delegation of Authority. Delegation is the art of giving others the authority to make decisions to take action, and to give orders on your behalf. Why must you delegate authority? No one person can do everything necessary to achieve the unit’s objectives. Nor can any one person exercise all the authority to make all the decisions. Delegation provides for teamwork and for increased productivity. To gain a working knowledge of delegating authority, you should know and understand responsibility, authority, and accountability.

- ▶ *Responsibility* is the moral obligation that is assigned with the task. On a job everyone is responsible. Responsibility cannot be delegated, but it can be assigned.
- ▶ *Delegation of authority* gives a subordinate the right to make decisions, to take action, and to give orders.
- ▶ *Accountability* is your ability to answer your superior when asked how correctly or efficiently you are getting the job done.

Three Types of Unit Organizational Structure

No one unit works completely in any one of these models presented below. It blends all three. In a line organization you, as the commander, have the most direct control. In the functional organization you have least control. In a line and staff organization your degree of control is somewhere between. You must decide which of these three styles best suits the unit, and make written policies supporting that style.

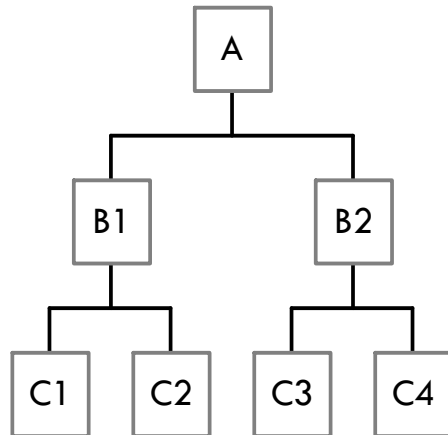
Line. The line organization is the oldest and simplest form of organizational structure. Its primary characteristic is the vertical line along which you lead subordinates. Each position along the line has general authority over lower positions. A direct chain of command links the top level to each lower level. Branching occurs whenever one supervisor has more than one subordinate. But, as shown in the figure on the next page, the supervisory lines proceed step-by-step without breakdown through the levels of the organization. No one outside of the unit is outside the lines that link top to bottom. This arrangement gives to each person undivided charge of certain assigned duties and a definite person to report to. Another important characteristic is all the units under the commander usually take part in accomplishing the primary objectives.

IDENTIFY AND DESCRIBE THREE TYPES OF ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURES.

Ideally, authority and accountability are equal and both rest on responsibility.

The line organization has both advantages and disadvantages. It is simple, makes a clear division of authority, encourages speedy action, and minimizes the straying from an established course. The line type of organization may be effectively used in smaller organizations.

However, it neglects the use of specialized assistance, requires too much executive concentration on minor details, and depends on the retention of a few key people.



LINE ORGANIZATION

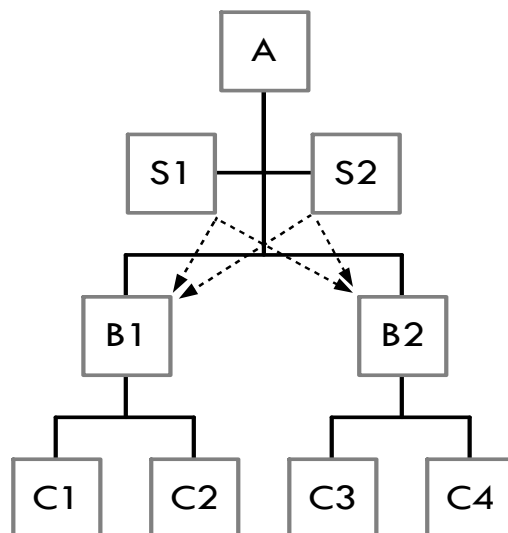
Notice how clear and well-defined the chain of command is.

Line and Staff. As organizations grow, increasing demands are placed on you for managerial and technical knowledge. When you can no longer be effective without specialized help, consider using the line and staff organizational structure.

In the line and staff organization, the line retains command and operating responsibilities. Your staff of specialists acts as your advisers on tasks that cut across the entire unit. As shown below, these staff agencies supplement the line by offering technical expertise. Staff authority is purely advisory, and the staff agencies have no authority to place their recommendations into action.

The line and staff structure enables specialists to give expert advice. It frees the commander of details, and it affords young specialists a means of training. Problems sometimes arise in the line and staff type of organization because sources of authority can be divided and contradictory. Staff members sometimes direct without following the chain of command. As a result, you can get confused about whom to follow, and this can lead to much bickering.

Line (authority) tends to be vertical whereas staff (functional assistant) tends to be horizontal or lateral.

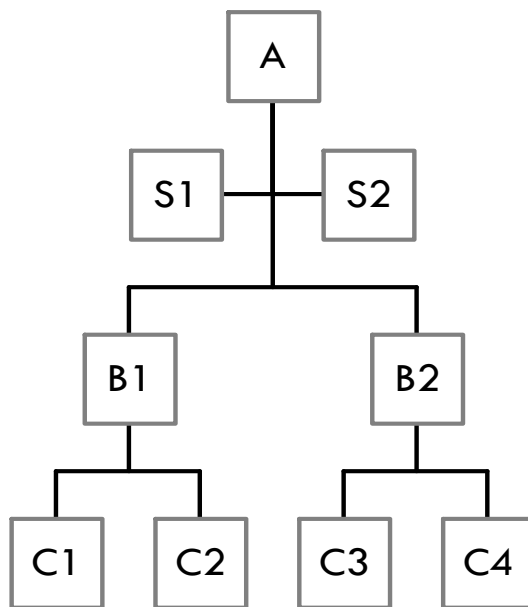


LINE AND STAFF ORGANIZATION

Notice the addition of two staff specialists, S1 and S2, who serve in an advisory capacity.

Functional. The functional organization helps you, as the commander, pass instructions down the chain of command to various line elements. This type of organization gives each staff agency responsibility for all actions relating to its particular function throughout the unit. When you want to delegate routine technical matters to the staff advisers, give them specific authority to issue directives throughout your unit on matters related to their specific staff function. For example, the public affairs officer, which under the pure staff structure could merely give advice to the commander, can now issue directives prescribing public affairs procedures within all of the operating departments. The figure below shows the relationships in an organization where staff elements are given functional authority.

The functional organization relieves you from having to make decisions that call for specialized knowledge. It lets you apply expert knowledge to the organization's operations. However, it makes relationships within the organization more complex. A person could appear to have two "bosses"—the commander and the staff officer. Another problem is in coordinating staff activities so that there is no overlap of functions and no conflicting orders from different staff agencies relating to the same subject. A thin line sometimes separates what should be controlled by the staff officer and what should be controlled by you, the commander. There is also a thin line dividing one person's staff duties from another person's staff duties. When structuring an organization, establish procedures so that functional authority can be used without weakening the position of the commander. Also carefully refine the staff's job descriptions to prevent possible overlap and confusion.



FUNCTIONAL ORGANIZATION

These organizations are more complex because while commanders retain authority over their units, specialized staff officers have a limited authority to issue technical directives, too.

Determining Procedures

Supplement regulations and policies from higher headquarters with your own. Staff officers must supplement you in just enough detail so people can determine how to get the job done without conflicting with your procedures. Procedures are detailed guides describing the exact way to do a certain activity within the unit and are used at the lower level of organization. The relationship between policies is general statements or understandings that guide subordinates in making decisions.

An operation is the process of carrying out the procedures. At the heart of the operation, procedures direct its effort, they coordinate it in place and time, and they keep performance in line with objectives. Because the structure and procedures are closely related, develop them simultaneously to support each other. Your finished procedural blueprint should describe what will be done, when it will be done, and what resources will be used.

The Anatomy of Making and Implementing Decisions

Everyone makes decisions for many reasons. When you make decisions, you hope (often expect) that those decisions are right. Putting decisions into action is hard because it requires time to get those involved to learn about the decision, its purpose(s), the rationale for it, schedule, costs responsibilities and controls. If you need enthusiastic support, you must sell the decision. You must allocate and administer resources. Your challenge is to allocate available resources judiciously and phase them into assemblies that can accomplish the objectives of the organization. Finally you must follow through to maintain achievements to determine the real and final costs, give the team the benefits of lessons learned and goals accomplished, wrap up any loose ends and give a “well done” to all.

Many people think that when decisions are made or when solutions to problems are presented, that the decisions are right or wrong. But as we discussed above, that is too simple a thought for something that is very involved. There are five basic results that confront decision-makers and problem solvers. Best of all, of course, is to be right in the decision and all of the phases from implementation to follow through.

The next best thing is to be wrong. More than half of mankind's progress has been made after several failures. For example, Thomas Edison finally got the light bulb to work after more than 10,000 failed attempts. It is okay to be wrong as long as you understand why you were wrong.

Next comes being dead wrong. Probably the only good thing about it is that wrong leaders (like Hitler, Stalin, Mao, Mussolini and Tojo) take their ideas down in flames with them. It clears the slate for someone else to have a fresh start.

Next is the null set, the process of making decisions by doing nothing. This lets the situation control you instead of the other way around.

Finally, worst of all is being technically correct but administratively wrong. Here you may, because of bad leadership and/or bad management, destroy a good idea, and yourself in the process.

EFFECTIVE WRITING

Remember, speaking and writing are similar in many ways. The same thinking processes and principles of organization lie behind both skills. There are, however, vital differences between a listener and a reader that require that each skill be treated separately. Of all communication media used, writing is the one used most often for official communication. To write effectively, express your ideas naturally, as in everyday conversation (but without the slang or incorrect grammar).

As a preface to this section, you will review punctuation. It is used to clarify the meaning of written language. Use punctuation marks only to make the thought clearer. Common punctuation marks and their uses are listed below.

IDENTIFY THE FUNCTION OF EACH PUNCTUATION MARK

Comma: This shows the smallest break in continuity of thought in an idea or sentence. It separates words that might otherwise be misunderstood, independent clauses, items in a series, and parallel adjectives.

Semi-colon: This indicates a sentence break greater than a comma but less than a period. It separates independent clauses not joined by coordinating conjunctions, sentence elements containing commas, or independent clauses joined by parenthetical expressions.

Colon: This puts strong emphasis on what follows. It is used before a series or list of items or between independent clauses when the second amplifies the first.

Dash: Use this to indicate a complete or sudden change of thought or to give emphasis to what follows or to what is enclosed by the dashes.

Parenthesis: Use these to enclose inserted material that is loosely connected with the main thought of the sentence. They set off material that you want to be considered incidental.

Quotation Marks: Use them to set off direct quotations, enclose some titles, to call attention to words, and to define or translate a word.

Apostrophe: This is used to show possession, mark omissions in contractions, and to form some plurals.

Period: The most common punctuation mark is the period. It is used as the ordinary end-stop mark of sentences, as a mark of abbreviation, and as a signal that something is being omitted from quoted passages.

Most writing is filled with numbers, dates and amounts. It is important you express these numbers in narrative form. Generally, spell out numbers less than 10 except in special cases, such as:

- ▶ When there are two or more numbers in the same category and one of them is 10 or larger, use figures for all the numbers in that category (i.e. 5, 10, 15, 20).
- ▶ Numbers used in conjunction with slogans, serious or dignified subjects are spelled out as in: The Ten Commandments.
- ▶ Fractions are generally spelled out if they stand alone or if they are followed by of, a, or an (i.e. half of an apple, I'll take ½).
- ▶ Spell out all ordinal numbers. Ordinal numbers indicate the order of things. First, Second, Third are examples of ordinal numbers.
- ▶ Use numerals when writing serial numbers, military unit designations, page and chapter numbers, sport scores, etc.

Organize Your Thoughts

Make Your Purpose Clear. Writing has a general purpose and a specific objective. Determine the general purpose. CAP writing has three general purposes: to direct, to inform (or ask questions), or to persuade. All three are concerned with who, what, when, where, why, and how. The emphasis on each differs according to the purpose. For example, a directive usually emphasizes what is to be done, informative writing stresses how something is to be done, and persuasive writing emphasizes why something should be done. Determine the specific objective. After determining your general purpose, ask yourself, "What is my specific objective?" You may find it helpful to write it out. Specific statements such as "My objective is to get \$25,000 to expand hangar facilities." will help clarify your specific purpose for writing.

DISCUSS THE STEPS USED IN WRITING A WELL-ORGANIZED ARTICLE.

Analyze Your Reader. Who will read it? Your answer will strongly affect your ideas and your words. For example, you would not express yourself in the same way when writing to a staff officer at HQ CAP as you would to CAP cadets. What is the educational; background of your reader? What is the reader's scope of experience in the area you are writing about? What reaction do you want?

Define the Limits of Your Subject. The limits you place around your subject should depend on two things: your purpose in writing and the needs of your reader.

List Specific Ideas. Write down the ideas that have been popping in and out of your mind. Do not worry about their order. Put them down as they come to you. The important thing at this stage is not to lose an idea. Once you have assembled all your ideas on the subject, check them against your purpose and subject.

Group Specific Ideas Under Main Ideas. Your random list of specific ideas can be clustered around two or three broader ideas.

Organize Your Material

Once you have gotten enough facts and information for writing, organize the material and your own ideas about that material. This step is probably the most important phase of the writing process. Without good organization, grammar and style have far less impact.

Pick a Pattern. The most common patterns are topic, time, reason, problem solving, and space.

- ▶ *The topic pattern.* This is probably best if you are listing qualities, characteristics, or specifications.
- ▶ *The time pattern.* This is perhaps the most familiar pattern. It is useful whenever time of the sequence of events is important.
- ▶ *The reason pattern.* This might be your best choice if you wish to convince or persuade the reader.
- ▶ *The problem-solution pattern.* This is a variation of the reason pattern. It usually states the problem as a question. It discusses facts bearing on the problem, proposes and tests possible solutions, and recommends specific action. It is the basic pattern of the military staff study report.
- ▶ *The space pattern.* This is particularly useful when the information has to do with location. Some people call this the geography book approach.

Arranging the Patterns. Whether you use these patterns, or your own, use these principles of arrangement:

- ▶ Choose the one that will best communicate your ideas.
- ▶ Use *inductive reasoning*, a general conclusion that comes from a series of specific observations.
- ▶ Lead your reader from the familiar to the new.
- ▶ Lead your reader from the simple to the complex.
- ▶ Arrange your points in an order that gives maximum emphasis.

In typical writing, the end position has the greatest weight. Build your argument to a logical climax. Because the final position is the most important, it deserves your best material. However, in PAO writing of news releases the first position has the greatest weight; put your significant points first.

Outline Your Material

A good outline will help you in several ways. It will help you concentrate on one point at a time and will help keep you on course. An outline lets you write in spite of interruptions. You can write more quickly and more easily from an outline than without one.

Making such an outline is simple and easy. All you have to do is to use the main points you want to make as the framework for the outline. Then, fill in the framework with your supporting facts and ideas. Later, you will have the basis for a working outline that will make your writing noticeably easier.

Final Steps to Organizing

Once you fit your main and supporting points into your outline, you are ready for the final steps in organizing your material. These steps are: plan for transitions, plan your introduction and plan your conclusion.

Plan for Transitions. Transitions link successive ideas, and they relate individual ideas to your overall purpose.

The minor transition links two simple elements by using a word or phrase such as “then,” or “the next point.” The minor transition tells the reader that a new element is coming and something about the relationship of the old to the new. Minor transitions are not always absolutely essential, but they are helpful.

The major transition relates a new main point to the over-all purpose, or a sub-point to a main point. It also summarizes the last main point and sets the stage for the next point.

Plan Your Introduction. Introductions have three things in common: they capture and stimulate the reader’s interest, they focus the reader’s attention on the subject, and guide the reader into the subject. The introduction also establishes a common frame of reference between writer and reader, and usually includes the statement of purpose.

Plan Your Conclusion. An effective conclusion summarizes the content and closes the writing effectively by giving it a sense of completion or resolution. If the subject is complicated or long, you may want to summarize the major points.

Writing Your First Draft

Now that you have organized your material, you are ready to begin your first draft. The following ideas should help you write your first draft quickly and easily. Adapt and modify them to fit your needs.

Start. To eliminate the frustration of getting started, just start quickly and easily. Say to yourself, “I’ll just put down the words as fast as they come and worry about the grammar and polish later.”

Don’t Worry About the Introduction. Just make a start and keep going. You can always go back and change your introduction or add an introduction after you have written the main part or the body.

CHECKLIST FOR ORGANIZING YOUR WRITING

- ▶ Did you let your material and your purpose determine the organization you need?
- ▶ Have you divided your material into an introduction, body, and conclusion?
- ▶ Have you arranged the body of your material into a logical pattern? Does it best communicate your ideas? Does it emphasize the points you want to make?
- ▶ Have you outlined your material? Does your outline list all the main and supporting points you want to include when you start writing?
- ▶ Does it indicate where you need a transition to link the points to each other and to your purpose?
- ▶ Have you planned your introduction? What points do you want to cover in it?
- ▶ Have you planned your conclusion? Does it summarize or emphasize your main points? Does it require a recommendation?

Don't Let Your Outline Slow You Down. A good working outline is more of a sketch than a blueprint; it gives your writing plan flexibility if better ideas occur as you write. Use it to help you as you write, but do not let it delay the creative flow of ideas or words.

Write One Part at a Time. For a long piece of writing, break your material into sections (the main points of your outline) and concentrate on only one section at a time.

Write as Much as Possible at One Time. Try to complete at least one of your major sections without interruption. If you do have to pause or have to stop, do it between paragraphs or between the larger sections of material. When you are ready to start writing again, reread what you have written.

Don't Revise as You Write. This is a separate operation that will be done later, after you finish the first draft.

Use Scissors and Stapler or Tape. Some writers get discouraged half way through a page, crumble it and throw it away. Instead of rewriting the entire page or throwing away half-used sheets, cut out the usable parts and staple or tape them where they belong in the flow of your writing. If you are using a word processor, you are lucky!

Double-Space Your Draft. When writing your draft, quadruple-space between paragraphs and leave generous margins at the top, bottom, and sides of the paper. This "waste" of paper gives you plenty of room to write in changes without losing time.

How to Stop. One of the cardinal rules of good writing is to know when to stop. Check your first draft against your outline to tell if the introduction, the discussion, or the conclusion are too long. Recognize and eliminate nonessential points.

Ask yourself these questions: Does your draft include enough detail for your reader? Have you clearly explained and illustrated your generalization? Have you given your reader examples of what you mean? Are your examples relevant and interesting? Are they specific and concrete? Have you stopped when you have given your reader as much information as is needed? Is the introduction adequate but not too long? Is the body complete but not too detailed? Is the conclusion adequate but not too long?

DRILL AND CEREMONIES

In this chapter you will learn about three important aspects of drill and ceremonies. They are: Change of Command, Presentation of Decorations, and Retirement. As you progress through Civil Air Patrol you will be involved in one or all three either as a new cadet commander, recipient of decorations or after you become a senior member and retire. See AFMAN 36-2203 for particulars on these ceremonies.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Identify and describe each of the three conflict management situations.
2. Name and discuss three methods of handling conflict.
3. Discuss the reasons for organizing. How does it fit into the five functions of management?
4. Define the following terms: unity of command, span of control, logical assignment, and delegation of authority.
5. Identify and discuss the three types of unit organizational structures discussed in this chapter. What are the advantages and disadvantages of each?
6. Identify the precise function of each punctuation mark discussed in this chapter.
7. Describe the steps used to organize your thoughts when preparing to write.
8. Identify and describe three common patterns used in organizing an argumentative essay or paper.
9. Discuss the function of outlining in writing.
10. Identify the two main types of transitions in writing and the function of each.

SPECIAL READINGS

THE WARRIOR by George Leonard

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For many of us who are dedicated to peace, the very idea of the “good” warrior seems a contradiction. We are haunted by images of armed soldiers in a city square, of innocent people kidnapped, tortured, or made to “disappear.” The word “military” can conjure up the word “dictatorship.” The word “police” joins all too easily with “state.” In this violent and dangerous world, only the most fevered idealist would dispense entirely with soldiers and policemen. If we’re going to have people to whom we give the job of risking their own lives and, if necessary, taking the lives of others, how are we to deal with them? How are we to *think* about them? And, beyond that, is there some way that the warrior spirit at its best and highest can contribute to a lasting peace and to the quality of our individual lives during the time of peace?

Jack Cirie went to Yale in the early 1960’s. He was an All-Ivy League football defensive-back and Yale’s Most Valuable Player in his Junior year. He majored in Latin-American studies, and considered joining the Peace Corps. Most of his friends were going to law school or into their fathers’ businesses. “I decided that what I wanted was a military experience, and for me that meant going to war. I wanted to be in a position where everything was at risk, where you get a chance to see inside yourself.”

Cirie got what he asked for. Early in 1965, after six months of Marine officers school, he arrived at Phu Bai, near Hue in North Vietnam. It was just one day after the first contingent of US Marines landed. His first major test as a leader came just before the summer monsoon season. They got to the Vietnamese graveyard at midnight, exactly as planned. The graveyard overlooked a road that the Viet Cong (VC) used when getting rice from a nearby village. It was a perfect spot for an ambush, and as Cirie positioned the twenty-four men so that they were in a line parallel to the road, he said to himself that everything was going like clockwork; nothing could go wrong.

Now the men were sitting or squatting, their weapons trained on the killing zone along the road. He was just three feet from the last man in the line, a machine gunner, just making out the man’s dark outline, just reaching out to touch his shoulder, when the inexplicable happened. The machine gunner jumped to his feet in terror, and, almost at the same instant, Cirie found himself looking straight into the bright-orange muzzle flashes of AK-47 automatic rifles, less than six feet away.

They figured it all out later and realized the odds for its happening that way were about a million to one. A group of Viet Cong had picked the same spot for an ambush, and had moved in only minutes after the Marines. The first VC had probably bumped into the machine gunner in the darkness, then had raised his gun and fired. At that instant, without thought, Cirie dropped to the ground and started firing his pistol in the direction of the muzzle flashes. His men also began firing, but most of them, not knowing what had happened, were aiming at the road, not at the Viet Cong. The machine gunner lay dying a few feet away. Bullets were a void of darkness lit only by muzzle flashes, he was briefly tempted to do nothing

more, to indulge in the luxury of incomprehension. But he rose to his feet amazed at how calm he felt. His overriding sensation was one of relief, at last he was getting a chance to do what he, as a leader, was supposed to do. He began moving among his men, telling them to watch the flanks, to stay calm. He ordered flares shot up to light the scene. And all the time he was doing this, he was strangely, marvelously detached, almost as if he were out of his body. The Marines stayed there until it started getting light, then returned to their base camp. The Viet Cong had withdrawn, leaving a trail of blood, but none of their dead or wounded.

The episode in the graveyard sealed Cirie's unspoken compact with his men. What they had learned to expect from a leader had been fulfilled. Is this, then, what it is to be a warrior—to test yourself under fire and pass the test?

The warrior's code achieved a particularly vivid realization in Japan between 1603 and 1867. It was then, during the largely peaceful Tokugawa shogunate, that *bushido*, "the way of the warrior," came into full flower. Under bushido, the Japanese samurai spent long hours in the mastery of his Martial skills, but also was expected to practice such things as tea ceremony, sumi painting, and the composition of poetry; lifelong training and self-development was a central element as it is in other warrior codes. In matters of loyalty, honor, veracity, and Justice or rectitude, the code was demanding and undeviating. Courage for the samurai meant an integration of physical and moral bravery, based on serenity in moments of danger. Martial ferocity was tempered by an exquisite sense of courtesy, which led to harmony of mind and body, and benevolence, which was seen as a composite of magnanimity, affection, love, and compassion.

He might not strike you at first as a warrior. Donald Levine is, in fact, a professor of sociology and dean of the College at the University of Chicago. He's also a dedicated martial artist. I had wanted to meet him ever since reading a short version of his article, "The Liberal Arts and the Martial Arts," in *The New York Times* and the complete article in the journal *Liberal Education*. Levine's article, I thought, went a long way toward clarifying the role of the warrior in a free society. In it, he defines the liberal arts as including all education that is undertaken for self-development. All learning that exists essentially for its own sake rather than for some utilitarian purpose. Liberal education, according to Levine, first emerged in two unique cultures, those of classical Greece and China. In both of those cultures, such education was considered the highest human activity. And, though it might seem strange in light of today's academic climate, it included the cultivation of combat skills as well as intellectual skills. In both the East and the West, in other words, the martial arts and the liberal arts arose together, and were equally revered. In the centuries that followed, this ideal was often lost. Both the arts of combat and the education of the intellect were at times corrupted and put to narrow, and exploitative uses.

After reading his article, I arranged a meeting with Levine. Do the martial arts have anything significant to offer late-twentieth-century America? "Yes," Levine said, "I can see this as a time when the body and mind are being reunified, a time when the liberal arts can learn a great deal from the martial arts. This is true, of course, only when the martial arts are practiced primarily for mastery of their intrinsically beautiful forms and for self-development rather than primarily for self-defense or for the brutal sensationalism you see in the movies. And arts like Aikido, which tie ethical vision right into daily practice, are just what this country needs. Remember what the founder said: the point of Aikido training is to create persons

who evince 'a spirit of loving protection for all beings, who bind the world together in peace and unity.' The heart of this way of life is practice itself, the regular, systematic, unremitting practice of the dedicated martial artist. And then there is a progression of learning common to the martial arts that leads to the transcendence of mere technique. "One begins by self-consciously practicing a certain technique," Levine had written in his article. "One proceeds slowly, deliberately, reflectively, but one keeps on practicing, until the technique becomes internalized, one begins to grasp the principles behind them. And finally, when one has understood and internalized the basic principles, one no longer responds mechanically to a given attack, but begins to use the art creatively and in a manner whereby one's individual style and insights can find expression." A fine want of learning for the scholar – and for the warrior.

"Do you consider yourself a warrior?" I asked.

More and more. It means being ready to die on a moment's notice. And not worry about encumbrances, such as academic honors or worldly ambitions. I couldn't have survived, let alone done as well as I have in this job, without my martial arts practice. It's the kind of job that can grind you to a pulp. My predecessors had a hard time finishing their terms. It's a man-killing job. Two months after I became dean, I had to go to the hospital, suffering from stress. At that point, I said to myself, "Look, you are not going to let this happen to you." So I took control of my life. I was a chain pipe smoker, I threw all my pipes away. I began practicing more regularly. I began treating my job in an Aikido way. I realized that my whole life was *randori* [under attack simultaneously by several people], so I handled it like *randori*. I stayed centered and calm under pressure. I kept my integrity. I remembered that, for both Plato and Aristotle, the list of most important virtues starts with courage and ends with philosophic wisdom, with prudence and justice in between. I guess you could say that, as best I could, I've lived as a warrior. And it has worked for me.

Green Berets, members of the US Army Special Forces, had volunteered for an experimental six-month course in advanced mind-body training. Most of them had gone through Army Ranger training. The experimental training program, designed to add a psychophysical component to an already rigorous schedule of military training, included daily Aikido training aimed at integrating the physical and the mental.

The men ranged in age from twenty-two to forty-one, and in rank from buck sergeant to captain. But age and rank held little significance as they knelt at the edge of the mat. As the men paired off and took turns attacking each other, I moved from one to the other, making suggestions, providing individual demonstrations. It was quickly apparent that these elite troopers were expert learners. The peacetime military is primarily a gigantic educational institution and most military men today spend most of their time learning new skills and honing those they already know. I could spot a certain amount of kidding around, and anything that wasn't fully understood was quickly challenged. But these were students any teacher would love to teach. They were fiercely attentive. They worked hard. They were willing to try anything. They were exceptionally eager to master each technique.

At the same time, these soldiers exhibited a sense of courtesy and respect in their relationship with me that seemed neither forced nor pro forma. And, though I knew they were superb fighting men, I saw in them none of the gratuitous brutality that marks the cinematic version of the Special Forces trooper. Those few who

do show those marks should start carrying their “ruck.” The ruck, or rucksack, is the symbolic and literal mark of the real Green Beret. Unless you’ve paid your dues by humping a hundred or so kilometers with eighty or ninety pounds in your ruck, you’re just a Hollywood warrior.

Self-mastery, according to the Special Forces men, is a warrior’s central mostly action. He is always practicing, always seeking to hone his skills, so as to become the best possible instrument for accomplishing his mission. The warrior takes calculated risks and tests himself—a religion, a cause. He does not worship violence but is at home with it. He is human, not a robot. He may snivel (their word for complain), but he is not a victim. One top sergeant, who had been in Vietnam, said, “We’re all acolyte warriors until we’ve been tested in combat.” But others felt that the warrior could exist even outside of the military.

What most struck me was the importance these elite soldiers placed on service and protection. Again and again this subject came up in our conversations, not only as a warrior ideal, but also as a compelling justification for their way of life itself. “These guys,” Heckler said to me in a crowded restaurant, “genuinely feel they’re protecting everybody in this room.”

And what about war itself? In his seminal book *The Warriors* philosopher J. Glenn Gray, a World War II combat veteran, writes, “No human power could atone for the injustice, suffering, and degradation of spirit of a single day of warfare.” At the same time, he reminds us of war’s terrible and enduring appeal: the opportunity to yield to destructive impulses, to sacrifice for others, to live vividly in the moment. The appeal of war is not a popular subject, but until we deal with it openly and undogmatically we may never find a warrior’s path toward peace.

I’ve come to believe that Gray is right. The problem is not that war is so often vivid, but that peace is so often drab. But the end of war—can we imagine it?—might require something more fundamental: the creation of a peace that is not only just, but also vivid. The work of creating a more vivid peace must address the problem of our spiritual emptiness and inner hunger. It might well require that we relinquish some of our currently fashionable cynicism and give more energy, as Gray suggests, to values that could be called moral and spiritual. But there’s something else: We need passion. We need challenge and risk. We need to be pushed to our limits. And I believe this is just what happens when we accept a warrior’s code, when we try to live each moment as a warrior, whether in education, job, marriage, child rearing, or recreation. The truth is that we don’t have to go to combat to go to war. Life is fired at us like a bullet, and there is no escaping it short of death. All escape attempts—drugs, aimless travel, the distractions of the media, empty material pursuits—are sure to fall in the long run, as more and more of us are beginning to learn.

AMELIA EARHART

Perhaps no name is as symbolic of aerospace achievement as Amelia Earhart. When you say female aviator, the first name that comes to mind is Amelia Earhart! Born in Atchison, Kansas, July 24, 1898, she attended Hyde Park High School in Chicago, Ogontz School for Girls in Rydal, Pa., and Columbia University in New York to prepare her for a career in Medicine and Social Science. She served during World War I as a military nurse in Canada where she developed an interest in flying. She pursued this interest in California, receiving her pilot's license in 1922. Though she continued her association with aviation by entering numerous flying meets, she spent several years as a teacher and social worker at Dennison House, in Boston.

Amelia Earhart gained considerable fame June 17-18, 1928, as the first woman to cross the Atlantic by air. She felt this fame somewhat unjustified as she had only been a "passenger" on a Fokker trimotor piloted by Wilman Stutz and Louis Gordon from Trepassy Bay, Newfoundland, to Burry Port, Wales. In 1929 Earhart co-founded the "ninety-nines," an international organization of women pilots, which continues today to promote opportunities for women in aviation, and served from 1930 to 1932 as its first president.

Amelia Earhart was one of the first women in aviation to juggle a public and a private life. Her 1931 marriage to publisher George Putnam did not prevent her from setting an autogiro altitude record. The following year she reaccomplished the Atlantic flight which brought her fame, this time as the solo pilot flying from Harbour Grace, Newfoundland, to Londonderry, Ireland, a first for a woman. At a time when women were extremely rare in technical and scientific areas, Amelia Earhart distinguished herself by setting records which bettered men's records as well as women's.

She became active in the movement that encouraged the development of commercial aviation. Amelia Earhart took an active role in efforts to open the field of aviation to women and end male dominance in this exiting new field. She served as an officer of the Luddington Line, which provided one of the first regular passenger services between New York and Washington, D.C. In January 1935 she outdid her Atlantic solo by making a solo flight from Hawaii to California, a much longer distance than the Canada-England flight. She became the first pilot to successfully fly that route. Her numerous accomplishments earned her the Distinguished Flying Cross, the first woman so designated by the United States Congress.

Always pushing the envelope, Amelia Earhart set out in June 1937 to circumnavigate the world. Accompanied by Fred Noonan, her navigator, Amelia Earhart flew her twin engine Lockheed Electra into one of the greatest unsolved mysteries of this century. On the most difficult leg of the trip, Earhart and Noonan vanished near Howland Island in the Pacific. Intense searching by both American and Japanese forces found do trace of Amelia Earhart, Fred Noonan, or their plane and fueled speculation as to the real reason for such a dangerous flight. Many argued that the flight was a reconnaissance flight to gather data on Japan prior to the United States entry into World War II. Many others, especially in the aviation community, held fast that Amelia Earhart was driven by her passion for flying.

Though few facts are known about the July 2, 1937 disappearance in the central Pacific near the International Date Line, one thing is certain: Amelia Earhart had make a unique and timeless contributions to aviation and to women in aviation which will go unparalleled for decades to come.



AMELIA EARHART was the first female aviator to cross the Atlantic.

Chapter 11

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter you will learn about principles of logic, especially inductive reasoning. Our focus on the functions of management will continue with a look at coordination. Finally, you will continue to study principles of effective writing.

LOGIC IN PROBLEM SOLVING

Decision-making was introduced in Chapter 8 and expanded on as problem solving in Chapter 9. Now, look at how to use logic in problem solving. Since your early years, you have been solving problems and will continue to solve problems the rest of your life. However, if you have a plan and a method for solving these problems, the process and out come can be made easier. This section outlines one of the most efficient ways to solve a problem, how to derive *valid* conclusions and solutions.

Logic Defined

Generally, logic is the study of reasoning—drawing inferences or conclusions from one or more statements or propositions. In a sense, the study of logic is nothing more than the analysis of the ideas behind the statements.

DEFINE LOGIC.

Distinguishing Facts from Opinions

Facts and opinions are two types of information used to support reasoning. Facts are events or information you personally observe or that reliable witnesses report to you. Opinions are the conclusions and judgments of individuals.

DISCUSS WAYS TO DISTINGUISH FACT FROM OPINION

Reported facts and stated opinions can be strongly affected by personal feelings, emotions, and prejudices. Logic is only as good as the evidence it uses. Facts must be complete and current. You can check how reliable and objective you were when asking, “Was I in a position to learn the facts? Am I an expert? Is my opinion in my own field of expertise? Am I being quoted fully and correctly?”

Barriers to Logic

Many people fail to think logically because of barriers that are caused partly by individual temperament and partly by environment.

DISCUSS BARRIERS TO LOGICAL THINKING.

Laziness. Some people do not want to do serious thinking. It requires time and double-checking.

Pretentiousness. Some people pretend to be food thinkers by having superficial knowledge on everything. They will walk authoritatively about anything.

Skepticism. This is the opposite extreme of pretentiousness. It is not willing to admit knowing about anything.

Wishful thinking. Wishful thinkers believe something is true or will become true simply because they want it so.

Rationalizing. A person gives logical reasons for prejudices, misconceptions, fears, and behavior (or misbehavior).

External influences. There are many external influences in your environment that hinder sound thinking. If you worked all day on a factory production line, you will have little time for deep or serious thinking about your job, and usually it is not required for such a monotonous task. During your leisure time, television offers hours of entertainment that rarely challenges your thinking processes.

Types of Reasoning

Before you accept as valid the ideas and conclusions of any authority as being valid, check their reasoning processes. There are two types: inductive and deductive.

Inductive Reasoning. This uses conclusions drawn from studying the evidence of specific instances. You may do this by generalizing, hypothesizing, seeking causes and effects, or combining these three ways.

Generalizing. This is the most common type of inductive reasoning. Inferences are drawn and conclusions made about a class or group. Public opinion pollsters, for example, gather and study opinions of the few to reach conclusions about the entire population. Probably the most common weakness using the generalization is the *hasty generalization*. If you conclude something on too few samples or on samples that are not typical, you may reach a false conclusion.

Hypothesis. Quite often you start with a tentative goal in mind. If you are a careful and honest reasoner, you will be as ready to disprove your hypothesis as you are to prove it. Perhaps the best known use of hypotheses is by Sherlock Holmes and Dr. Watson when reconstructing a crime from a scattering of evidence.

Cause and effect. In this type of induction, you study some occurrence behavior trying to discover what caused it. If you studied mechanical problems you can show cause and effect easily.

Deductive Reasoning. Here, you use propositions for further discussion and making inferences. You study the propositions by arranging them in a prescribed way to see how each proposition relates to each other. This helps you find new conclusions. Deductive reasoning must follow a prescribed pattern, called a *syllogism*, and contain true statements.

The significant types of syllogisms are the categorical and the hypothetical.

Categorical syllogism. This has a major premise, a minor premise and a conclusion. As illustrated below, it deals with a category, or class, of items. The major premise makes the statement that all the items in a certain class have a certain characteristic. You study a specific item or instance to see if it falls into the class mentioned in the major premise. If so, you state this fact in the minor premise. The conclusion then follows as a matter of course—that the specific item or instance possesses the characteristic of its class. Look at Example 1.

Example 1

Major Premise: All CAP senior member officers are over 18.
Minor Premise: Sturdivant is a CAP senior member officer.
Conclusion: Sturdivant is over 18.

Hypothetical syllogism. The hypothetical syllogism poses a condition that, if true, is followed by a consequence. The minor premise must either affirm that the condition exists or deny that the consequences have followed. Look at Examples 2 and 3:

Example 2

Major Premise: If Brown wrote the book, it is a good book.
Minor Premise: Brown did write the book.
Conclusion: It is a good book.

Example 3

Major Premise: If Brown wrote the book, it is a good book.
Minor Premise: Brown did not write the book.
Conclusion: It is not a good book.

Although the logic is faultless, the conclusion of Example 3 is not a certainty because the minor premise is vague about the true value of the book; it does not tell us about authors other than Brown.

Fallacies

A fallacy is an argument that contains a mistake in reasoning. The purpose of this section is to examine a list of some common fallacies so you can be on guard against them. For the sake of simplicity and clarity, we will divide fallacies into two major groups: formal fallacies and informal fallacies. In the blanks provided in this section, write the reason why the syllogism is incorrect

Formal fallacies occur when the formal rules of the syllogism are violated.

The four-Term Fallacy. The most deceptive four-term arguments are the ones that use terms that have different meanings.

Major Premise: All real men are Marines.
Minor Premise: All bearers of Y chromosomes are real men.
Conclusion: All bearers of Y chromosomes are Marines.
This syllogism is invalid because _____?

The major and minor premises refer to different groups.

The Undistributed Middle Term. A middle term is *distributed* when it includes all members of the class to which it refers. If the middle term does not, then the argument is invalid.

Major Premise: Some CAP officers are lawyers.
Minor Premise: Harvey is a CAP officer.
Conclusion: Therefore, Harvey is a lawyer.
This argument is invalid because _____?

“Officers” is not distributed.

Illicit Process of the Major or Minor Term. This involves inserting more in the conclusion than either the major or minor premised warrant.

Major Premise: All children are innocent beings.
Minor Premise: No adults are children.
Conclusion: Therefore, adults are not innocent.

The conclusion states more than the premises imply. The major term (“innocent beings”) is undistributed because _____?

This group does not consist entirely of children.

The Negative Premises. You cannot draw any conclusion from two negative premises; if both premises are negative, the subject and predicate of the conclusion are excluded.

Major Premise: No Eskimo food is tasty.

Minor Premise: Broiled squid is not Eskimo food.

Conclusion?

You cannot reach an accurate conclusion because _____?

Both subjects are eliminated.

Informal Fallacies. Arguments in ordinary language that cannot always be easily converted to standard form syllogisms also may contain fallacies, known in logic as informal fallacies.

Over-generalization. This is one of the most common and potentially the most dangerous of the material fallacies. If you form a general rule after examining only a few of the factors, you have over-generalized.

Major Premise: Maxwell is an Air Force Base.

Minor Premise: Maxwell is hot in the summer.

Conclusion: All Air Force Bases are hot in the summer.

Begging the Question. This is also known as “arguing in a circle.” It happens when the premise of the argument contains the conclusion. For example, a communist says, “The lust for private property is the root of all social evil.” When you ask for proof, the Communist replies that Karl Marx said it was. “How can you be so sure he was right?” The answer is a perfect example of the circular argument: “Because he founded communism.”

Complex Question. There is an old joke question, “Have you stopped beating your little brother?” This is an example of the complex question fallacy. It is two questions rolled into one; it supposes you are beating your little brother, as well as asking when you will stop. Asking this one question presupposes that you are beating your little brother.

Ad hominem Argument. This is a personal attack on the opponent rather than on their argument. For example, do not believe anything you hear from senior members; you cannot trust anyone over 21!

Appeals. The next four informal material fallacies concern the appeals to force, pity, the crowd and illegitimate authority. An appeal to force is a common fallacy of argument. It occurs when you try to persuade other people by intimidating them.

The appeal to the crowd is a familiar type of fallacy. It attempts to win an argument by appealing to emotions, prejudices, and interests of the listeners rather than appealing to reason. When speakers appeal to an illegitimate authority, they appeal to someone who did not have access to relevant information on the subject, who did not have the necessary training or ability in the subject area, or who was unfair or biased.

Accident. This fallacy attempts to apply a general rule to a special circumstance where it does not apply, such as citing morals or principles that are universally accepted but are not relevant to the exceptional circumstances involved.

Post Hoc Fallacy. This assumes if an event precedes another in time, it causes the second. A perfect example is the reasoning of Chantecler, the rooster in Edmond Rostand’s famous play of the same name. Chantecler reasoned that his crowing caused the sun to rise because it always rose after he crowed each morning.

Irrelevant Conclusion. This fallacy, also called “ignoring the issue,” occurs when you try to make your point by diverting attention to something irrelevant. For example, a United Nations delegate whose country accuses another of aggression may rise and give a dramatic portrayal of the horrors of war. All the delegate has done, however, is divert attention because his speech has no proof that his country was invaded.

Tu Quoque Argument. Perhaps the weakest type of argument is the *tu quoque*, which literally means *thou also* or *You are another*. A political officeholder is found guilty of violating campaign election laws. In defense, the officeholder says, “But so has every candidate ever elected mayor.”

Verbal Fallacies. Some basic types of verbal fallacy: equivocation, amphibole, accent, composition, and division.

Equivocation. This is the most obvious verbal fallacy. It is sometimes called “double talk” and uses one word in two or more senses. For example, consider the following argument: “I read that the National Health Organization advises everyone to take a short *trip* during summer vacation. Therefore, I intend to take a *trip* on LSD.” Here, *trip* has two meanings.

Amphibole. This results from poor grammar in an argument. It usually involves dangling participles, misplaced modifiers, or misplaced relative clauses that make the meaning of the premises ambiguous. A simple illustration is. “Jim likes strawberries more than his girlfriend.” Does Jim like strawberries more than he likes his girlfriend? Or does he like strawberries more than his girlfriend likes them?

Accent. This is when the exact meaning of a statement receives an unexpected emphasis. “Citizens should not commit crimes of *violence*?” When the last word in this statement is emphasized, the statement seems to imply that other types of crimes, nonviolent ones, would be acceptable. What if “citizens” received special emphasis? The statement would then imply that it might be all right for non-citizens to commit violent crimes.

Composition. This happens when you attempt to reason about the collective whole from information concerning only an individual part. If you reason that a CAP unit is powerful because it has many powerful cadets in it, you would be guilty of the fallacy of composition. Individually they may be powerful, but collectively they may not be.

Division. This is the opposite of the fallacy of composition. Here, what is true of the whole is also true of its parts. If you reason that there are many teenagers in the world, and since CAP cadets are teenagers, then there must be very many CAP cadets.

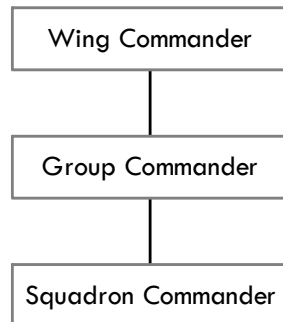
MANAGING PRINCIPLES: COORDINATING

Coordinating, or exchanging information, is the third of the five managerial functions introduced in Chapter 8. It is important throughout management because it establishes and maintains good human relations, achieves unity of effort, promotes mutual understanding, and binds the whole organization at each level.

Internal and External Coordination

Internal Coordination. This deals with elements that are directly or indirectly under your control. For example, arranging for, and getting the right people to do the right things, at the right times, and in the right amount to get a unified effort. It blends the activities of the different parts of your unit. The internal coordination within an organization requires three types of communication flow: vertical, lateral, and informal.

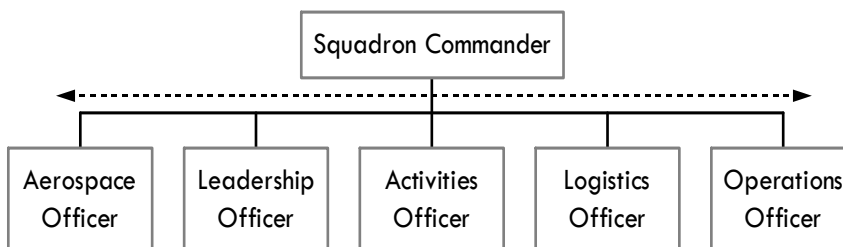
Vertical Flow. This involves the upward and downward movement of communication through the formal structure of your unit. It begins when you issue messages to people further down the chain of command and expect useful feedback from them. The messages may be written or oral, directive or non-directive, formal or informal, or even gestures or facial expressions.



DESCRIBE THE FORMS OF INTERNAL COORDINATION.

VERTICAL FLOW OF COMMUNICATION

Lateral Flow Horizontal or lateral flow of communication, as shown in the figure, lets supervisors on the same organizational level coordinate their activities without referring every matter to the commander. Such channels improve understanding, increase the speed of information, and relieve superiors from having to handle all matters of coordination. Encourage horizontal or lateral communication in your unit, but make sure subordinates keep from making policy changes or commitments beyond their authority, and that they keep you informed of all interdepartmental coordination and activities.



LATERAL FLOW OF COMMUNICATION

Informal Flow. This refers to unofficial verbal or written communication that follows the informal channels rather than formal ones. An effective type of informal communication is the “grapevine.” It is a structureless relationship between members of an organization who know each other well enough to pass on information about the unit. It thrives on information not available to all members because it is confidential, formal lines of communication are not adequate for dispersing it, or it would not be revealed formally (scandal, top-level incompetence, etc.) Here are some characteristics of the grapevine:

- ▶ Communication flows quickly.
- ▶ Information passed along it gets distorted.
- ▶ Communication flows between people that know each other well.
- ▶ Use increases as people get more closely located.
- ▶ Messages usually concern matters that affect your work.

You can never furnish your cadets with enough interesting and pertinent information to make the grapevine purposeless or unnecessary. It simply will not die. You would be wise to use it; take advantage of its quick communication capability by feeding it accurate information.

External Coordination. This is communicating with units outside your own to get their cooperation to achieve a common objective. Each unit is a part of a larger one made up of separate units that must work together into a single unified operation. For that reason, the activities of every unit must be coordinated both laterally and vertically with those of related units. A good example of this is the relationship between the CAP and the USAF during a CAP encampment.

DESCRIBE THE FORMS OF EXTERNAL COORDINATION.

Communication Media for Coordinating

Written. Much of your coordinating can be in written instructions, reports, memoranda, and many types of printed matter. Be sure to review good writing in Chapter 10. Newsletters, official correspondence, directives, standard operating procedures, bulletins, and other types of written communication are used to spread authentic information to everyone.

EXPLAIN THE ADVANTAGES & DISADVANTAGES OF WRITTEN VERSES VERBAL COORDINATION

There are advantages to writing. You can transmit precisely the same information to many people at once, thus saving time and expense. It also can be kept on file as an official record and reference source. It is usually carefully worded.

Written communication also has some disadvantages. It is slower than verbal communication, and you may find ideas hard to express in writing.

Verbal. This helps create a friendly and cooperative attitude, and stimulates individual and group morale. Verbal communication allows questions to be asked and answered on the spot. Beyond individual contact, verbal communications include conferences, staff meetings, and seminars. Weigh the advantages and disadvantages of using group on individual face-to-face communications.

EFFECTIVE WRITING

Use Acceptable, Clear English

Write Acceptable English. This means use standard, informal English. Standard English is the language used in this manual magazines, books, newspapers, and speeches. It is the language you hear from radio and television news announcers. It is the language you were taught in school. (Non-standard English, on the other hand, sounds like this: “They brung it theirselves,” and “He don’t have no education..”)

IDENTIFY WAYS TO SIMPLIFY YOUR WRITING

You should, of course, use Standard English in all your writing. Within Standard English there is a wide range of formality. Avoid a formal academic style

because words are longer and less familiar, sentences are longer and more complex, and the writing style is indirect and impersonal. Legal documents are a common example of formal Standard English.

How formal you write depends on the subject, occasion, and reader. Usually, write in the informal range, since that is what most of your readers will find easier to read and understand. You can improve your writing style best by improving your choice and use of words.

Use Short, Common Words. Base your writing on your reader's vocabulary. A word may be precisely correct and still be undesirable if your reader does not understand it.

Avoid Abstract Words if Possible. No distinction between words is more important than that between concrete and abstract words. *Concrete* means something that can be perceived by at least one of the five senses. *Abstract* means something that cannot be seen, heard, tasted, smelled or touched. It refers to an idea or a quality or an idea like "literature," "democracy," or "Patriotism." You can see and touch a book, but cannot see and touch literature. When you are writing about abstract ideas, search for the concrete words that give "flesh and blood" to your "abstract skeleton." Tie the abstractions to specific experience using examples and illustrations.

Avoid Wasteful Words. This camouflages the obvious, inflates the simple, and clouds the clear. It is passive, uses the future tense, and issues orders. For example:

It has been observed that accidents increase during holiday periods. Therefore, personnel traveling during such periods will exercise the necessary caution required to prevent accidents.

Simplified, this means, "If you are driving anywhere during the holidays, be especially careful."

Beware of Technical Words. This is particularly true when you write for someone outside your technical field. Technical terms are necessary at times because they are shortcuts to communication when you and your reader already know them. Otherwise they become blocks to understanding. If you must use a technical word (or group of words), or an ordinary term in a special way, define it. Do this by putting the term into its class, and telling how the term differs from others of its class. For example, when explaining what a "cutout" is to a new CAP member, define it by saying it is a patch of metal uniform insignia (it is now something in the class of uniform insignia) that is made of the letters "CAP" (it is now different from all other uniform insignia in this way).

Basics of Grammar

Grammatical terms. To write effective sentences, you should first make sure you know something about the basic grammatical terms. Look at the definitions below to see if you know them

Nouns: names of people, places, things, qualities, acts, ideas, relationships: General Smith, Texas, aircraft, confusion, mayor, predestination, grandfather.

Pronouns: words that refer indirectly to people, places, things: he, she, which, it, someone.

Adjectives: words that point out or show a quality of nouns or pronouns: big, lowest, cold, hard.

Prepositions: words that link nouns and pronouns to other words by showing the relationship between them: to, by, between, above, behind, about, of, in, on, from.

IDENTIFY GRAMMATICAL TERMS.

Conjunctions: words used to join other words, phrases, and clauses: and, but, however, because, although.

Verbs: Words that express action or show a state, feeling or simply existence: go, hate, fly, feel, is.

Adverbs: words that tell how, where, when, or to what degree acts were performed or show a degree of quality: slowly, well, today, much, very.

Subject: a noun or pronoun (or phrase used as a noun) that names the actor in a sentence. The term may be used in a broader sense to include all of the words that are related to the actor.

Predicate: the verb with its modifiers and its object or complement.

Predicate complement: a noun or adjective completing the meaning of a linking verb and modifying the subject. Jones is a chief (noun). He was *pale* (adjective).

Linking verb: a verb with little or no meaning of its own that usually shows a state of being or condition. It functions chiefly to connect the subject with an adjective or noun in the predicate. The most common linking verb is the verb *to be* (*am, are, is, was, had been*), but there are others. For example, He *feels* nervous. He *acts* old. He *seems* tired.

Clause: an element that is part of a complex or compound sentence and has a subject, a verb, and often an object. *Nero killed Agrippina, but he paid the penalty.* Each stressed group of words is an independent clause. In the *complete* sentence, “*Because he killed Agrippina, Nero paid the penalty.*” The stressed clause is made dependent or subordinate by the word “*because.*” It depends upon the rest of the sentence for the complete meaning.

Phrase: two or more words without a subject and predicate that function as a grammatical unit in a clause or sentence. A phrase may modify another word or may be used as a noun or verb. For example: *besides the aircraft, approaching the target, to fly a jet.* The example makes no sense at all!

Verbals: words made from verbs but used as other parts of speech:

Gerund (a verb used as a noun): Swimming can be fun.

Participle (a verb used as an adjective): The aircraft, *piloted* by Colonel James, has landed.

Infinitive (a verb used as a noun, adjective, or adverb):

To *travel* is my greatest pleasure. (infinitive used as a noun.)

We have four days *to spend* at home (infinitive used as an adjective).

Bruce was glad *to have* enlisted. (infinitive used as an adverb.)

Many of our words can serve as more than one part of speech. Some words may be used as nouns, adjectives, and verbs without any change in spelling: *Drinking* coffee is a popular pastime; He broke the drinking glass; The boy is *drinking* a glass of milk. Often they may be both adjectives and adverbs: *better, well, fast.* Ordinarily you add *-ly*, to words to form adverbs, while adjectives may be formed by adding *able, -ly, -ing, -al, -ese, -ful, -ish, -ous, -y.* But these endings are not always necessary: *college boy* (noun used as an adjective to modify the noun *boy*).

Subject-Verb-Object Word Order

In English it makes all the difference where you place the words in a sentence. Look at the two simple sentences below:

The dog bit the man.

The man bit the dog.

These sentences use the same words, each means exactly the opposite because of the word order. Remember that pattern: S-V-O, subject, verb, object? This is the standard pattern of the English sentence. English sentences usually have three elements: an actor, an action word, and an object. To make your writing clear and brief, you should be sure your sentence elements are written in the active voice. However, other words are often added to this framework to complete the idea of the sentence. These may be added as individual words or as phrases or clauses acting as one word. These words, phrases, or clauses are added to elaborate on, to describe, or to clarify—in short to *modify*—the subject, verb, object, or any combination of them. The word order is the only way you can tell what word, phrase (or clause) modifies what. The modifier and its modified word must be close together so that you can quickly and easily see the relationship between them, otherwise it is a misplaced modifier. If you follow the basic S-V-O sentence pattern, and keep your modifiers close to the words they modify, you will be following the rules.

Consolidate Ideas. There are several things you can do to pack meaning into a sentence. They all involve summarizing, combining, and consolidating ideas. The following example has all the ideas, but they are not combined. Each idea is in a separate sentence.

We left Wisconsin the next morning, I remember three aircraft. They were F-4's, a type of aircraft I had never seen before. They were flying so low that over a half dozen times I felt sure they were going to crash.

Vary Sentence Length and Pattern. Reading experts suggest that a sentence should rarely exceed 20 words. Their suggestion is a good rule of thumb, but reading gets boring unless sentence length varies. An occasional long sentence is not hard to read if it is followed by shorter ones. A fair goal for letter writers is an average of 21 words or less per sentence. For longer types of writing, such as regulations and manuals, sentences should average 15 words or less. Sentences in opening paragraphs and in short letters may run a little longer than average.

Another way to keep your writing interesting is to vary your sentence pattern. We will look at some ways you can change the pattern of a statement.

The parachutists sailed down. They shouted to each other.

Down sailed the parachutists, shouting to each other.

As the parachutists sailed down, they shouted to each other.

The parachutists sailed down; they shouted to each other.

The parachutists shouted to each other as they sailed down.

Be careful not to consolidate ideas too often or the reading will become difficult. Sentence length and word difficulty are most important in measuring reading ease.

Write Effective Paragraphs

Every sentence in a paragraph should relate to one main idea. This does not mean that each main idea must be dealt with conclusively in a single paragraph. A paragraph may present an idea and support it. Or a paragraph may present an idea, and subsequent paragraphs may furnish it.

Good paragraphing requires skill. In cases where the material breaks naturally, you have no problem. Often, however, you the writer must decide where the breaks should be. Remember, a good paragraph has essential elements: the topic sentence, support for the idea expressed in the topic sentence, transitions to help you follow the idea, and an ending. Now, consider these elements in greater detail.

The Topic Sentence. The beginning of the paragraph is a critical part. Usually, the lead sentence should be the topic sentence of the paragraph. The topic sentence is the most important single sentence in the paragraph because it expresses the main idea of the paragraph. It makes sense to use the topic sentence as the first sentence of the paragraph. The first sentence is the easiest to find, it is in the most emphatic position, and it is where your attention is at its peak.

Support for the Topic Sentence. The middle of the paragraph is where you support the main idea in the topic sentence. The sentences in this part of the paragraph prove, describe, explain, or illustrate what has been said in the topic sentence. Support sentences must be logical extensions of the main idea in the topic sentence, they must be logically sequenced and be clear to the reader.

Transitions. Transitions link ideas and they relate individual ideas to the general purpose of the writing. They are the connective tissues in the body of a good manuscript. There are several ways to move from one idea to another. You may use a connecting word or phrase. You may have a whole sentence whose sole purpose is to move to the next point, or you may even want to use a whole paragraph for transition. One mark of maturity in a writer is the ability to sense and express the relationship between ideas. Also review Chapter 10.

EDITING, RE-WRITING, POLISHING

Technical and Editorial Reviews

Most readable writing is not simply dashed off quickly and easily. It must be written in a rough draft and then edited, rewritten, polished, and re-polished. A key writing technique is re-writing. Editing comes in two forms: (1) the technical review, which is a review of the substantive content; and (2) the editorial review, which is a review of the English usage. The checklist below suggests some specific points to check in both the technical and editorial reviews.

Technical Review

- ▶ Does it fulfill your objective?
- ▶ Does it cover essential points?
- ▶ Does the introduction explain what is to come and in what order?
- ▶ Are the proper assumptions included?
- ▶ Are the conclusions or recommendations significant, pertinent, and valid?
- ▶ Are the findings supported by the data presented?
- ▶ Does the main discussion or body describe the data, tests, procedures, etc. with completeness and accuracy?
- ▶ Are specific sources given for all information?
- ▶ Is the information exact and accurate?

Editorial Review

- ▶ Is the arrangement and order of presentation well balanced?
- ▶ Is there a suitable title page, table of contents, list of illustrations (if needed)?
- ▶ Is the writing clear, precise, and readable? Are the sections and subsections identified with accurate and interesting headings?
- ▶ Are typing errors corrected?
- ▶ Are the illustrations, charts, and tables (if any) accurately numbered for identification? Do they appear near the data they support? Are they referenced to the sections they support?
- ▶ Is the formality of language appropriate to the readers? Too technical? Too bureaucratic? Too much jargon?
- ▶ Are abbreviations and new terms explained?
- ▶ Is the transition adequate from topic to topic, paragraph to paragraph, and sentence to sentence?

On your next-to-final draft make both technical and editorial reviews. To decide whether a writer's purpose is attained through a logical development of the subject, consider the presentation of the assumptions, objectivity, breadth of vision, and credibility.

Personal and Partner Editing Methods

Writing is ordinarily reviewed and edited by you or by a partner. One widely used personal method is to write down your thoughts while reserving judgment on readability. The big problem is to get it written. Then, edit and re-write. When your draft is complete, walk away from it and do something else totally different from writing. When you come back to it you may wonder how the draft could be so poorly written, but with a refreshed mind, that often happens.

While reviewing and editing your own writing, switch your viewpoint to that of the reader. A good way to do this is to lay your copy aside for a day or two before editing it. Then look at it the way some objective person who never saw your document would. This is called the *cold eye* approach.

Even the best writers have trouble editing their own work. It is natural for you to see only what you *intended* to say rather than what you *actually* said. If you ask someone to read and criticize your writing, be prepared to accept the criticism and thank them for it. Do not argue with your partner. Your reader is doing you a favor by representing your other readers. Choose someone who can see the work more objectively than you can and can identify errors, ambiguities, and awkward phrases. Remember, a good review is responsible, consistent, and objective.

Readability

Writers often try to impress readers rather than express ideas. As a result, their writings suffer in readability. Prose is difficult when readers are given a bigger dose of ideas than their minds can take at one time. Every word in a sentence stands for some kind of idea.

To count the number of separate ideas in a sentence, count the words in a sentence, but keeping words easy and pronounced in one or two syllables, you can make your writing more readable.

DRILL AND CEREMONIES

You should now be very familiar with drill and ceremonies. Ensure that flight commanders supervise their flight sergeants, guides, and element leaders. Generally, flight commanders should not directly teach their basic cadets. Their non-commissioned officers should do the direct teaching of using the command voice, by the numbers, and allowing their more proficient cadets to give individual instruction to other cadets. Remember, you should be evaluating flight commanders on how well they observe and critique cadet noncommissioned officers. Everyone should have an equal chance to lead temporarily. Pay particular attention to what drill movements the cadet staff is expected to know, either when they march as a staff, or when a staff member substitutes for a flight commander or squadron commander.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Define logic. Why is important for leaders to study it formally?
2. Identify and discuss potential barriers to logic.
3. Identify and discuss two types of reasoning.
4. Identify and explain five different fallacies.
5. Discuss the reasons for coordinating. How does it fit into the five functions of management?
6. Compare and contrast vertical flow, lateral flow, and informal flow in terms of coordination.
7. Compare and contrast written and verbal coordination. When should each be used?
8. Identify and discuss three ways to simplify your writing.
9. Identify grammatical terms and discuss ways to avoid common grammatical errors.
10. Describe how paragraphs can be structured for readability and logic.
11. Compare and contrast technical and editorial reviews in editing.

SPECIAL READING

THE IG's ADVICE TO COMMANDERS by Lt Gen Louis L. Wilson Jr.

As the IG (Inspector General), my function is to identify problems and management deficiencies which require command attention and report the facts as they really are. I have seen both success and failure, all too often because simple rules of dealing with command responsibilities have been violated.

Today more than ever, strong, efficient and effective leadership is essential for the success of the Air Force mission. We face a great many problems which you as the future leaders will inherit and hopefully solve.

Effective leadership must have substance. I have identified ten points of guidance which I consider essential to being a successful supervisor or commander.

If you employ them all fully, you will be a success—if you don't, you are risking success. My first point of advice is to be tough. There is an old saying that “an army of deer led by a lion is more to be feared than an army of lions led by a deer.” We repeatedly see “weak sisters” trying to be commanders. This is the individual who doesn't have the courage even to reprimand a subordinate for not cutting his hair.

Quite frankly, the place where I see the best morale, and happy people is the organization where the commander is tough. Everybody knows where he stands—the outfit is usually good and the troops are proud.

The second most important factor I think that you must remember is that you have got to see for yourself what's going on. Too many would-be commanders think that their place of business is in their office. I maintain that your place of business is where the action is.

Generally, when we find good commanders, we find their footprints all over the place. Their impact is apparent in everything we see. It also has the beneficial effect of allowing your subordinates to see that you're interested in their problems, their working conditions, and their welfare.

Third, I would suggest you search out the problems in your organization. If you think you're not having problems, you are just ignorant of what's going on in your organization. Somebody is not passing the word, and it's got to be your fault. You have probably inhibited your people by letting them know you don't like problems, don't expect problems and the guy who brings them to you is in trouble. This is a sure way to fail.

The commander has got to know when his organization is off course. Accordingly, he must listen to his people and seek out problems, irregularities, grievances and complaints then find their causes and eliminate them.

Problems are not all that tough if you have the facts. If there were no problems in an outfit at all, it could run without a commander.

Fourth, find out what the make/break activities are in your organization. Then get yourself involved in those activities on a priority basis. Let your weight be felt in these critical actions. For example, in flying organizations, nothing, absolutely nothing, is more essential than sound maintenance. Yet, we find and continue to find, commanders who know little about maintenance. What's more,

they don't seem to care. They seem to say "that is dirty work, much better left up to the maintenance officer. I will spend my time and energies on operations." Did you ever hear of any commander getting fired for lousy operations? I haven't, but I have seen lots of commanders fired as the result of poor maintenance and aircraft accidents resulting from poor maintenance. But don't get hung up on this example of maintenance. There is always a critical path. Make sure you find yours and get personally involved.

Sensitivity is my fifth point and it is a common sense extension of my last three. You can get out and look at your activity; you can listen to your people and you may know your critical path but if you don't develop an ability to perceive the real problems and sort them out according to priorities, you will be like a pilot flying IFR using 1940 instruments, if you get to your destination you'll be lucky.

So often, I see commanders and supervisors who don't recognize a problem when it's staring them in the face. A good example is quality control reports which tell a commander about a serious problem, an unsatisfactory condition. Yet that commander doesn't do anything about it—it doesn't have any impact on him. He lacks sensitivity. Even if people are telling you about your problems, you're not home free if you don't have the sensitivity to recognize the serious ones and give them realistic priorities.

My sixth recommendation is don't take things for granted. Don't assume that something wrong has been fixed, take a look at it yourself. Get the facts. Nothing is more embarrassing than to come up short when the chips are down. Repeat discrepancies on IG inspections are a good example. Too often we find that commanders and supervisors leave corrective action up to subordinates and don't follow up themselves. Be from Missouri—make'em show you once in a while.

Recommendation number seven is DO NOT TOLERATE INCOMPETENCE. So often in our inspections we see totally incompetent people in key jobs. Yet, the boss carries this great albatross around his neck because he just doesn't have the heart to admonish, reprimand, or fire the individuals concerned.

I don't mean that you have to be cruel, unkind, or inconsiderate. All I'm saying is that once a cadet has demonstrated that he's either too lax or too disinterested, unwilling or unable, because of aptitude, to get a job done, than I think you should call his hand and terminate his assignment. On the other hand, when you have someone who is doing a super job, encourage him, support him, and he will do even better.

My eighth recommendation is don't alibi. Nothing is more disgusting to me than to hear commanders and supervisors come up with an alibi for everything we find wrong. They aren't willing to face the fact that they too are human and can make mistakes. They often get very defensive and it makes you wonder whether things are going to be fixed or not.

My ninth point is don't procrastinate. Don't put off those tough decisions just because you're not willing to make them today. I don't mean to make decisions irrationally or without due process of your reasoning powers. We have seen organizations during our inspection activities which are completely bogged down because they can't get the simplest decision from their commanders or supervisors. This tends to build a lethargic, dull organization and just won't create the gung-ho, can-do outfits we like to see.

Finally, be honest. Don't quibble. Tell it like it is and insist that your people level with you in everything they say or do. They establish their patterns based on your leadership and example.

Nothing, absolutely nothing, can be more disastrous to a commander than to and figures just to make things look good. If a commander permits a “botch up” calculating, just to make his unit or function look good, he is a loser before he starts. It indicates that he is not willing to face the issue squarely. How reassuring it would be someday to have a commander say to me, “My scheduling effectiveness rate is not too good, but let me show you why and what we have done to correct it.”

The Chief of Staff was very clear on this point when he discussed integrity in decisions and risks taken by the highest national authorities depend, in large part, on reported military capabilities and achievements.” He went on to say, “Integrity is the most important responsibility of command. Commanders are dependent on the integrity of those reporting to them in every decision they make. Integrity can be ordered but it can only be achieved by encouragement and example.” Honesty is the most important ingredient in the make-up of an Air Force officer. Violations of integrity are serious offenses.

In conclusion, let me predict that when our future leaders are chosen, you will be able to look back and find that their careers exemplify the ten points I have just discussed. There are some of you who can and will be among those future leaders. This will require hard work, enthusiasm, and dedication—there is no room for an 8 to 5 attitude.

I think I can sum up in one sentence: You must be involved, know what your problems are, remove the weak, promote the strong, and really lead, not react—and to do all this well, you’ve got to be tough, not mean or inconsiderate, just tough.

Chapter 12

INTRODUCTION

When you first joined, you assumed the responsibility of becoming a good leader. To be a good leader, you first studied what leadership is, types of leadership, personality characteristics of leaders, and so on. You developed those characteristics in yourself. You are also beginning to understand what roles others play in a unit in order to lead and work with them. This chapter helps you do this by focusing on leadership situations, directing, and communicating. After you read more about these things, you will apply them and refine them for the rest of your leadership life.

Leadership is difficult to pin down because it depends on a combination of changing circumstances and changing personalities. Because of this, no fixed rules can be set down about leadership. Learning about leadership, then, must focus on broad principles and very general theories.

PROBLEM SOLVING & LEADERSHIP SITUATIONS

Leadership Case Study One

The following leadership situation is for you to decide what is best or workable. This example, as with all situations, has no “school solution.”

Cadet Sharp is the cadet flight sergeant of a sizeable CAP composite squadron in Alexander City. At the weekly meeting of the cadets, Tommy, who walks with a slight limp, says privately, “I’d like to talk to you about something, but I cannot talk to you here.” Cadet Sharp arranges for Tommy to bike over the Sharp house the next evening. Sitting on the back porch, 13 year old Tommy begins his story. Tommy’s limp is caused by a birth defect that left one leg shorter than the other. He can run and ride a bicycle, but he finds it very difficult to participate in squadron and flight drill. He tries, and feels that he can march pretty well, but some members of the squadron, led by a certain cadet sergeant, have gone to the deputy commander for cadets and complained about Tommy. They do not want him marching with the squadron because his marching detracts from the military bearing of the rest of the unit. Anyway, this is the story Tommy heard from one of his buddies in the squadron. No one has said anything to Cadet Sharp about this.

Discussion. If you were Cadet Sharp how are you going to solve this problem? Look back at Chapter 9 and review the problem-solving steps. You have to identify the problem. Is your problem Tommy’s limp, or the cadets’ reaction to it? Next, you have to gather all the information you can about the problem. This means listening attentively to both sides of the controversy. (Taking notes during, or as soon as possible after listening helps greatly.) Once you have your information, evaluate it. Separate facts from opinions and assumptions. Facts are truths, they actually exist. Opinions may or may not be based on facts. Assumptions are presumptions you must make to solve the problem. Then, list all possible solutions to the problem. Now, test them, using the least disruptive possible solution first.

APPLY PROBLEM-SOLVING TO SITUATIONS TYPICAL OF CAP UNITS.

Is the root of the problem real or imaginary? Is appearance the basis? Were the cadets who complained manipulated by one or two cadets? What about the point of view of a unit united in support of unit development and personal development? How about a special drill team? What effect would that have? What were the ground rules when Tommy joined?

In the case you just looked at, you must include Tommy as a *full* member of the unit. The complaining cadets must see that they are better for his inclusion.

Now, look at another leadership situation and see how well you can use the problem solving method.

Leadership Case Study Two

Cadet Sharp is serving as a cadet staff officer at a Type A encampment. In your wing, many cadet participants in wing activities are selected from application forms because personal interviews are not possible. Cadets apply for encampment staff positions on a special form and are selected by the wing director of cadet programs. Cadet Sharp is assigned to monitor a cadet flight at the encampment. After two days of observation, it becomes that one flight has a flight sergeant who is more capable than the higher ranking cadet flight commander. He can drill and move the flight better and has more ability in leadership and human relations. The flight commander knows enough to get by, and he tries, but he looks ineffectual compared to the flight sergeant. Three of the cadets in the flight approach Cadet Sharp after supper to say this situation is causing confusion, even dissension within the flight. They want the marginal flight commander removed, and the lower-ranking flight sergeant installed as the new flight commander. One of the three cadets—the biggest—implies that it will not be long before everyone in the flight will not follow the flight commander. It is not the type of problem Cadet Sharp wants to take to the encampment commandant of cadets, but it could get serious enough to get to her.

Discussion. Is Cadet Sharp going to be bullied by the “biggest” cadet? Use the problem solving method. What did you find out? Do several items fit? While finding a solution consider: Do you, as a cadet staff officer, have the authority to replace the less able flight commander? Have you used all your leadership and communication skills to carry out the solution?

Is the present flight commander getting the job done? Is the bully actively understanding the cadet flight commander?

COUNSELING TECHNIQUES

As a leader, you will have people ask for your advice and your help. They may have personal problems that affect their job performance, such as: family problems or anxiety over tests, school, or other matters. What can you do as a unit leader when this occurs? Start by listening. If it is a problem that you can resolve quickly, do so. If not, refer them to the proper member of the unit such as the chaplain, first sergeant, etc. Treat the person as you wish to be treated if you were the one with the problem.

Hypothetical Situation. CAP is supposed to develop a program for Armed Forces Day and you are in charge of the entire project. Ann (leader of the bulletin board committee) has asked you to talk with Bill, a member of her committee. Bill has griped about everything she has suggested. She has tried to reason with Bill, but he just will not listen. Ann has discussed her ideas with you, and you think they are really good. Ann hopes you might be able to get Bill to stop complaining so much. You are going to talk with Bill today. What do you do?

DEFINE COUNSELING.

Perhaps the hardest job you will have is to counsel people. Like almost everything else you do, counseling is communication. Effective counseling is **not** giving advice. Effective counseling is helping people understand themselves, their problems, and how to solve their problems themselves.

Do you remember the situation you read at the beginning of this section? You're going to meet with Bill and try to help him become a more productive member of your team. Before you go to that meeting, look at some things that will help you help Bill.

Effective Counseling

An effective counselor is:

- ▶ **Interested.** To help Bill, you must be interested in Bill. Bill will; not talk with you if you appear insincere. Be sincere, honest, and sensitive.
- ▶ **Accepting.** Accept Bill as a person. You may not like Bill's behavior, but make it clear from the start that you accept him as a *person* with values, emotions, and ideas. Bill has to know this to believe that you want to help him.
- ▶ **Attentive.** Listen closely to what Bill says. Try to feel the emotions he expresses. Is he angry, hurt, proud, or afraid? If you can find out how Bill feels, you may have a clue about why he acts the way he does. Listen, do not judge, consider the whole person.
- ▶ **Confidential.** You should not tell anyone else what Bill tells you. If you tell anyone who does not *need to know* what you and Bill discuss, you're violating Bill's trust. If this happens, Bill may never trust you as a leader or counselor again.

A counselor then is someone who wants to help, cares about people, listens to discover the real problem, and can be trusted. By combining these characteristics with the right counseling approach, you can help your people. As a counselor, you can choose the directive, non-directive, or a combination of these approaches. Each is best suited to particular situations and counselors. The next sections show the techniques involved and discuss where you can best use each.

Directive Approach

"Directive" does not mean telling the counselee what to do; it means you work directly (one-on-one) to help solve the problem. You help the cadet recognize the problem, and you suggest ways to solve the problem. Although you will actively help Bill reach a solution, remember that Bill; owns the problem and is responsible for the solution! Directive counseling.:

- ▶ Is concerned more with immediate rather than long range problems.
- ▶ Does little to make any major personality changes, but is more concerned with the immediate adjustment to frustrating situations.
- ▶ Is considered more problem-centered than person-centered and
- ▶ Concerns itself with changing specific aspects of your cadet's behavior such as social behavior, attitudes, and task behavior.

DESCRIBE THE CHARACTERISTICS OF AN EFFECTIVE COUNSELOR.

Monitor counseling closely, especially where cadets are concerned. Have another adult present, preferably one of the same gender as the cadet if the cadet is of a different gender than you.

DESCRIBE THE DIRECTIVE APPROACH TO COUNSELING.

Because directive counseling focuses on your ability to suggest solutions, this approach is also called counselor-centered. Do not force your solution on your cadet. What seems logical to you may not be logical for Bill. Another problem with this approach is that Bill may feel that you want only to get the bulletin board done and really do not care about his feelings. You have to work hard to help Bill see he is important to you and that you are committed to help.

Non-Directive Approach

Non-directive, or client-centered counseling, means that you take the cadet's point of view. You put yourself in the cadet's place and understand the problem from the cadet's point of view. Your objective is to cause some change or growth in the cadet. Non-directive counseling:

- ▶ Is concerned with long-term, lasting change or growth in the cadet.
- ▶ Assumes that only the cadet knows the problem and only the cadet can solve the problem, and
- ▶ Means you do not direct or advise the cadet.

It sounds like the job of a non-directive counselor might be easy. Actually, it is quite difficult. You must act to help the counselee clarify feelings and recognize problems without giving only advice or direction! This means that you have to act as a mirror and reflect the cadet's thoughts, emotions, and attitudes so the cadet begins to recognize the situation and problems. You can only do this if you build a trusting, confidential relationship. This relationship is not "close friends," but a helping, caring, professional relationship.

Eclectic Approach

As you gain experience as a counselor, you probably will like some parts of each of the above approaches. This combination is called the eclectic approach. It will be different for each counselor/cadet situation. For example, you may choose to offer solutions or ideas about the problem (directive) while letting the cadet try to clarify values and emotions (non-directive). Many things affect the combination of methods you choose: the time available, your relationship with the cadet, your physical surroundings, and your own personal preference.

DESCRIBE THE NON-DIRECTIVE APPROACH TO COUNSELING.

DESCRIBE HOW TO CHOOSE A COUNSELING APPROACH.

GENERAL PURPOSE	INTENDED RESPONSE
Entertain	Relax, Please
Inform	Understand
Persuade	Act, Agree

Finally, you must always consider the cadet's emotional involvement. Can the two of you discuss the problem calmly, rationally? If so, the directive approach may offer the quickest way to a solution.

On the other hand, if the cadet is very emotional about the issue, you probably will choose the non-directive approach and allow the cadet to clarify feelings and values as the counseling goes along. No matter which approach you choose, the following hints should help your sessions be more productive.

Prepare for Your Session

- ▶ Find out about the cadet; check cadet records.
- ▶ Set up a place. Is it comfortable (try both chairs)? Is it private?
- ▶ Set up a time limit to keep things moving.
- ▶ Have a plan for the session.
- ▶ Conduct the session.
- ▶ Be pleasant and friendly.
- ▶ Let the cadet “solve” the problem.
- ▶ Do not be afraid of silence. The silence gives you both a chance to gather your thoughts.
- ▶ Let the cadet do most of the talking.
- ▶ End the session on time.
- ▶ Set up another session, if needed.

After the Session

- ▶ Make notes of your progress.
- ▶ Follow up! Make sure the problem is solved and that you keep whatever promises you made to the counselee.

Counseling is a technique successful leaders use to help their people work more efficiently within the organization. Effective counselors may use directive, non-directive, or an eclectic approach to counseling. Good counselors recognize their limitations and approach counseling situations with sincere interest in the counselee. Through a helping, understanding, confidential approach, leaders can help their people and make the organization a more pleasant place to work.

Recognize your limitations as a counselor. Get a senior member or professional to help the cadet if you are in over your head. Now look back to Case Studies 1 and 2 in this chapter. Would you change your problem-solving approach? Why?

MANAGEMENT PRINCIPLES: DIRECTING

Planning, organizing, and coordination are usually called the pre-executive phases of management. Directing is the fourth of the five management functions, introduced in Chapter 8. It tests the results of these “pre-executive” activities and clears the way for continuing improvements. The four essentials of directing are: focusing on the objective, stimulating cadets toward accomplishing the mission, supervising, and directing the procedure. The first three essentials are primarily concerned with directing people, and the fourth is concerned with directing the way the job is done. A mission is made up of tasks, which are, in turn, made up of procedures.

IDENTIFY AND DESCRIBE ASPECTS OF DIRECTING.

Directing is putting the plan into action and using resources to get the mission done. In directing, you integrate your preparatory actions into the task and adapt them to variables and to new factors. You discard those that are no longer useful.

A well-integrated task has only procedures that are essential to getting the mission done. Each step is timed so that together they run smoothly. To be effective, integrated procedures should meet three general conditions: the assumptions must be consistent, the records usable, and the by-products practical.

The assumptions underlying one procedure must be compatible and consistent with those of others. For instance, since line responsibilities are not key in a staff job, procedures should observe the distinction between line and staff functions.

To keep procedures integrated, see that records provide usable statistical data and other practical information you can use to evaluate and control tasks.

A procedure involves several steps. Each step gets some result that is then used in the next procedure. Sometimes these procedures are useful in several different tasks. In directing, use procedures that apply to more than one task wherever possible. For example, this rule applies to such functions as record keeping; you may use statistics originally compiled from another report.

Directing is considered to have two aspects: people and procedures. You not only supervise people, but are responsible for the total operation: carrying out the work, meeting the rules, and delivering results.

In directing, your resources meet. You control the use of cadets, material, facilities, and equipment. People cannot be treated like inanimate resources, although you may speak objectively about them in planning and organizing. A detached manner is not effective in directing people.

Since all tasks are different, be flexible when directing. Consider the role your cadets play in each situation—that is the nature of the task, the cadet's abilities, and how much they contribute to mission accomplishment. Since cadets are not machines, do not treat them like robots. Human effort requires motivation and is influenced by the attitudes and attributes of both the cadet and the people in the cadet's working team.

To direct people, establish a working relationship among the cadets in the working team. CAP does not expect one individual, as a member of a working group, to carry the load of an entire complex task. It is through the working team that the directing function affects the individual.

Essentials of directing. The essentials of directing are: (1) let your cadets know what you want them to do, (2) establish work practices and resolve conflicts that arise, (3) make decisions and issue orders that will assure efficient use of resources and keep to procedures, and (4) implement methods to improve operations. In directing, the greatest challenge is to make the best possible use of your resources. You must tell each cadet exactly what must be done, and how and when it must be done. Make sure your cadets understand you and you understand them. Encourage each cadet to ask questions and have each tell you what he or she is doing and why. Only then can you be sure that you are really *directing*. Accurate communication is a basic requirement of good directing.

Your knowledge of each cadet's needs, personality, and attitudes will affect the way you direct them. Be sure that all directions are within the cadet's capability. Constantly changing environments and situations make it necessary for your directing to be flexible.

Types of directions. There are four types of directions: demand, request, suggest, and volunteer. Each type fits a certain situation. The *demand* is most effective when you must keep strict control—as in drill when immediate action is required, or in an emergency situation. Using this type of direction unnecessarily causes resentment and tense relations. The *request* is most often used in day-to-day directing. It is no less binding than a demand type order, but treats the cadet with more respect. When you are dealing with experienced cadets who have a willing and cooperative attitude, this type gets the best results. The *suggestion* is best used with fully competent workers who readily accept responsibility. This type of direction stimulates initiative more than the other types, since the cadet decides what specific action to take. *Volunteer* direction is rarely used, and only to request something you cannot order. It is used for tasks that are beyond the call of duty, and in situations involving danger or abnormal conditions. It implies a choice; the other types of directions do not.

Directions can be either in written or verbal form. The choice is largely based on the situation and the people involved. Use a written order (1) when precise or complicated instructions are concerned, (2) where the cadet is to be held accountable, (3) where directions must be followed exactly, (4) to record permanent procedures, (5) for the cadet who has trouble following oral instructions, or (6) for untrained cadets.

Verbal directions are used (1) for day-to-day minor details, (2) to clarify a written order, (3) to help in an emergency, (4) where immediate compliance is needed, and (5) to give the cadet a chance to ask questions.

IDENTIFY AND DESCRIBE THE FOUR TYPES OF DIRECTIONS.

Stop and think of what must be done and who is most capable. Then meet with your team and remind them that teaching is part of their job (especially for later projects) and ask them how to accomplish the task and how they plan to teach it.

THE LECTURE TEACHING TECHNIQUE

Characteristics of a Good Speaker

Public speaking is more predominant than reading or writing. Eighty percent of communication is speaking. A highly competent speaker must have three fundamental qualities: integrity, knowledge, and skill.

Integrity. Integrity is truth, honesty. If what you talk about is unworthy, your cadets will refuse to accept it. If they feel you believe what you say, they will believe it also. If you do not build confidence, if you are arrogant, hostile or fearful, your listeners may close their minds to your worthwhile idea.

Knowledge. Knowledge is comprehensive and exact mastery of the subject. Knowledge of subject matter and knowledge of your cadets' behavior are two types of knowledge every competent speaker should have.

Since all your speaking is an effort to get a response from cadets, know something about their behaviors and characteristics.

Skill. The material must be organized for both your audience and you. Next is good delivery. It cannot substitute for good organization, but the way you project ideas should have dignity, force, and effectiveness. Another third skill is handling questions and those who ask them, especially during briefings. Anticipate questions and insert the answers into the speech or briefing. Also, prepare a reservoir of facts to use not in the presentation, but to answer a question only when asked.

DESCRIBE THE CHARACTERISTICS OF A GOOD SPEAKER.

Before Outlining Your Presentation

Before you make a tentative outline or jot down ideas, consider the subject, purpose, and situation of the speech. Actually, you must go through these steps simultaneously because both subject and purpose are influenced by your audience and the occasion.

Subject. If you can choose your subject, choose one that relates to your own experience, interests, or convictions—one you are eager to share with others or one you feel strongly about. Also consider the needs and interests of your cadets. It is comforting to know they have a responsibility to pay attention to your speech. Expect they will listen more attentively if your subject is interesting to them. Finally, consider the time you have for speaking. Reduce a big topic by moving from the general to a specific part of it.

Limit your subject in terms of your interests and qualifications, your listeners' needs and demands, and the time allotted for your speech. Give your listeners your best ideas. If the speech takes only a few minutes, you should not “pad” it with irrelevant material. Your most important duty is to say something worthwhile, interestingly and briefly. President Lincoln spoke less than five minutes at Gettysburg. Edward Everett, who was also on the platform, spoke more than an hour, yet most people are not aware of that.

Purpose. Every speech has a purpose. Besides the general purpose, you also must decide on your specific purpose. This is an exact statement of what you want your audience to understand, do, or believe. If your subject is “Participation in the CAP Program” and the general purpose is to persuade, decide how you want your listeners to participate in the program. You cannot choose materials and data intelligently until you know exactly what you want to do. Record your specific purpose or objective in one sentence and keep this written statement in front of you as a guide while you prepare your speech. Make sure every idea expressed, every item of supporting material, and every visual aid will get what you want from your audience.

Situation. Your analysis of the audience will decide the subject, the content, and the purpose of the speech. Know their educational age or intellectual maturity in order to help you to avoid talking over their heads or boring them with oversimplifications.

It is also helpful to know their probable attitude toward you and your specific purpose. Does the audience know you personally? Do they recognize you as an authority, or do you have to prove it? Will they be friendly, neutral, or hostile? Your choice of material and presentation method should be modified accordingly. The nature of the occasion also should affect what you say and how you say it.

Gathering Information for the Presentation

With your purpose in mind, you can now get material on the subject. Three sources of information will be helpful: your own knowledge and experience, other's knowledge and experience, and research. First access your own knowledge and experience. Develop a checklist of areas where you need further research and study. Next, turn to those who know something about the subject. They can help you clarify your own thinking. Give you new facts, and suggest sources for further research.

IDENTIFY AND DESCRIBE STEPS THAT HELP SPEAKERS PREPARE FOR A PRESENTATION.

Ask yourself which (if any) is most important, your: interests, qualifications, listener's needs, listener's demands. Rank-order these four. What are the cause-and-effect relationships?

You are now ready to do primary research. You know what aspects of the subject you need to study. If you have properly narrowed your subject, confine your research to that part of the subject.

As you talk, read, and observe, you are evaluating ideas. From the material you have gathered, list all ideas that might be important. You need to write only a word or two or a phrase about each idea. Now evaluate your ideas. You will discard some as irrelevant or unimportant, and you will combine other ideas. Usually, you will find that ideas fall into two or more categories. Remember you can adequately support only two or three main points in a period of about 30 minutes.

You are well along with your speech plan once you have studied the subject, gathered data, analyzed the audience and the occasion, and outlined your material. Your speech can be dull and boring unless you take the listeners from *where they are* when you start to *where you want them* when you finish. Organize your speech with their thought processes in mind.

Keep your lecture from being dry and boring. Consider “the flavor of originality.” Add your own personal touches of color, liveliness, drama, and humor. These are the things that will keep your message alive in the memory of the listener.

Keep up to date on your subject by reading newspapers and magazines regularly and clipping articles and stories that fit into your speech. Also look for dramatic or humorous stories to enliven your speech and give it the flavor or originality.

Organizing the Speech

The three parts of the presentation are the introduction, body, and the conclusion. Each should blend so that your listeners are scarcely aware you are moving from one part to another. You should plan suitable transitions to bind all parts together—to bridge the gaps between subdivisions within the body of the speech as well as between the major divisions of the speech as a whole.

Introduction. Prepare the introduction of your speech last. Not until you have outlined the body of your talk—and have seen how the ideas will unfold—will you be able to plan the best way to introduce it. The introduction has two purposes: to get attention and to explain and clarify the subject. When you begin to speak to your cadets, you must immediately win their attention. The key may be what you say or how you say it using one, several, or all of the methods below.

Begin with a personal reference or greeting or with an interesting narrative or illustration. A striking incident that dramatizes the central idea of the speech is most effective. Arouse curiosity. All human beings are curious about strange opinions, ideas, and words. Begin with many questions. This method has the challenge of a “brain tester.” It stimulates listeners to answer the questions or to hear the answer. Begin with striking, dramatized facts. Begin with an amusing anecdote. This is a good method if the anecdote or joke is fresh and if it is related to the subject. Make certain that it is not at the expense of anyone!

No matter what method you use to create interest in your introduction, include sincere expressions of pleasure. An honest expression of gratitude can be a good starting point. The introduction should state the specific purpose of the speech so your cadets can tie together its parts. Moreover, partition your speech by presenting a preview of the main points. Finally, use the introduction to define unfamiliar key words and terms.

DESCRIBE METHODS OF ORGANIZING A SPEECH.

Body. This is the heart of the presentation. It contains the main ideas that you wish to tell your listeners. To build the body, arrange the main points of the outline and develop each point as effectively as possible. No matter how long the speech may be, it should have no more than five main points. Normally, limit your presentations to 2 or 3 main points. If there are more than five major points, you may be trying to cover too much material in one speech.

Conclusion. Like the introduction, the conclusion should be as brief as possible without slighting its purpose. That purpose is to summarize your main ideas and to remind your cadets of the objectives, and a vivid illustration or narrative to dramatize your central idea.

A persuasive speech should end with an effective appeal to belief or action. Nothing weakens a speech as much as a lame conclusion. This can kill the cadets' approval of your ideas and weaken their respect for you. A conclusion should leave the audience thinking favorably about you. Close your speech forcefully, yet gracefully and lend a tone of finality to the presentation.

Making the Presentation

It is the critical test. You feel the tension that means you are ready to meet the challenge. You check over your notes to assure yourself that you are well-prepared. The truth is that no matter how well-prepared you are, you will only be successful when you put your message across. The outcome of most speeches rests on the manner of delivery. You can improve your delivery through practice by competent criticism and guidance.

Nervousness. If you get nervous when you are in front of an audience, do not be discouraged. Butterflies in the stomach, a flushed face, moist hands, and shaking knees are signs that you are on your way to becoming a capable speaker. A certain amount of nervousness is good.

Consider several things when you cope with nervousness. Be enthusiastic about your subject; your enthusiasm can replace fear. The more enthusiastic you are, the more involved the audience gets with you and with your message. Most audiences are made up of friendly persons who are interested in what you are saying. Do not rush as you begin to speak. When you are ready to begin, look at various parts of the audience, take a deep breath, and begin to speak.

Mental Attitude. Some speakers lack poise because they are too worried about themselves. Learn to shift attention to something outside of your self. If you really want to speak and if you concentrate on your ideas, you will have no time to be afraid.

Body Movement. This is important to dynamic and meaningful physical behavior. It helps hold the attention needed for good communication. Movement also can punctuate and show transitions in your message. Finally, movement helps you work off excess energy that comes from nervousness.

How much movement is desirable? Movement from behind the lectern can reduce the psychological distance between you and your listeners. Usually it is more effective to carry your notes with you rather than looking down at the lectern to see them. Move with reason and purpose. Use movements to punctuate, direct attention, and aid communication.

Gestures may be used to clarify or emphasize ideas. Gestures are the purposeful use of the hands, arms, and head to reinforce what you say. Good gestures should

DESCRIBE PUBLIC SPEAKING DELIVERY TECHNIQUES.

come exactly at the time or slightly before you make your point verbally. As with all aspects of communication, gestures must fit the situation. Effective gestures are both natural and spontaneous.

Eye Contact. Eye contact is important in non-verbal communication. Direct and impartial eye contact is important because it lets the listeners know you are interested in them. Effective eye contact gauge the effect of your remarks. You can detect signs of poor understanding and signs that listeners are losing interest. You can then adjust your rate of delivery or emphasis. Effective eye contact enhances your credibility. When you have greater eye contact you are judged as more competent.

Voice. A good voice has three important characteristics: quality, intelligibility, and variety. A voice's quality is the general impression it makes on others. Listeners can often tell from the voice that you are happy, angry, sad, fearful, confident, sincere, and enthusiastic. Listeners tire easily when you do not vary your delivery style or have a monotonous voice. Vary your voice by changing your rate, volume, pitch, force, and emphasis. The rate of speaking is the time it takes to pronounce individual words and the length of paused between words. Always be certain that the audience can hear you. Force is needed at times to emphasize and dramatize ideas. Avoid two things: overemphasis and continual emphasis. Emphasizing a point beyond its real value may cause you to lose credibility with your listeners.

Notes. Notes are only the "little helpers" you use to make your speech more effective. There is no serious objection to the skillful use of notes, they do have certain advantages. They ensure accuracy, jog the memory, and dispel the fear of forgetting. They keep you on track. The best way to use notes is to write or type them on small index cards that can be handled and turned over easily and quietly. You can make them shorter as you gain experience and confidence. Before long, you will be jotting down a few key words or sentences that will keep your mind on track. Use notes sparingly, but never try to hide them from the audience. To eliminate the need for embarrassing pauses, refer to them before you actually need them. Work out a system that serves you well and use it without apology.

Four Common Public Speaking Methods

All speakers use one of four common methods of presenting a speech: reading from a manuscript, speaking from memory, speaking without specific preparation, and speaking extemporaneously with preparation.

Reading from a manuscript. This is the poorest method of delivering speeches. It is recommended only when the subject is so important or so complex that an incorrectly stated phrase might cause a serious misunderstanding. Under such circumstances, the advantages of saying exactly what you want outweighs the advantages of intimacy and flexibility.

Speaking from memory. This is helpful to people who cannot think on their feet. A memorized speech serves as a straitjacket, it cannot be adapted to the occasion or audience. Memorization destroys spontaneity and the sense of communication. It requires immense preparation and can saddle you with a sense of forgetting.

Speaking impromptu. Practicing this method makes you deliver a powerful speech on the spot, with less than a minute to gather thoughts. It requires you to think on your feet.

IDENTIFY AND DESCRIBE FOUR COMMON METHODS OF MAKING A SPEECH.

Speaking extemporaneously. This is the most widely used method of experienced speakers and produces the best results. The talk is *carefully planned and outlined*. It is planned by *idea* rather than word by word. This method compels you to organize ideas. It allows freedom to adapt to specific occasions and audiences. It allows you to fulfill two vital requirements of effective speaking: adequate preparation and live spontaneity.

CONDUCTING BRIEFINGS

How a Briefing is Different from a Speech

Ideally, briefings are simple, concise, factual presentations that have one purpose—to inform. They are given for one of three specific purposes: (1) to get the listener's understanding of your subject, (2) to enable the listener to do a specific task, and (3) to give the listener information to make decisions. A briefing saves time to get needed information. Every person concerned with a large task needs information pertinent to their part in running it. No one person can possibly read and digest all the information about the operation; it must be delegated to certain staff members who check the material, extract what is pertinent to their specialty, and present the information in an orderly and concise way.

Every good briefing has three virtues: accuracy, brevity, and clarity. These are the ABC's of a briefing. Accuracy and clarity characterize all good speaking, but brevity distinguishes the briefings from other types of informative speeches. By definition a briefing is brief. This does not mean it has a prescribed time limit. It does mean it contains no extraneous material. The listeners are to be quickly informed on a specific project or action.

In preparing to brief others, you must analyze a mass of data, choose the really significant facts and organize them carefully. Your information must be synthesized into easily understood terms. You must show the picture so vividly that none can fail to see it.

Organization of a Briefing

Introduction. Since your listeners already need and want to know about your subject, there is no need for attention-getting devices. If another speaker introduces you, give only a quick over-view of the subject and proceed immediately to the body of your briefing. If you are not introduced, you extend a greeting, give your name, and state the subject of your briefing.

Body. Carefully consider the content and delivery of your briefing. Present facts and facts only. They should be understandable, and you should have the proof of these facts with you (but not always presented unless your listeners ask for them). Because you must be brief, omit many details. One way to avoid oversimplification is to prepare a folder of documentation for your listeners to refer to after you have spoken. Call attention to the folder in your opening remarks. Your listeners will accept the validity of your information because they know that they can check your evidence. They are also less inclined to ask questions or to interrupt. Present the facts and let your listeners draw the conclusions.

EXPLAIN HOW A BRIEFING DIFFERS FROM A SPEECH.

DISCUSS HOW A BRIEFING SHOULD BE ORGANIZED.

Emotional; appeals have no place in a briefing. Your listeners will be justified in doubting your objectivity if your presentation is charged with emotion. This does not mean that your presentation should be dry and lifeless. Because you must present pertinent information and nothing more, strive for an animated and interesting delivery.

Visual aids can help you be brief. They can help you show quickly and clearly many things that you would have trouble putting into words. In planning your visual aids, consider the following rules: (1) Be certain you actually need visual aids to clarify your information. (2) Create them to serve just one purpose—to clarify the information. (3) Make your aids large enough and place them where the audience can see them. (4) Practice the briefings with your visual aids until you can use them smoothly. They should be an integral part of your presentation.

Here are some suggestions for using visual aids: Use only relevant materials. (For example, if a CAP form is being discussed, use the actual form as a handout and display various portions on flip charts, chalkboard, or “PowerPoint” slides as they are discussed.)

- ▶ Use visual materials that are large enough for everyone to see.
- ▶ Use visual materials at the right time. When several items are included on the aid, cover items that are not being discussed.
- ▶ Keep visual materials simple. Emphasize the most important information. Omit unnecessary details. A series of simple charts is preferable to a single complicated one.
- ▶ Talk to the audience, not to the visual aid.
- ▶ Set up audio visual equipment before start time. Know how to operate this equipment (including changing bulbs, if necessary).
- ▶ Use flip charts effectively. Consider flipping from back to front. You’ll have at least three advantages. First, it is easier. Second, you can do it from the side of the charts rather than from the front (you will; not block the view of the visual aid). Third, if the paper you use for the chart is relatively thin, the back to front procedure keeps your audience from reading through the paper to a chart you have not discussed yet.
- ▶ Use the chalkboard effectively. Make wide clear lines and letters. You may want to make a hidden pencil line on the board to guide you while writing or drawing. Be sure everyone can see the material. The board should be placed to eliminate glare.
- ▶ Finally, evaluate the need for the visual aid. Ask yourself if the effort and expense required to prepare the aid is justified and will add to the talk. If not, do not use it. *Content is the star of a presentation, not the glitz of computer software.*

Conclusion. This part of a briefing should be short but positive. Summarize your main points if you think a quick summary is necessary. You may want to include a question and answer session as a way to clarify the subject.

Clear, logical organization of your material will help your listeners understand it. In organizing the introduction, body, and conclusion, keep the purpose of your briefing in mind. Organize your material as you would for an informative speech. To adapt the introduction, the body, and the conclusion to the briefing format, you might follow these steps:

- ▶ State the problem.
- ▶ List and discuss the factors bearing on the problem.
- ▶ Propose possible solutions.
- ▶ Discuss possible solutions.
- ▶ Suggest the best solution or combination of solutions.
- ▶ State your conclusion.
- ▶ Make a brief statement recommending the action that would put your solution into effect.

When you prepare and deliver briefings, remember that their function is to convey information more rapidly and effectively than would be possible by any other means. As a cadet officer, you need to state your ideas accurately, briefly, and clearly.

DRILL AND CEREMONIES

At this stage of your CAP training you will have the opportunity to either be a reviewing officer or have to prepare your cadets for an inspection by a reviewing officer. See AFMAN 36-2203 for an explanation of how you are to perform these functions.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Describe the characteristics of an effective counselor.
2. Describe the directive approach to counseling.
3. Describe the non-directive approach to counseling.
4. Describe how to choose a counseling approach.
5. Discuss the function for directing in terms of its managerial function. How does it fit in with the five functions of management?
6. Identify the four types of directions.
7. Describe the characteristics of a good speaker.
8. Identify and describe steps that help speaker prepare for a presentation.
9. Describe methods of organizing a speech.
10. Describe public speaking delivery techniques.
11. Identify and describe four common methods of making a speech.
12. Explain how a briefing differs from a speech.
13. Discuss how a briefing should be organized.

SPECIAL READINGS

HONOR AND ETHICS

From *Contrails*, Vol. 33, United States Air Force Academy

The nature of the military profession demands that you have high ethical standards because, as an Air Force officer, your decisions can have a devastating impact on others' lives and property. For that reason, *integrity*, or the capacity to do what is right even when faced with negative consequences, must be the basis of an officer's ethics. Without this quality of character, a cadet cannot set the proper priorities between self-interest and his or her official responsibilities to the unit, mission, Air Force and country. The Cadet Honor Committee is the cadet organization chartered to help foster an atmosphere at USAFA in which each cadet can develop and internalize a personal sense of integrity to graduate with the character necessary for responsible officership.

The *honor code* is the facet of professional ethics most familiar to cadets. At the beginning of the fourth class year, each class takes the following oath: "We will not lie, steal, or cheat, nor tolerate among us anyone who does. Furthermore, I resolve to do my duty and live honorably, so help me God." This oath—simple and direct in its wording—is a contract with the rest of the Wing that each cadet will meet his or her public responsibilities to the Academy community by putting the Wing's interests above whatever personal advantages would accrue to him or her by lying, stealing, cheating, or tolerating. The Code represents a minimum standard of honesty each cadet is expected to surpass. Because it is based on integrity and governs all aspects of cadet life, the Honor Code is perhaps the most important and rewarding aspect of officership training at USAFA.

Let us look at each of the four tenets of the Honor Code in turn. *Lying*—a cadet's word or signature is his bond; regardless of consequences, cadets are expected to tell the truth at all times. *Stealing*—depriving another of the possession or use of his or her property shows a callous disregard for his or her rights; cadets are expected to respect these rights at all times. *Cheating*—taking unfair advantage of others is particularly tempting in a highly competitive academic environment; cadets must always ensure they are graded on their own work. *Non-toleration*—the non-toleration clause is the backbone of the Honor Code because the clause makes it clear that each cadet has a personal obligation to enforce high ethical standards in the cadet community.

The Honor Code is administered on behalf of the Cadet Wing by the cadet Honor Committee, whose members are elected from among first and second class cadets in each squadron. Suspected Honor Code violations are investigated by an investigative team consisting of a first and second class honor representative from the Cadet Group of the accused. After all evidence is compiled, the team forwards the case to an Honor Investigative Panel (HIP). After a discussion of the evidence, the HIP determines whether or not the case warrants forwarding to a Wing Honor Board.

The Wing Honor Board is convened to hear evidence and make findings on the allegation(s) presented before it. The Wing Honor Board is tasked with determining whether or not a violation of the code has been committed. Each board consists

of a Chairman, Recorder, and eight voting members. The eight voting members will vary in content dependent upon the class of the accused. Should the Wing Honor Board find a cadet has violated the code, the case will be forwarded to an Honor Sanctions Board (HSB). The HSB will assign an appropriate sanction to the cadet.

Penalties for violating the Honor Code are severe. They range from a combination of demerits, tours and restrictions, to disenrollement from the Academy. The extent to which a cadet will be punished will depend upon his or her class year and other mitigating circumstances which are relevant to the case at hand. The *Honor Code Reference Handbook* is the primary source for a more detailed treatment of the Honor Code's administration.

The purpose of the professional ethics education program is to provide cadets a firm understanding of the professional responsibilities of cadets and officers. As a result of the instruction, cadets should recognize that the Honor Code is part of a broad moral point of view based on a personal sense of integrity. Cadets should internalize this spirit of the Code as their guide for conduct, and they should avoid gaming the Honor Code or interpreting it in a legalistic manner.

A highly developed sense of honor or integrity is the basis of the officer corps' professional; ethics because of the nature of the military profession. Only officers who have these values are worthy of the trust their nation extends them to guard its security and command its forces in combat. Life under the Honor Code is realistic training to develop these qualities of character in cadets and prepare them for their trust.

GEN. DANIEL "CHAPPY" JAMES JR.

From *Webster's American Military Biographies*

Born on February 11, 1920, in Pensacola, Florida, James learned to fly while attending Tuskegee Institute. After graduation in 1942 he continued in civilian flight training until receiving appointment as a cadet in the Army Air Corps in January 1943. He was commissioned in July and through the remainder of World War II trained pilots for the all-black 99th Pursuit Squadron and worked in other assignments. He was subsequently stationed in Ohio and in the Philippines. During the Korean War he flew 101 missions in fighters.

From 1953 to 1956 he commanded the 437th and then the 60th Fighter Interception Squadron at Otis Air Force Base, Massachusetts, receiving promotion to major in that period; and on graduating from the Air Command and Staff College, Maxwell Air Force Base, Alabama, in 1957, he was assigned to staff duty in Washington, DC. From 1960 to 1964 he was stationed in England, from 1964 to 1966 in Arizona, and from 1966 to 1967 in Vietnam, where he flew 78 combat missions. By then a colonel, he was vice commander of the 33rd Tactical fighter Wing, Elgin Air Force, Florida, 1967 to 1969. After this he was promoted to brigadier general and was named base commander of Wheelus Air Force Base, Libya. In March 1970 James became deputy assistant secretary of defense for public affairs, and in that post he advanced to major general. In September 1974, with the rank of lieutenant general, he became vice commander of the Military Airlift Command at Scott Air Force Base, Illinois.

In September 1975 he became the first black officer to attain four-star rank in any service. He was at that time named commander of the North American Air Defense Command (NORAD), with responsibility for all aspects of the air defense of the United States and Canada. James was also a much sought-after public speaker and devoted considerable time to addressing youth groups, particularly minority students. General James died of a heart attack shortly after retiring in 1978.



GEN DANIEL "CHAPPY" JAMES JR
was the first African-American to
achieve four-star rank in the Air Force.

Chapter 13

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, you will broaden your study of leadership styles, principles, and personality traits essential to effective leadership. Your study of management will continue, this time focusing the function called “controlling.” Finally, you will learn how placement interviews will help you as a leader build a good team.

PHILOSOPHY OF LEADERSHIP

Your leadership abilities are influenced by your willingness to study, practice, and apply sound leadership techniques. The Air Force defines leadership as the “art of influencing and directing people in a way that will win their obedience, confidence, respect, and loyal cooperation in achieving a common objective.”

Achieving a common objective identifies the goal of leadership: achievement. If you do not need to achieve anything, you do not require leadership. *Common objective* implies not only that you must be mission-minded but also that you must inspire your cadets with the same mission-mindedness. Communication skills are important. Leadership is effective when the mission, as interpreted by the leaders, is known, understood, and appreciated by everyone. Then the goal is not the goal of one person, but the goal of many people working together.

Leadership should operate *in a way that will win their obedience, confidence, respect and loyal cooperation*. The key to effective leadership and mission accomplishment lies primarily in your understanding of people and your ability to apply it in any situation. It also lies in your cadets’ recognition of the desirable qualities and abilities of their leader. They measure this by how you compare to the image of leadership presented in this manual.

The definition further states that leadership is the *art of influencing and directing*. It is your responsibility to direct as well as influence people. Positive direction in the form of sound plans, clear-cut orders and organization, and confidently expressed goals add to your influence over your cadets.

Because an officer performs both technical and managerial activities, it is difficult to describe and analyze leadership. Operating a Type B encampment is a management activity. Technical activities are those specialized duties unique to your duty. Operating a radio, for example, is a technical activity.

The CAP performs unit missions. Sometimes these are determined by higher headquarters and sometimes determined by the CAP unit commander. Getting the job done comes first, before personal wants. This not because CAP feels personal wants are not important, but because they are often best satisfied when several people work on them together at the same time. This does not mean that every time a unit mission is accomplished, all of the personal goals of the team members are satisfied. In normal cases, the most desirable solution to a leadership problem is one that best satisfies both personal goals and the organizational mission.

STATE THE USAF’s DEFINITION OF LEADERSHIP.

DEFINE LEADERSHIP IN YOUR OWN WORDS.

Leadership Roles

The commander, the manager, and the leader are the three roles of a CAP officer.

The Commander has legal authority to direct unit or individual activities toward accomplishing a mission. This is inherent in the definition of the word *commander*. You can be a commander without being a leader, or you can be an effective leader without being a commander. You must, however, be a good leader to be an efficient commander. The good commander gets cooperation from the unit in their mutual understanding of the mission, rather than by demanding their obedience in an unknown undertaking. In short, the poor commander drives and the good commander leads.

The Manager manages the resources of personnel, money, material, time, and facilities used to accomplish the unit's mission. The functions of the manager are planning, organizing, directing, coordinating, and controlling. In a sense, all people who have some responsibility for human, material, and financial resources are managers and have some legal authority.

The Leader influences and directs people in a way that will win their obedience, confidence, respect, and loyal cooperation in achieving a common objective. Effective leadership is vital for command and management to reach their full potential. Properly applying leadership principles and techniques to command and management provides the necessary force and influence for the unit to strive whole-heartedly toward its common goal. The leader uses earned authority

IDENTIFY AND DISCUSS THE THREE LEADERSHIP ROLES OF A CAP OFFICER.

Managers and commanders have legal authority. The leader has what type of authority?

Leadership Styles

In Chapter 5 we introduced you to leadership styles. Remember these things about the styles:

Autocratic (authoritarian) leadership is a leadership style that demands leader-follower roles, in which the follower is expected to conform to the overt power of the leader.

Participative (democratic) leadership requires unit members to participate in making the decisions. Most experts think this type of leadership has done more to satisfy each member's needs (particularly the higher needs) than authoritarian leadership.

Laissez-faire leadership or "free-rein climate," lets authority rest with each individual singularly, not as a unit of individuals. Terms "hands-off" and "permitting to do" often describe laissez-faire leadership behavior. Those who adopt this style need sound judgment and extensive training of their people to be successful.

The variable leadership style. All CAP leaders hope to do a good job—but some do and some do not. How can you decide which style is the best? Many leaders have a primary style and a series of secondary styles. Their primary style may be autocratic, participative, or some style between. For example, you may use participative leadership as your primary style. However, under certain situations, you may find another leadership style more appropriate to the situation. So, you may use a secondary style.

IDENTIFY AND DISCUSS LEADERSHIP STYLES.

Eight Common Leadership Personality Traits

You do not need to have a certain type of personality to be a leader. However, there are certain fundamental attitudes and traits you must have to be a good leader. You, as a leader, bring your basic personal qualities to bear on the group. If you have a negative personality, your other contributions do not get across to members of the group. When you have outstanding personal qualities and use them well, your qualities help create a high state of morale, discipline, and esprit de corps—the indexes to effective leadership!

In a purely mechanically run unit there is no genuine satisfaction or security for your cadets, no desire to rise above their own limitations and no understanding how important the mission is. No robot can provide leadership. The basic attributes found in successful leaders include characteristics that help unit members develop their own qualities. Here are the most common personality traits in successful leaders:

Integrity of Character. This is summed up in one word—*honor*. Integrity of character makes you do the right thing, even if it is the far more difficult thing to do. It leads you to be *selfless* instead of *selfish*. The key to integrity of character is to *be honest with yourself*. This is tougher than it seems because it is natural to rationalize. To indulge in wishful thinking, to escape from facing the issue at hand, or to fail considering all facts regardless of whether they support your personal convictions—all these things weaken integrity. Remember, however, that this failing is natural and cannot be fixed merely by resolving to be unbiased and unprejudiced in the future. For every decision you make, try to place yourself in the shoes of a person outside the problem, objectively looking at the situation from a distance. Only then will your thinking become logical, supported by facts.

Sense of Responsibility. This is the driving or motivating force within you that causes you to recognize and do what must be done. It enables you to complete a task. It impels you to accept all assignments, pleasant or unpleasant. It gives you the courage to make decisions that may be unpopular, and to take the blame when all goes wrong. A sense of responsibility also will cause you to recognize your responsibility to your cadets as well as to superiors.

Professional Competence. You must know your job! Although your cadets usually show patience with new cadet officers, they lose faith when you do not understand the job after a reasonable time. Make every effort to keep your knowledge current. Although practical experience in the job is not absolutely necessary, it is especially valuable for directing others and making decisions. Do not limit your learning to practical experience without studying and talking to others whose opinion you respect.

To know your job thoroughly, have a broad general knowledge of your specific staff or command position, a thorough knowledge of your unit's mission and how that mission contributes to CAP's total mission. You also must have competency in the technical and administrative aspects of your duties. Plans, people, and material are the elements of the leader's profession. You must competently deal with them all, one at a time and all at once.

Enthusiasm. This is vital and contagious! It is a form of salesmanship that causes others to become interested in and willing to help you get the job done. No great leader is lazy or dull. To be energetic, you must have faith in yourself and in your objectives. A leader must have enough faith to take a chance.

IDENTIFY PERSONALITY TRAITS THAT CONTRIBUTE TO GOOD LEADERSHIP.

“Whatever you do, do it with enthusiasm and you are certain to succeed. Without enthusiasm you will surely fail.” Henry Ford

Emotional Stability. If you do not know your emotional self at all times, you can make faulty decisions, treat your cadets improperly, and lose your leaders. If you get angry facing minor difficulties, how can you be calm and objective facing major crises? Become familiar with the empathy and tact characteristics of emotional stability to improve yourself and detect stability in others.

Empathy. Identify with others. Be aware of the individual needs for recognition, affection, adventure, and so forth. Also, you should earn their recognition as someone who is actively trying to meet their needs. Keep a balance between humaneness and getting the job done.

Tact. This is the ability to say and do the right thing at the right time with consideration for the feelings of others. Criticism must be clear, yet constructive. It should not cause discouragement or detract from the drive and energy of your cadets.

Self-Confidence gives you the inner strength to overcome many obstacles. The secret of successful leaders is not great size or strength, but a rather strong determination and an absolute belief in themselves.

Leadership Principles

Principles are rules telling you how to act. Leadership principles are guidelines. Leadership qualities, discussed earlier in Chapter 5 are developed by learning and applying these principles; they are not inborn. These principles have stood the test of time and appear to have guided the conduct and action of successful leaders. Just because every leader has not always fully used each of these principles does not make them less valid. Although applying them may vary with the situation, if you disregard them you are risking failure. Knowledge, facts, techniques, and principles are of little use unless you apply them. Analyze your situation periodically to learn how well you are applying what you have learned about leadership.

Know Your People. Observe them, know them as people, and recognize what is special about each. Do this by personal contact and reviewing available records. By knowing them and helping them get what they want out of CAP, you will increase their productivity and your unit's proficiency. When they know you are concerned with their needs, and not just nosy, they will have a better attitude toward your unit and toward you as their leader.

Keep Your People Informed. You want to know what is expected of you and how well you have done. Within reasonable limits, you should keep your people informed because it encourages initiative, improves teamwork, and enhances morale. Cadets who know the situation and their mission are more effective than those who are not. Well-informed cadets have a better attitude toward their officers and NCO's and their unit as a whole. They know what is expected of them better when they know their mission and the purpose behind it. By using an effective awards program and an effective communication policy, you can favorably influence morale, esprit de corps, discipline, and proficiency. By keeping your subordinates informed, you will reduce fears and rumors. Be alert for false rumors and stop them by giving the truth to your unit.

Set the Example. Your cadets will look to you as their example to follow if you set a good example. They will use it as an excuse for poor work if you set a poor example. Set good examples in areas like personal appearance, conduct, punctuality, unselfishness, and mastering your emotions.

DESCRIBE PRINCIPLES OF EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP.

Be Loyal to Both your Seniors and Subordinates. Support your subordinates since they do their job conscientiously.

Avoid Developing a Clique. This is particularly hard when those who you have come to know, trust, and like have already proven themselves by working beside you. Liking such people gets in the way if it keeps you from giving new people chances to prove themselves, or when you shut them out of a conversation because they have not worked with you yet. New people should always be given a fair chance at becoming hard workers, too. Otherwise, what you and your clique have created from your hard work will just die out as each of you move on.

Be Morally Courageous. If you fail to stand by your principles where the welfare of your command is concerned, or attempt to avoid the responsibility for your unit's mistakes, you will not gain or keep the respect of your associates or subordinates.

MANAGEMENT PRINCIPLES: CONTROLLING

Introduction

In Chapter 8 you studied the management process in general. In Chapters 9 and 10 you learned about the elements of planning and organizing, and Chapters 11 and 12 you examined coordinating and directing. In this chapter, you will look at controlling as part of the management process.

DESCRIBE THE MANAGERIAL FUNCTION OF CONTROLLING.

Definition of Controlling

Controlling is deciding if an action is carrying out a plan, and periodically checking to see that it does. It can be compared to taking an orientation flight to a particular place. You should periodically check to see if you are passing certain checkpoints. If you are not, what steps do you take to get back on the right path? Controlling must have a method for measuring performance, comparing actual performance with a standard of performance, and correcting the deficiency to meet that standard.

The Process of Controlling

Controlling is more than thinking about a task and judging its performance. It is intervening, when necessary, to bring the task back into line with the general plan. This action has four stages: establishing the standard, detecting deviations, measuring the deviation, and taking corrective action.

Establishing the Standard. Set standards that are to be met. Decide what the results should be or what you expect them to be. We are all familiar with dress standards. Organizations such as CAP require you to be "neatly groomed." Specific requirements about hair length, the uniform, and placement of insignia must be established as a standard to judge if you are well groomed or not.

Standards give you a yardstick to guide and evaluate your unit's production or activities. Standards also describe the desired quality of products and processes, as well as expected qualifications and appearance of your cadets. They show the expected level of performance and can be stated in terms of speed, efficiency, economy, and accuracy. Start establishing standards by looking at the purpose of your unit.

IDENTIFY THE STEPS IN THE CONTROLLING PROCESS.

EXPLAIN HOW EACH STEP CONTRIBUTES TO EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT.

Detecting Deviations from the Standards. This is possibly the most difficult of all steps because there is no foolproof way to forecast when a deviation will occur. Theoretically, you must be there when a deviation happens to be able to measure how much of a deviation there is, and what caused it.

The next best thing is to collect data in the following order of preference: personal visits, staff meetings of personnel involved, committee meetings, briefings by experts in the field, and special reports regularly.

Next, interpret the data to see if there is any deviation between actual performance and the established standards. You can do this by trend data or status data. *Trend data* shows what changes have occurred from one point in time to another, and it will usually project whether current performance will meet standards if the trend continues. A graph of weekly attendance is an example of trend data. *Status data* shows how much of something has happened to date. This usually takes the form of a table and includes numerical data. The Cadet Monthly Membership Listing (MML) from National Headquarters, CAP, is an example of status data.

Measuring the Deviation. When you detect a deviation, find out how much of a deviation there is. Measure it *without interfering with normal operations* unless it is a matter of personal safety. Show your measurements using either the graphic presentation (trend data) or the statistical control report (status data).

Taking the Necessary Corrective Action. When you find deviations, correct them by any combination of these steps: (1) Change the work method without changing the plans, or change plans or goals without changing the work method. (2) Reassign or clarify duties, get more involvement in the analysis of *why* thing went wrong. Then go back to step one. Have your cadets help you advise what work method works best. This, coupled with rewarding your cadets for doing things right, is the primary way of exercising control. Be more careful selecting your cadets, provide better training, and transfer or replace them. (3) Explain the job more fully. (4) Be more directive in your leadership until your cadets learn the job. When you correct someone, do it in this order:

- ▶ Coordinate the deviation and the anticipated corrective action with everyone who might be concerned.
- ▶ Issue a formal directive of any major corrective action that changes an established policy; and an informal directive for minor corrective action.
- ▶ Publish corrective action in all available media and circulate among cadets and the higher echelons to show what action was taken.
- ▶ To avoid confusion, record all corrective action in written form along with a resume of any further suggestions.

Overcoming Resistance to Controls. Most of us do not like having our work checked closely, being watched on the job, or having our work habits changed. The controlling function, therefore, is often the least popular of the management functions when it is done incorrectly. It does not have to be this way if you follow certain guidelines.

- ▶ Explain controls thoroughly.
- ▶ Develop a mutual interest in achieving objectives by jointly developing controls *with the same involvement* of your cadets. (They will be tougher on themselves than you would be if you set the behavioral traps correctly.)
- ▶ Apply controls fairly and equally. Again, involve them by rewarding positive performance.
- ▶ Control by catching your people *doing things right*. Keep the proper self-perspective, occasionally “let your hair down” and admit that you have made mistakes in the past. You do not have to convince yourself that you are perfect. Nor must you pretend you are. Keep control policies constant.

PLACEMENT INTERVIEWS

To build an effective team, you have to have good team members who have the potential to improve and develop. The selection of a winning team takes a supervisor who knows how to interview. The most important thing to remember is that an interview is just two-way communication. This is true even in placement interviews. You want to find out all you can about the qualifications and aptitudes of the applicants. But it’s equally important that they get enough information to decide if the job is right for them. Review the “Choosing Your Career Future” at the end of this chapter. Adapt it to the placement interview so you can find the best match between a cadet’s interests and aptitudes and the needs of the job vacancy.

EXPLAIN THE PURPOSE OF A PLACEMENT INTERVIEW.

DISCUSS METHODS USED TO PREPARE FOR AND CONDUCT A PLACEMENT INTERVIEW.

Effective Preparation

You will make better decisions if you carefully prepare for any interview. You will get better results by getting ready before the interview starts. Start with these decisions:

- ▶ Decide what you are looking for. Before you can decide what sort of person and experience you are looking for, you need a job description of what you expect someone to do in this job.
- ▶ Decide where to hold the interview. The place should ensure privacy. There is enough stress on the applicant during the interview situation without adding distractions or interruptions.
- ▶ Decide when to hold the interview. While timing interviews is usually mutually convenient, have enough time for both of you to discuss thoroughly the points that need to be covered.

Remember, the purpose of an interview is to get information not given elsewhere, to observe, and to learn as much as possible in a brief time. You need to be able to decide who is the best person for the job, based on the information you gather.

Help Applicants Relax

Every applicant's willingness to respond depends on the kind of relationship that develops between you. There are three goals to strive for in establishing a cooperative atmosphere.

- ▶ Applicants should feel that you are attentive to them and are interested in them as individuals.
- ▶ They should feel that you accept them, that you will let them be themselves, and that they can express themselves without fearing criticism.
- ▶ You should prove that you are warm and friendly.

Let every applicant know immediately that he or she is welcome. Give your undivided attention without delay. Get the individual talking as quickly as possible. This is where talking about mutual experiences or interests can be useful.

Getting the Most out of an Interview

Concentrate on listening more than on talking. Your purpose is to analyze each applicant's qualifications. Let the cadet do most of the talking. Say just enough to get the person to express relevant ideas. Focus on what you hear and on how the individual answers your questions. Do not ask questions if you already know the answer. Ask more about the person's ability to do the job, rather than about their general background.

DRILL AND CEREMONIES

Until now you probably have just participated in Pass in Reviews as a flight member or perhaps a flight commander or squadron commander. Now you will learn how to organize a Pass in Review and what to do as a Commander of Troops, Adjutant, and Staff Officer. Once again, refer to AFMAN 36-2203 for the necessary information.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Recognize the USAF's definition of leadership.
2. Define leadership in your own words.
3. Identify and discuss the three leadership roles of a CAP officer.
4. Identify and discuss leadership styles. Is one style better than the rest?
5. Identify personality traits that contribute to good leadership.
6. Describe principles of effective leadership. In your own experience, which principle discussed in this chapter has proven to be most important? Why?
7. Describe the managerial function of controlling. How does it contribute to the other four functions of management?
8. Identify the steps in the controlling process.
9. Explain how each step contributes to effective management.
10. Explain the purpose of a placement interview.
11. Discuss methods used to prepare for and conduct a placement interview.

SPECIAL READING

CHOOSING YOUR CAREER FUTURE

While you are completing your cadet program, you are developing yourself as a person and as a worker. To do this, you must know what work you want to do, what qualifications you meet and which ones you need to develop, and what you must do to develop them. Why do something about it now?

Being happy in your job demands you know what you want. Get training, and get experience. In today's competitive society, we cannot count on fate, or accident, to decide what we will do for a living. Too many of us have tried this only to feel trapped in that job later. In the previous chapter you learned what the Air Force (and to some extent, the other services) look for in you. Good civilian jobs are just as competitive. Even entry jobs require at least a high school diploma (many employers will not accept a G.E.D.), and expect you to get further training on the job, at a post high school (college, vocational, or technical school, depending on the job), and continuing your education in order to keep up with the latest changes with your work. For over the past 20 years more than 90 percent of Air Force Officers earned at least a four-year bachelor's degree. Now, getting a master's degree in a specialty (i.e. science, engineering, and business administration) is becoming more and more common.

Flyers need a secondary specialty. If you wish to fly, being a good pilot or air crew member is not enough. Some day you will not be able to fly. From your aerospace education classes you realize flying makes great demands on the body. An air crew member's physical condition (especially vision) must remain close to perfect, or they are removed from flying status. Normal aging, combined with physical stress from flying, forces you to realize that chances are remote of flying all your military career. Air crew members, as a group (like Olympic athletes), have short "job life spans." Pilot and navigator schools require one to two years of rigorous mentally and physically demanding training beyond college. Many of you, by that time, may be married and/or have equally demanding responsibilities. This means you must have a marketable specialty to rely on in case you cannot fly.

Have Alternate Plans Ready in Case Your Plans do not Work Out. If you are thinking of becoming an officer in any of the military services, keep from putting "all your eggs in one basket" and apply to all service academies, all their preparatory schools, and apply to each of the reserve officer training corps of each military service. It takes a lot of time and a great deal of paper work, but remember, the competition is tough and everyone has the same hopes you do that they will be selected. If you are in another branch of the service as a midshipman or cadet, you may be able to transfer in to the Air Force, depending upon the needs of the services at the time you apply (which is usually the last year before you get commissioned).

If you cannot enlist, or cannot become an officer, take some time to "retreat and regroup" your plans and strategy. This takes some hard soul searching for some of you. But, the more honest and objective you are, the more realistic and practical your new plan will be. You will have to "recycle" to make alternate plans throughout your career, even if you get what you thought you wanted. Take a good honest

look at what you can do to increase your chances, and keep trying. If you just missed getting selected, perhaps the next time you apply the competition will not be as keen, the needs of the services may have changed in your favor, you may have shown enough improvement in your weak area(s), or any combination of these. Many people have increased their chances of getting a commission by enlisting and applying through programs open only to those currently enlisted. In any case, while you are waiting to be selected, continue developing your leadership abilities and continue progressing in your chosen career. This way, you will have demonstrated how you could turn “defeat” around to work for you; you will have something new and positive to report the next time around.

If the Air Force Expects Me to Know What I Want to Do, How Do I Find Out? You should be asking, “What do I want to do for a living?” Or, if you are considering flying, “What specialty do I want to use if I cannot fly any more?” If you are looking at the Air Force, you must be aware of what specialties, they want, what things you naturally like the best and are good at, how to develop them, and how to let the Air force or other employer know you are the best qualified for the job.

Keep in touch with your recruiter, academy liaison officer(s), and ROTC public relations officer(s) to know what the needs of the service at any particular time. Your next step is to meet with your school counselor and discuss steps you should take to become more aware of your skills, aptitudes, and interests. Your counselor may also know of certain computer-generated career programs that may augment your career search.

For a civilian career, you can start by reading the *Occupational Outlook Handbook* for the current year, followed by arranging a list of questions for a 15-minute interview with a person working in the job you are considering. Be sure to be on time for the interview, be clean and well-groomed, and take **only** as much time as you requested and no more. For both military and civilian jobs, post-high school education and on-the-job experience are ways to develop those skills. What specific education or training you develop depends on “What skills do I naturally like the best and am good at?” The next sub-sections describe procedures to do this. You can do these procedures in the order presented in this manual, or you may do them in any sequence you find most helpful.

Inventory your skills. To take command of your future and your career, take stock of what your skills are. There are several ways to do this (an excellent book that comes out every March is *What Color is Your Parachute*, by Richard Nelson Bolles and is published by the Ten Speed Press). Start by looking at your Civil Air Patrol past. What interested you in CAP in the first place? What kept you interested? What activities did you like? In what way(s) did CAP change your life? To help yourself through these questions, look at old scrap books, records, and talk to cadets and senior members you worked with. Then, write down what you are learning. Extend your research to talking with teachers, counselors, past employers and co-workers, and other people you know and have worked with, even your parents!

Organize your skills. Now, start to organize your information around skills first, and interests later. There are three kinds of work skills: data, people, things. You will need to decide if you like to work mostly with data (information and ideas), people (interacting and cooperating for mutual problem solving), or things (operating tangible objects). From your research, you will find that each of these three skills has a shallow level and a deep level. They are more adequately described

in the current edition of the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* which you can usually find in any library, usually either at the reference desk or in the Government Publications section.

Inventory your Aptitudes. Take the Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery (ASVAB). An aptitude is an innate ability you have to do something well. The ASVAB is a 3-hour aptitude test given by all the armed services and is used by them and high school counselors for counseling and identifying eligible high school graduates for possible recruitment. Taking the test does not obligate you to enlist; however, the test measures your abilities in these areas: verbal, math, academic, mechanical and crafts, business and clerical, electronics and electrical, and health, social, and technologies.

Examine you interests. Refer back to the chapter about the personality types. Which type are you? Of the six types, three will usually predominate. Decide what they are by going over your background, like you did for skills. Of those three that predominate, rank order them. Research by Dr. John Holland has proven all jobs families tend to be arranged according to some combination of these three personality types. If you are having trouble determining which personality type you are, Dr. Holland's paperback book, *Making Vocational Choices: A Theory of Careers* (Prentice-Hall, Inc., Englewood Cliffs, NJ) will be very helpful. In it is an exercise called *The Self-Directed Search*. Once you determine what your three-letter personality type "Holland Code" is, the paperback book *Dictionary of Holland Occupational Codes: a comprehensive cross-index of Holland's RIASEC codes with 12,000 DOT occupations*, by Consulting Press, Inc., 577 College Ave., Palo Alto, CA 94306 will be helpful. This book will translate your personality type into possible job titles.

Match your skills, aptitudes, and personality (interests) to job titles. If you are interested in the Air Force (or other military services) you should have a job title list from the RIASEC code you just made. Look over the title, know what each title means by reviewing it in the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*, and start narrowing down the list. First, delete the job titles that are not interesting, then the ones you do not have aptitudes for, and the ones you do not have skills in. You should end up with between three and five job titles. What employer will not think twice about hiring someone who is interested in the work and has the skills to get it done? If they seem reluctant that you lack the experience, remember that you can make up for it in your proven record of success in Civil Air Patrol. Tell them about what positions you held, what activities you did (including encampment, cadet staff, advisory council, cadet conferences, National Activities), and scholarships or awards (such as the Earhart and Spaatz) you earned. Remember, no test or computer product will be as accurate as your own feeling about what you want. These things can only help narrow down the possibilities of career areas you would be good in.

These products are meant only to stimulate thinking and individual research. Deciding upon what you want to do for a career is a *gradual* process.

Chapter 14

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, you will learn about communication in command and advanced teaching methods, two leadership topics relevant to cadet officers serving in executive-level positions.

COMMUNICATION IN COMMAND

All members of your unit are responsible to keep communication channels open, to keep the atmosphere healthy for communicating, and to communicate effectively. Communication in any unit moves in many directions—down, up, side to side, from internal sources to external, and from external to internal. Establishing these channels is necessary for information to flow efficiently. They furnish the path, but they do not do the communicating.

The flow of communication down from the top levels of command has different features than the flow upward. The flow on the same level, to the public, or to staff officers is different from information flow both up and down the organization.

Communication downward. This is the exercise of authority: giving orders, establishing policies, issuing directives, praising, censuring, questioning, and informing.

Communication upward. This communication furnishes attitudes, opinions, ideas, recommendations, and reports of conditions, progress and results. Commanders must have sufficient information to make decisions. Commanders and subordinates must recognize that “feedback” is just as important as downward communication.

Communication laterally. This is less complicated by position or authority than either downward or upward. Lateral communication is the backbone of successful cooperation. Staff officers use this extensively to get information and coordinate their efforts.

The average person spends approximately 75 percent of the communicative day either speaking or listening. This one-to-one approach lets you alternatively talk and listen. Its strongest point is you can immediately know if you understand what was just said.

Not all communication flows directly from one person to another. Face-to-face communication also involves group discussions where cadets contribute fact or opinions. Organization, unit solidarity, and esprit de corps decide the way the CAP mission is done. These elements depend largely on the verbal skills of the commanders and staff officers.

At times correct face-to-face communication is neither possible nor practical; therefore, written communication is necessary. This provides a record of information, direction, and expressions of feelings to use now or later. Writing is the basic way to communicate to a larger, scattered audience.

LIST AND DEFINE THE DIFFERENT FORMS OF COMMUNICATION AS THEY PERTAIN TO COMMAND.

THE SEMINAR TEACHING TECHNIQUE

Similar to staff meetings, discussed in Chapter 8, a seminar is a meeting that is used for giving and receiving information. The success depends largely on how well you lead the discussion groups. It is important you have a working knowledge of group behavior and the techniques of discussion leadership. Be familiar with the CAP background and the current job assignment of each seminar participant. Thoroughly understand the discussion topic, including applicable officer specialties, related CAP directives, existing official policies, and sources of guidance for members. Be aware of the suggestions and special requirements for handling the discussion topic. Clearly understand how the commander and course director want you to conduct and evaluate the seminar.

Use the checklist below as a guide for conducting the seminar sessions:

- ▶ Prepare to be deeply involved handling the seminar topic and getting the participants to talk productively.
- ▶ Ensure that facilities are adequate and ready to use.
- ▶ Check you facility's setup. Arrive early!
- ▶ In advance, coordinate with key people in the group to help start on time.
- ▶ Help members get to know each other.
- ▶ Introduce the topic. State your objectives. Be factual and brief.
- ▶ Ask well-planned questions. Write them out. Rehearse!
- ▶ Be a good listener, open-minded, and objective. Avoid taking sides.
- ▶ Avoid using sarcasm, ridicule, and argument. Do not demean anyone.
- ▶ Involve all members of the group.
- ▶ Think ahead of the group and lead by asking open-ended questions.
- ▶ Encourage members to think on their own. Establish an attitude of common helpfulness.
- ▶ Be sensitive to group actions and reactions. Attempt to understand what lies behind the words of each member.
- ▶ Understand individual behavior and change the behavior so the group can achieve its purposes.
- ▶ Be honest when you do not know. Avoid quibbling, anger, and personal affront.
- ▶ Be friendly, calm, and attentive. If humor seems appropriate, be sure the story relates to the topic. It must be in good taste. Do not tell off-color jokes!
- ▶ Use words the group understands.
- ▶ Keep control of the group process. Summarize the points covered and keep the discussion directed toward seminar objectives.
- ▶ Make a final summary and relate the progress of the group to goal achievement.
- ▶ Close on time!
- ▶ Help evaluate the seminar by completing required reports, rating forms, comments, and record of student responses.

DESCRIBE THE FUNCTION AND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SEMINAR METHOD.

DISCUSS METHODS FOR PROMOTING ACTIVE LEARNING DURING SEMINARS.

ADDITIONAL TEACHING TECHNIQUES

You have been introduced to the Demonstration-Performance technique as it applies to drill and ceremonies. You have also seen other teaching techniques. You learned about lectures and briefings and about the seminar method. We are now going to look at more learning tools you can use to enhance your teaching.

Case Studies

The case study is a learning experience where you use a real life situation to teach something. This method challenges you to get involved by applying your knowledge and experience to the case situation to learn something new. Cases may deal with only one item or skill, or they may involve many skills. It also could be a written account covering only the experience of one person about a single action. A decision to use the case method should be made after:

- ▶ Reviewing authentic cases.
- ▶ Allotting enough time to read and discuss each case.
- ▶ Eliminating extraneous facts that do not support learning objectives.
- ▶ Verifying that the case has enough information to cover what you want students to learn in the time allotted.
- ▶ Determining that the person selected to lead the case study discussion is adequately skilled in facilitating discussion groups.

Teaching Interviews and Panel Discussions

In a teaching interview, an instructor questions a visiting expert (or a senior member or another advanced cadet) and follows a highly structured plan to reach the educational objective. As the instructor, you lead the expert's presentation by your questions. The expert usually requires a little advanced preparation, responding impromptu from general experience and knowledge. If a question-and-answer period follows the interview, the audience interacts directly with the expert.

A panel discussion is either structured or unstructured and takes place between two or more experts (usually excluding the regular instructor). It is presented as constructive arguments followed by debate, response to questions from you or the audience, a pre-planned agenda, a fixed or random order of speakers, or free discussion. The discussion method is different from a seminar in that the experts present their views. In a seminar, the seminar members present their own views.

Practical Exercises

Practical exercises differ from case studies in two primary ways. First, they are usually contrived to set up a limited learning situation, although they may be written as continuing situations that bring in new requirements as events occur. Second, they usually deal with hands-on type of skills training. They involve field trips, simulations, and role playing.

DESCRIBE THE FUNCTION AND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE CASE STUDY METHOD.

DESCRIBE THE FUNCTION AND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE TEACHING INTERVIEW METHOD.

DESCRIBE THE FUNCTION AND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PANEL DISCUSSION METHOD.

Field trips are out-of-classroom experiences where cadets interact with persons, locations, and materials or equipment to attain your instructional objective. An important aspect of the field trip is the cadet's encounter with real settings.

Simulations are low-risk, educational experiences that substitute for some real-life situation. They may involve individuals, groups, or units, and usually supplement what was already learned in the classroom. More elaborate versions of this may require special equipment, simulation areas of various sizes and types, and specially trained staff. A SAR or DR exercise, computer game, and a flight simulator are examples of simulations.

Role playing requires cadets to project themselves into a simulated interpersonal situation and play the parts of the persons and situations assigned by you. Role playing is mostly used to practice skills in counseling, interviewing, and conference leadership. Also, you, as the instructor, may point out good or bad examples by showing them through role playing.

DISCUSS THE FUNCTION AND CHARACTERISTICS OF FIELD TRIPS.

DISCUSS THE FUNCTION AND CHARACTERISTICS OF SIMULATIONS.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. List and define the different forms of communication as they pertain to command.
2. Describe the function and characteristics of the seminar method.
3. Discuss methods for promoting active learning during seminars.
4. Describe the function and characteristics of the case study method.
5. Describe the function and characteristics of the teaching interview.
6. Describe the function and characteristics of the panel discussion.
7. Describe the function and characteristics of the field trip.
8. Describe the function and characteristics of the simulation.
9. Discuss how a leader should determine which instructional method best fits their purpose.
10. Explain which instructional method is likely to be most effective and most favored by cadets. Why?

SPECIAL READING

DUTY, HONOR, COUNTRY by Gen. Douglas MacArthur

No human being could fail to be deeply moved by such a tribute as this [Thayer Award]. Coming from a profession I have served so long and a people I have loved so well, it fills me with an emotion I cannot express. But this award is not intended primarily to honor a personality, but to symbolize a great moral code—a code of conduct and chivalry of those who guard this beloved land of culture and ancient descent. For all hours and for all time, it is an expression of the ethics of the American soldier. That I should be integrated in this way with so noble an ideal arouses a sense of pride, and yet of humility, which will be with me always.

Duty, honor, country: Those three hallowed words reverently dictate that you ought to be, what you can be, what you will be. They are your rallying point to build courage when courage seems to fail, to regain faith when there seems to be little cause for faith, to create hope when hope becomes forlorn.

Unhappily, I possess neither that eloquence of diction, that poetry of imagination, nor that brilliance of metaphor to tell you all that they mean.

The unbelievers will say they are but words, but a slogan, but a flamboyant phrase. Every pedant, every demagogue, every cynic, every hypocrite, every troublemaker, and, I am sorry to say, some others of an entirely different character, will try to downgrade them even to the extent of mockery and ridicule.

But these are some of the things they do. They build your basic character. They mold you for your future roles as the custodians of the nation's defense. They make you strong enough to know when you are weak, and brave enough to face yourself when you are afraid.

What the Words Teach

They teach you to be proud and unbending in honest failure, but humble and gentle in success; not to substitute words for actions, not to seek the path of comfort, but to have compassion on those who fall; to master yourself before you seek to master others; to have a heart that is clean, a goal that is high; to learn to laugh, yet never forget how to weep; to reach into the future, yet never neglect the past; to be serious, yet never to take yourself too seriously; to be modest so that you will remember the simplicity of true greatness, the open mind of true wisdom, the meekness of true strength.

They, give you a temperate will, a quality of the imagination, a vigor of the emotions, a freshness of the deep springs of life, a temperamental predominance of courage over timidity, of an appetite for adventure over love of ease.

They create in your heart the sense of wonder, the unfailing hope of what next, and the joy and inspiration of life. They teach you in this way to be an officer and a gentleman.

And what sort of soldiers are those you are to lead? Are they reliable? Are they brave? Are they capable of victory?

Their story is known to all of you. It is the story of the American man-at-arms. My estimate of him was formed on the battlefield many, many years ago, and has

General of the Army Douglas MacArthur commanded American forces in three wars besides serving as Chief of Staff of the US Army from 1930-1935. A division commander in World War I, he became Commander in Chief, Southwest Pacific Area in the Second World War and later Commander in Chief, United Nations Forces in Korea. General MacArthur delivered his world famous "Duty, Honor, Country" address to cadets of the US Military Academy in May 1962.

never changed. I regarded him then, as I regard him now, as one of the world's noblest figures; not only as one of the finest military characters, but also as one of the most stainless.

His name and fame are the birthright of every American citizen. In his youth and strength, his love and loyalty, he gave all that mortality can give. He needs no eulogy from me, or from any other man. He has written his own history and written it in red on his enemy's breast.

But when I think of his patience in adversity, of his courage under fire and of his modesty in victory, I am filled with an emotion of admiration I cannot put into words. He belongs to history as furnishing one of the greatest examples of successful patriotism. He belongs to posterity as the instructor of future generations in the principles of liberty and freedom. He belongs to the present, to us, by his virtues and by his achievements.

Witness to Fortitude

In twenty campaigns, on a hundred battlefields, around a thousand campfires, I have witnessed that enduring fortitude, that patriotic self-abnegation, and that invincible determination which have carved his stature in the hearts of his people.

From one end of the world to the other, he has drained deep the chalice of courage. As I listened to those songs [of the glee club], in memory's eye I could see those staggering columns of the first World War, bending under soggy packs on many a weary march, from dripping dusk to drizzling dawn, slogging ankle deep through the mire of shell-pocked roads; to form grimly for the mud, chilled by the wind and rain, driving home to their objective, and for many, to the judgment seat of God.

I do not know the dignity of their birth, but I do know the glory of their death. They died, unquestioning, uncomplaining, with faith in their hearts, and on their lips the hope that we would go on to victory.

Always for them: Duty, honor, country. Always their blood, and sweat, and tears, as we sought the way and the light and the truth. And twenty years after, on the other side of the globe, again the filth of murky foxholes, the stench of ghostly trenches, the slime of dripping dugouts, those boiling suns of relentless heat, those torrential rains of devastating storms, the loneliness and utter desolation of jungle trails, the bitterness of long separation from those they loved and cherished, the deadly pestilence of tropical disease, and the horror of stricken areas of war.

Swift and Sure Attack

Their resolute and determined defense, their swift and sure attack, their indomitable purpose, their complete and decisive victory—always victory, always through the bloody haze of their last reverberating shot, the vision of gaunt, ghastly men, reverently following your password of duty, honor, country.

The code which those words perpetuate embraces the highest moral law and will stand the test of any ethics or philosophies ever promulgated for the uplift of mankind. Its requirements are for the things that are right and its restraints are from the things that are wrong. The soldier, above all other men, is required to practice the greatest act of religious training—sacrifice. In battle, and in the face of danger and death, he discloses those divine attributes which his Maker gave when He created man in His own image. No physical courage and no greater strength can take the place of the divine help which alone can sustain him. However hard the

incidents of war may be, the soldier who is called upon to offer and to give his life for his country is the noblest development of mankind.

You now face a new world, a world of change. The thrust into outer space of the satellite, spheres, and missiles marks a beginning of another epoch in the long story of mankind. In five or more billions of years the scientists tell us it has taken to form the earth, in the three or more billion years of development of the human race, there has never been a more abrupt or staggering evolution.

We deal now, not with things of this world alone, but with the unlimitable distances and as yet unfashioned mysteries of the universe. We are reaching out for a new and boundless frontier. We speak in strange terms of harnessing the cosmic energy, of making winds and tides work for us, of creating unheard of synthetic materials to supplement or even replace our old standard basics; to purify sea water for our drink; of mining ocean floors for new fields of wealth and food; of disease preventatives to expand life in the hundreds of years; of controlling the weather for a more equitable distribution of heat and cold, of rain and shine; of spaceships to the moon; of the primary target in war, no longer limited to the armed forces of an enemy, but instead to include his civil populations; of ultimate conflict between an united human race and the sinister forces of some other planetary galaxy; of such dreams and fantasies as to make life the most exciting of all times.

And through all this welter of change and development your mission remains fixed, determined, inviolable. It is to win our wars. Everything else in your professional; career is but corollary to this vital dedication. All other public purposes, all other public projects, all other public needs, great or small, will find others, for their accomplishment; but you are the ones who are trained to fight.

The Profession of Arms

Yours is the profession of arms, the will to win, the sure knowledge that in war there is no substitute of victory, that if you lose, the nation will be destroyed, that the very obsession of your public service must be duty, honor, country.

Others will debate the controversial issues, national and international, which divide men's minds. But serene, calm, aloof, you stand as the nation's war guardian, as its lifeguard from the raging tides of international conflict, as its gladiator in the arena of battle. For a century and a half you have defended, guarded, and protected its hollowed traditions of liberty and freedom. Of right and justice.

Let civilian voices argue the merits or demerits of our processes of government: Whether our strength is being sapped by deficit financing indulged in too long, by federal paternalism grown too mighty, by power groups grown too arrogant, by politics grown too corrupt, by crime grown too rampant, by morals grown too lax, by taxes grown too high, by extremists grown too violent; whether our personal liberties are as thorough and complete as they should be. These great national problems are not for your professional participation or military solution. Your guidepost stands out like a tenfold beacon in the night: Duty, honor, country.

You are the leaven which binds together the entire fabric of our national system of defense. From your ranks come the great captains who hold the nation's destiny in their hands the moment the war tocsin sounds.

The long, gray line has never failed us. Were you to do so, a million ghosts in olive drab, in brown khaki, in blue and gray, would rise from their white crosses, thundering those magic words: Duty honor, country.

Prays for Peace

This does not mean that you are warmongers. On the contrary, the soldier above all other people, prays for peace, for he must suffer and bear the deepest wounds and scars of war. But always in our ears ring the ominous words of Plato, that wisest of all philosophers: "Only the dead have seen the end of the war."

The shadows are lengthening for me. The twilight is here. My days of old have vanished-tone and tint. They have gone glimmering through the dreams of things that were. Their memory is one of wondrous beauty, watered by tears and coaxed and caressed by the smiles of yesterday. I listen vainly, but with thirsty ear, for the witching melody of faint bugles blowing reveille, of far drums beating the long roll.

In my dreams I hear again the crash of guns, the rattle of musketry, the strange, mournful mutter of the battlefield. But in the evening of my memory always I come back to West Point. Always there echoes and reechoes Duty, honor country.

Today marks my final roll call with you. But I want you to know that when I cross the river, my last conscious thoughts will be of the corps, and the corps, and the corps. I bid you farewell.



GEN. DOUGLAS MACARTHUR led the Allies to victory in the Pacific during World War II. He was called upon during the Korean Conflict as well, but was fired by President Truman, in part for advocating the use of nuclear weapons. (See Chapter 6 for a biographical article about Gen. MacArthur.)

Chapter 15

INTRODUCTION

In this final chapter you will learn about the responsibility of command, how leaders can improve their subordinates' work, ways of thinking creatively, the function of conferences, and finally, the role of the cadet commander.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF COMMAND

As you have seen, increases in grade brings increases in responsibilities. While rank does have its privileges, it also has its responsibilities, not only to those above and below you, but to yourself as well.

The following excerpts from the *Air Force Officer's Guide* by Lt. Col. John Hawkins Napier III, USAF (Ret) are edited for CAP use and address three facets of command: the human side, overcoming difficulties, and assuming a new assignment.

The Human Side of Command. By virtue of your rank, you will be in a position to force your will upon others. It is better, though, to depend upon yourself, your ability and personality to accomplish tasks given you. Be human and humane, give those under you all the interest, sympathy, pride and satisfaction you give your best friends. You should strive to get the good will of the people under you. Good will is "the sum of many favorable impressions." It is not an object that can be locked in a safe, written into a ledger, nor something you can see or hear. It is, however, "something" you can sense or feel. You will be able to sense that you have the good will of your followers, peers and superiors shortly after you start a new assignment.

Good will is based on the impression people have of you. Considerations they may use are: competence, fairness, consistency, compassion, and sensitivity. Do you know your job? Are you fair and consistent in your reactions to others? Do you care about the problems others have?

Morale is another aspect of humaneness of leadership. It is the state of mind of the average cadet with respect to the mission of CAP and your unit. If this state of mind is one of confidence, determination, and enthusiasm, unit morale is high. Evidence of high morale may be seen in the smooth, seemingly effortless operation of a unit meeting or practice exercise. High morale is the dividend of good leadership. Many factors adversely affect morale—lack of promotion or recognition, inequitable treatment, or inadequate housing at an encampment. To have high morale in your unit, you must prove you are doing your best for your people, just as you expect them to do their best for you.

A goal of leadership is to have the highest possible standard of performance possible by members of your unit. Raising and maintaining high morale is one way of doing this. Fairness and consistency in rewarding and punishing is another. Studies have shown that in combat, the really important work gets done by less

DISCUSS THE RESPONSIBILITIES THAT ARE UNIQUE TO COMMAND.

CONTRAST COMMAND WITH OTHER POSITIONS OF LEADERSHIP.

than 25 percent of the unit members. Sometimes, this data could be applied to CAP units. To increase the efficiency of your unit, use all the tools available. Appealing to a sense of duty, encouragement through rewards, or, finally, coercion or punishment.

You, as a leader, must encourage people to do their best and when they do, reward them appropriately. Though punishment is only to be used as a last resort, there are times when it is appropriate. As with rewards, the improper, excessive or insufficient use of punishment can have a disastrous effect on unit efficiency, effectiveness and cohesiveness. A good leader must be adept at using each appropriately.

Overcoming Difficulties. One of the first judgments made of you as an NCO or officer in CAP will be how you handle difficulties. As a leader you must decide which are merely nuisances and which are major obstacles to your mission. If a difficulty is a nuisance, make light of it in public, but do your best to get rid of it promptly. When you and your unit encounter a major problem, include your followers in researching the solutions. Taking advantage of their opinions and experience gives you an additional resource and tells them you consider them part of your team. It also shows that you respect them and their thoughts. However, the final decision and the responsibility rests solely on you, their leader.

If you are to have a strong CAP, you must have strong leadership. Missions, whether SAR or DR, are successful through people more so than by equipment. It is the function of leaders to bring out the best capabilities of their people and to direct those capabilities in support of the assigned mission. If CAP cadet officers and NCO's do this task well, your readiness for missions and your accomplishments in them will successfully support Civil Air Patrol.

Assuming a New Assignment. As you progressed through the CAP cadet program, you assumed many new assignments. Some of these came as a matter of course when you started the Staff Duty Analysis portion of Phased III and IV. Some came not only as you gained rank, but because of your unit's needs. You also assumed a new assignment when you transferred to another unit. Review Chapter 8 for more information about assuming a new assignment.

WORK IMPROVEMENT METHODS

Some supervisors always jump to conclusions. They detect an obvious bottleneck in the unit., "chew out" the cadets, and think they have solved the problem. But, the work piles up even more, so they make a few on-the-spot changes in procedure, shift the workers around, take some slow people off the job, and start doing some work themselves. Still the work lags, dead lines are not met, and now there is poor morale in the unit. Why? The answer is that the supervisor did not know how to discover the real reason for the bottleneck in the first place. There are many supervisors in the Civil Air Patrol who think they know what is wrong in nearly any job situation. But, there are few who *really* know what is wrong and *know how* to make it right.

IDENTIFY AND DESCRIBE WAYS LEADERS CAN SIMPLIFY THE WORK OF THEIR SUBORDINATES.

Four Work Simplification Guidelines

Selecting the Job. Which job do you look at first? Pick the one that takes up the greatest amount of resources and has a major impact on the mission.

Recording the Details. There is no shortcut to work simplification studies, everything has to be recorded.

Analyzing the Details. This will be expanded upon in the paragraphs below.

Developing and Installing Approved Changes. Most people resist changes because the unknown makes them insecure. You cannot upset the cadets' sense of security and expect them to be happy. You may force cadets to change their work procedures, but this is not good leadership; nor will it get you the satisfactory results that good human relations will. A systematic approach should be used in arriving at, developing, and carrying out your proposals. You should explain to them that you are trying to:

- ▶ Make their jobs easier.
- ▶ Equalize the workload.
- ▶ Cross train cadets for advancement.
- ▶ Reduce accidents.
- ▶ Assure your cadets that you only want to simplify the work, not to find fault or to discipline, and that you need their help.

Sources of Resistance to Change. People resist change especially when they believe their basic securities are threatened, when they do not understand the changes, or when they are forced to change. You can convince your cadets the change is in the best interest of the unit. This can be done if you recognize that your behavior comes from your thoughts, experiences, prejudices, perceptions, attitudes, and habit patterns. You can isolate these, making it possible to find a way of overcoming or preventing this resistance. Be aware of these assumptions:

- ▶ People change when they see a need for change.
- ▶ People change when they know how to change.
- ▶ People change when they are actively involved in the change process.
- ▶ People do not necessarily change based on new knowledge alone.
- ▶ People change when they are encouraged and supported in changing.
- ▶ People change some of their attitudes and behaviors slowly.

Five approaches to Work Simplification

Work Distribution. Waste, poor morale, and back-logs are some symptoms that may demand a work distribution study. A careful analysis will help you to find out what is being done, who is doing it, how much is being done, and how long it is taking. Your study must be based on what you and your people are *actually* doing at the time of the study and not on what they are *supposed to be* doing.

Flow Process. Your problem may exist in the way one cadet does a particular job or the way a task as a whole is being done by the unit. A flow chart is a picture of the steps in a process. It will help you to follow the work or the people doing it, and help you to spot clues to problems.

Layout Chart and Flow Diagram. A *layout chart* is a plan or sketch of the physical facilities, such as a building, upon which the flow of work is traced. A *flow diagram* charts the movement of materials and persons.

Motion Economy. This is detecting and correcting unnecessary movements as an essential factor of the flow process. It does not take an expert to detect unnecessary movements. Motion analysis is an essential feature of our flow process study. Rearrangement and modification of tools and equipment, enabling cadets to use their limbs comfortably, may be just the thing to eliminate bottlenecks, poor morale, accidents, or waste of resources.

Work Count. Remember, the work count is merely telling you how often each person is producing a given item. This count, when compared to a standard, tells us how well your cadets are doing. For example, if each cadet is expected to recruit three cadets to earn a recruiting ribbon, three is the standard. Here a work count is the number of cadets recruited.

Six Steps for Simplifying Work

Your analysis may reveal that you do need to make some changes. If do, the following steps are recommended:

- ▶ Develop the changes through cooperation with your cadets.
- ▶ Record the detail of the changes.
- ▶ Try the changes, if possible.
- ▶ Coordinate the new ideas with other members of the CAP unit.
- ▶ Put ideas in final form in a written summary.
- ▶ Install and carry out the changes.

CREATIVITY

Alex F. Osborn, author of *applied Imagination*, identifies four basic mental abilities in all humans in varying degrees: (1) to absorb knowledge; (2) to memorize and recall knowledge; (3) to reason; (4) to create by visualizing, foreseeing, and generating ideas.

The first two abilities enable you to get knowledge. The last two enable you to use it. Reasoning lets you analyze your knowledge, to combine it with other information, to judge it, and to make choices and decisions. Thinking creatively enables you to use your knowledge—to perceive, to visualize, and to produce new ideas.

Four Steps in the Creative Process

The creative process is a series of experiences. Each builds on previous experiences and leads directly to other experiences. They continuously merge until a final whole is realized. Norman F. Munn, author of *Psychology: The Fundamentals of Human Adjustment*, says this process happens in four successive stages: (1) preparation, (2) incubation, (3) insight or illumination, and (4) verification.

In reality, the period of *preparation* takes in all our experiences. But you intensify and make it specific when, for example, you realize something is not as good as it can be and you want to improve it. The preparation period is a time of concentration. Routine work, and trial and error. *Incubation* is a period of unconscious activity in which solutions begin to take shape. This happens when you set

DESCRIBE METHODS USED IN CREATIVE THINKING.

the problem aside and focus on other things. *Insight* comes when experience is reorganized, and may happen when least expected. It comes sometimes as a flash, a useful hunch, or a sudden inspiration. *Verification* happens when you test the idea and evaluate it for its usefulness.

Blocks and Obstacles to Creativity

Three Blocks. *Perceptual* blocks prevent you from sensing and perceiving things as they really are. *Emotional* blocks are imposed by the way you feel about things, such as fear, hate, and anxiety. Because of fears of what your supervisors or peers might think, you often conform to their old ways rather than create new ways. Or, if anxiety prevails when you think about a particular problem, you may simply avoid thinking about it to avoid the anxiety. *Cultural* blocks come from society which teaches us conformity, rigid habits, and narrow mindedness.

Five Obstacles. The five most common obstacles that fall under the categories above are: faulty perception, habit, fear, prejudice, and inertia. Two or more of these may be active in any situation, but isolating them this way makes it easier to study them. These reactions are not conscious efforts to avoid being creative. If they were, they would be much easier to overcome.

Faulty Perception. Perceptual obstacles occur when your five senses send incorrect messages or when your mind misreads the messages from your senses. When the senses are incomplete or inaccurate, you have a perceptual block to creative thinking. Thus, whenever possible, use all your senses and be consciously aware you may not get all available information, or may misread it when it comes to your brain.

Habit. Some habitual thinking is necessary. After all, you can hardly come up with a new solution every time you face the same old problem. Unfortunately, however, habitual thinking may become your only way of thinking. The danger in habitual thinking is that it resists change.

We should avoid becoming so attached to our opinions that pride blinds you to truth. *One type of habitual thinking is called "functional fixedness."* Someone with functional fixedness assigns certain functions (or characteristics) to people (or things) and then finds it difficult to see any other functions or characteristics in them. If you start thinking of a person as a mechanic, he or she may remain a mechanic in your mind despite their qualifications in other fields.

Fear. Many types of fear may keep you from trying anything new. Perhaps this is because you do not want to "rock the boat." Perhaps you, at one time or another, hesitated to ask a question because you were afraid of something silly. This type of fear often infects staff meetings! The commander asks for suggestions and the staff sits afraid to voice an idea because it might look silly. Fear can do more than cause silence. It can cause panic that keeps your mind from operating effectively. If you panic under pressure you will rarely try anything new.

Prejudice. Loyalty is a wonderful trait if it is not blind loyalty that prejudices you against new ideas. The men who opposed General Billy Mitchell's ideas on air power were not, to their way of thinking illogical. They believed in, and were loyal to, their particular branches of the armed forces. Self-interest brings out some of your strongest prejudices. Once you have produced an idea of your own, others fight for it to the final moment. It is your brain child, you are proud of it and you find it almost impossible to accept another idea as good or better. You often see

this in other people, but you seldom see it in yourself. This is human nature and applies to everyone.

Inertia. How often have you said, "I meant to, but I just did not get around to it?" You often resist new ideas because accepting them might require some effort. A special kind of inertia comes from self-satisfaction. When you are satisfied with a procedure, it is easy to say "Everything is running smoothly so why change?"

Overcoming Barriers to Creativity

The first step toward becoming more creative is to recognize barriers that may influence your thinking. A proper attitude and atmosphere are necessary. Develop a questioning attitude that will cause you to look for better ways to accomplish your job. Develop a sensitivity to problems. Approach all problems with a positive attitude. Make use of techniques that promote creative thinking and the generation of ideas. Two of these techniques that are applicable at almost any time are (1) the self-interrogation checklist and (2) brainstorming.

Self-Interrogation. Several large industries today give each executive a set of reminders designed to encourage a questioning attitude. Can I make it larger? Can I combine it? Can I adapt it? Can I substitute something else for it? Can I modify it?

Brainstorming. Brainstorming is a group process where the group lists all ideas that they can think about on a given subject or problem. The process does two things: it stimulates a chain reaction of ideas, and it helps everyone withhold judgment. Some people are self-starters. When they begin to question something, ideas flow from their minds. Most of us, however, need some help to overcome blocks and to start your own ideas flowing. A brainstorming session can give us this help.

In *Applied Imagination*, Alex F. Osborn said when you stop to analyze each idea as you produce it, you get stuck in a rut. Brainstorming does not demand this of you. Osborn developed four rules for a brainstorming session.

Withhold judgment. This is the first and most important principle. Criticism stops the flow of ideas. No idea is to be ridiculed; evaluation is held after the brainstorming session is over.

Welcome freewheeling. Remember that no idea is too farfetched. Many of the greatest ideas sounded absurd at first. You cannot be sure that an idea is crazy until you take a real look at it. Even if it is crazy, it may stimulate someone else to offer another idea.

Aim for quantity, not quality. The greater number of ideas, the better the chances of finding the best ones.

Give priority to "hitchhikes." Build on other's ideas; one idea often sparks a related one. A "hitchhike" idea rides on another's idea. In the brainstorming session, one member suggests an idea. This triggers a thought in another member, a thought that is probably better than the previous one and one that possibly includes all the original thought plus more.

The ideal size of a brainstorming group is 12 to 15. The problem must be limited and understood by each member. Besides having a moderator, the group also should have a recorder to write down each idea someplace where everyone can see at once. For example, a chalkboard. This helps the group to remember what was suggested and encourages them to "hitchhike."

Brainstorming should have no set time limit. The moderator should keep the group going as long as it produces ideas. When slow periods occur, the moderator should repeat the problem. This sometimes brings on a new burst of activity. If the moderator stops the session too soon, group members will not produce all the ideas they can bring to light.

Evaluate ideas only after the session. The group or committee may decide to discard many of them. Quality is now what the group wants. Many ideas will be promising enough to be studied further. Often, the idea that helps solve the problem would never be found without brainstorming.

CONFERENCES

Earlier, in Chapter 8, you learned about staff meetings, then about the seminar in Chapter 14. These are both somewhat related to conferences; all these involve more than one person making a group decision.

The three general purposes of conferences are: teaching, problem solving, and negotiating. Usually what applies to a good conference and a good conference leader also applies to a good staff meeting and a good staff meeting leader. From time to time the staff will; need to create a temporary “task force” to solve a one-time problem. Other times, if the problem needs continuous attention, a staff member is assigned to it as part of the job description. In either case, conference skills are needed when group participation in problem solving is required.

IDENTIFY THE PURPOSE OF A CONFERENCE.

Teaching Conferences

A conference to teach is an informative conference. Ensure all staff members understand the changes they must make because of the new plan, and make sure you achieve coordination within your staff. A teaching conference is ideal for meeting these requirements because it is much more effective than reading the new order or giving a briefing about it. Teaching conferences are also useful in discussing training topics. To make a training conference successful, each group member must have background knowledge of the study topic (or of related topics) before the conference begins. Each person has something to contribute, and all; the contributions added together give the group the information it needs.

Problem-Solving Conferences

By its very nature, the conference is a particularly suitable means of solving problems in government, industry, and the armed forces. The wise official frequently joins with knowledgeable people to resolve important problems. Through the conference CAP leaders can profit from the knowledge and experience of the experts in their unit. At a conference, the members of the staff may uncover a need for better procedures, or they may find it necessary to revamp the unit’s training program. Each participant at the staff conference has suggestions to offer. His or her special knowledge or experience will help the group solve the problem.

Negotiating Conferences

These are useful where there are two or more incompatible solutions, points of view, or approaches. What makes a negotiating conference different from the usual

problem-solving conference? Perhaps the best way to answer this question is to list the characteristics of the negotiating conference:

- ▶ The appointing authority is either not authorized to make a decision or is unwilling to make one; or there is no appointing authority.
- ▶ Those present represent two or more positions, and all conferees are authorized to present and defend the position they represent.
- ▶ All representatives want to win approval of their position, and each unit represented wants to reach a settlement.
- ▶ Each representative must be fair, open-minded, willing to listen and willing to be convinced.

Negotiators should remember that their purpose is to reach an agreement—not get their way without changing their goal or method to get it. Therefore, negotiators usually face the prospect of compromise and should prepare themselves so that they can reach the most favorable position possible through compromise. To do this, the negotiators should have in mind their most desirable position, a middle acceptable position and a last stand position.

The Conference Facilitator

Facilitator traits. Imagine what a conference would be like without a facilitator. Without guidance and control, the discussion might eventually center on the problem, and some discussion might occur. At best, the leaderless discussion might result in the adoption of some sort of problem solution. At worst, it would be a “bull session.” It would be best to select, well before the time of the meeting, an able facilitator and authorize that person to help the group to work toward its goal.

It is important the person selected has certain character traits. As a conference leader, inventory these traits to see which ones you are strong in and which ones to cultivate.

- ▶ Enjoy working with people.
- ▶ Have a good command of the language.
- ▶ Think clearly and rapidly.
- ▶ Are flexible.
- ▶ Practice self-restraint.
- ▶ Are tactful and patient.
- ▶ Have a sense of humor.
- ▶ Are a good listener.
- ▶ Are objective.
- ▶ Are conscientious and efficient.
- ▶ Establish a timetable.
- ▶ Win confidence and respect.

Have you decided that no mere human can meet all these requirements of the ideal conference facilitator? Make the best possible use of your desirable traits. Then, recognizing the value of traits such as self-restraint, tact, conscientiousness, enthusiasm, and patience, develop any that you are weak in or may lack.

DESCRIBE LEADERSHIP TECHNIQUES AND TRAITS IMPORTANT TO CONFERENCE FACILITATORS.

Facilitator's Preparation

You must spend many hours getting ready. These preparations run the gamut from arranging the physical facilities to studying thoroughly all the matters relevant to the goals of the conference.

In preparing for a conference, first *analyze its purposes*. If the general purpose of the conference is to solve a problem, think the problem through to understand the specific purpose of the conference. If the purpose is to inform, think through exactly what ideas to get across. If the purpose is to negotiate, become familiar with the specific situation and the opposing points of view that will be presented in the conference.

The second step is to *analyze the conference members*. Know if they have any weaknesses that need to be minimized. Know the knowledge level of the members. Analyze the members in order to anticipate any problems that may arise due to status of personality.

The third step is to *write a notice to conferees and prepare a tentative agenda*. The tentative agenda is the proposed order of business to be discussed. For a *problem-solving* conference, the tentative agenda may include the steps of the systematic method of problem solving or an adaptation of it. For a *teaching* conference, the agenda may follow any one of many logical patterns of organization. For a *negotiating* conference, the agenda shows the order in which each side is to introduce its team and position. In preparing the agenda, the leader must decide what the most logical order is for discussing the sub-points of the problem.

The fourth step is to *make a discussion plan*. This is an extension of the agenda and is your personal aid to make sure the agenda accomplishes the specific purpose of the conference. For a *problem-solving* conference, prepare the introduction, list detailed data, and develop a battery of questions to stimulate the discussion. For a *teaching* conference, make the discussion guide the same as the problem-solving discussion guide. Prepare the introduction to get the conferee's attention, motivation, and to give an overview. To prepare a discussion guide for a *negotiating* conference, plan how to introduce the members and how to describe the situation. The leader may be able to anticipate areas that need research and include the necessary research material in the discussion guide.

Facilitating: Technical Issues

Since a good introduction helps to establish the right climate for the conference, make sure the introduction is thorough, and includes all the necessary steps.

Introduce conferees. When it is time to start the conference, get the attention of the group and introduce yourself. Next, you should ask the conferees to introduce themselves and tell what staff department or unit they represent.

Explain procedures or rules. Tell the conferees that it is their conference, that they will carry the discussion, and that your role is merely that of a facilitator, not a leader. Point out that success depends on their being active in the discussion. Make your position clear. Tell them you are not going to function as an expert on what they are about to discuss and that you are not going to function as an authority telling them how to run their business. Explain that you are present only to help them solve their problems. Make it clear that all decisions reached will be the result of their collective thinking, not yours.

Successful conferences usually take place in an informal atmosphere. Even so, you will need guidelines to ensure time is used efficiently. Make sure the conferees are familiar with these ground rules and that they accept them before you start.

Introduce the problem. In presenting the problem, phrase your remarks to show how the problem is important to them. Make the members feel that the problem is an obstacle to them and kindle a desire to overcome it. After you have presented the problem, get the group to agree on a statement of it. Write this statement where you can keep it visible to the group throughout the conference. If you have done a good job of presenting the problem, the conferees probably will want to rush ahead to do something about it. Discourage them from proceeding without recognizing all the facts affecting the situation. Lead the members of the group to an accurate definition of the problem. They must pin it down. They should list every fact they must consider in solving the problem.

They now need to decide a plan of attack. As a starting point, present your proposed agenda. Give them a chance to consider it; they may wish to modify it or choose a different one. It is essential that the group agree on their plan of attack before starting to analyze the problem.

Analyze the problem. Throughout the conference, you must frequently check to be sure that the conferees agree. Before moving on to each new problem area, check for agreement on the sub-problems just covered. If they do not completely agree, specify the points on which they do agree.

Consider all possible solutions and select one. After leading the group through an analysis of the entire problem, start looking for solutions. The members will volunteer them. You may have to discourage some conferees from pushing ahead and proposing solutions based on a partial analysis of the problem. List every solution proposed, even those seeming to have little merit. If a possible solution occurs to you but not the group, get them to suggest it. Now guide the group to select what they believe to be the best solution, but discourage them from accepting it until they test it first. Remind them of the criteria they have set up while discussing the problem and have them apply their criteria to the solution they favor. If the tentative solution meets every requirement, it becomes the group's final solution. If there are any flaws in the tentative solution, the conferees must modify it or consider another solution.

See that the group recommends action. The conferees can seldom apply their solution before leaving the conference room, but they are vitally concerned with putting the solution to work. Once they have selected their solution, ask, "What are we going to do to put our solution to work?" In training conferences, the subject matter usually relates to the daily work of the conferees. The nature of the subject and the circumstances may be such that it is up to each member to decide what he or she has learned.

The staff conference, on the other hand, must result in a resolution to act or in a recommendation that action should be taken. The conferees must consider ways to apply the solution. They may decide that their recommendations can be put into effect through a directive.

Summarize. The conferees should never leave a conference wondering what they decided or what they are going to do about the problem. Before closing the conference, summarize the discussion and state the solution clearly and briefly. Be completely impartial when you do this. Ensure the accuracy of your summary by asking the conferees to check your statement so they can add any points you may have overlooked.

Facilitating: Human Relations Issues

Do not let a few members dominate the discussion. Your conference is successful if everyone participates by listening and talking. Whenever silent cadets appear ready to speak, invite them to do so. Do not let the discussion become one-sided. This often happens when the more vocal conferees agree with each other. If this occurs, invite opposing arguments.

One of your primary duties is to guide the discussion so that the conference objectives are met. By planning the discussion carefully and following your plan to a reasonably close degree, you can *prevent sidetracking*. Watch the trend of the discussion so that you can anticipate digressions and stop them. If members speak in general terms that seem irrelevant to the discussion, ask them for a concrete example.

If the discussion does go off track, tactfully bring it back as smoothly as you can. Occasionally you may have to break in on a discussion to point out a digression. When you have done this, lead off again with a pertinent question. A statement may be relevant, but you may not see it as such. If you have any doubt, ask the speaker to show how the statement relates to what is being discussed. If an unrelated subject comes up repeatedly, ask yourself, "Is it actually related and have I just not seen the connection?" The fact that the conferees continually bring the topic into the discussion shows that they find it relevant. If you still feel that the topic is off the track but the conferees are sufficiently interested in it, schedule another conference to discuss it. A question or statement may be irrelevant at the time it is offered but pertinent to what will come later. Make a note of the question and the person's name so that you can ask him or her to repeat the question at the proper time. Always keep your promise to discuss a point later and make sure there is time to do so.

Do not allow side discussions. If two or three conferees start a private conversation, politely ask the one who seems to be the leader to give the group the benefit of their side discussion. When you find two distinct discussions going on simultaneously, tactfully break in and merge them into one.

Never try to prolong a dead discussion. If a change of approach does not revive a lagging discussion, begin your summarization. It will help the conferees to organize their thoughts so they can offer additional information.

A meeting is not a conference if those present are forced to accept the decisions of a minority. The members of a conference accept the conclusions and solutions because each had a part in formulating them. Never take for granted acceptance that is an automatic outgrowth of conference activity.

Wise use of questions. The question is your most important tool; it can serve many purposes. To get the most from questions, know how to word them and how to direct them. Questions are classified as lead-off or follow-up, depending on how you use them to control the discussion. As the name implies, a *lead-off question* is used to start discussion of a new topic. Make thought-provoking lead-off questions for each topic when you prepare for the conference. You can keep a discussion going with carefully phrased *follow-up questions* to expand or limit topics. Plan this before the conference, but be flexible enough so you can adapt them to the situation.

Questions also can be classified as overhead, direct, reverse or relay. Each question is helpful in its own way. An *overhead question* is one asked without saying who is to reply. It is addressed to the entire group. You must be careful to give everyone a chance to voice an opinion. A *direct question* is just the opposite; a

particular person is supposed to answer it. You can use a direct question to give an inattentive individual a jolt. You may want to direct a question to a conferee who has special information for the group. A direct question to a clear-thinking conferee can help you get a wandering discussion back on track. In a *relay question*, you should voice the question first and then show who is to answer. This procedure increases the attentiveness of the entire group. You may want to reverse this procedure from time to time. In a *reverse question* you direct the question back to its originator.

You use *reverse or relay questions* to answer questions the conferees ask you. To keep the conferees active in the discussion, either reverse the question, rephrase it to the one who asked it, or pass it on to another member. Suppose Cadet Jones asks you what malingering means. Instead of answering the question yourself, you may reverse the question and ask, "What does it mean to you?" Or you might prefer to relay the question to Cadet Smith by asking "What does it mean to you, Cadet Smith?" This procedure keeps you in the background. Do not do this to hide your own ignorance of the subject, however. Just admit you do not know.

The actual wording or phrasing of the question should be dictated by its purpose and by the exact situation at the time you ask it. Questions should be neither too hard nor too easy to answer. If a question is too difficult, it will bring little or no response. If it is so simple that it requires no thought, its main effect will be to encourage shallow thinking. Avoid covering too much with a single question. In trying to make your questions specific, avoid making them so narrow they turn the conference into a question and answer period. Above all, avoid questions that can be answered with a simple "yes" or "no." Ask questions that relate to the what, where, or why of a subject.

Your wording and the tone of your voice can effect both the response and attitude of the group or of the person you ask. If you include a commendation in the wording of a question, you can build a person up. By commending timid conferees, you can draw them into a discussion.

Evaluating a Conference

When you start facilitating conferences, and even after you have facilitated a few, you will want to know how you have done and how you are progressing. You can learn these things from two sources: a self-evaluation or an evaluation by a critic or an observer.

It's fairly simple to evaluate yourself on certain points. When you run overtime or have to omit important points, you know your timing is at fault. When you have to consult your notes constantly, your preparation is lacking. One of the best ways to evaluate your conference is to play back a recording of it. You can hear yourself as others hear you. You may see overlooked chances to drive home a point, to make a strong summary of a sub-problem, or to let conferees do more talking.

Although self-evaluation is helpful, it is not enough. Conference facilitators are often too busy to observe their own performance objectively. When you are an observer, study the work of the facilitator and the conferees carefully and use your notes to interview the facilitator later. Start your interview by praising the facilitator's good points, then point out weaknesses and ways to overcome them.

When an observer is evaluating your work as a facilitator, accept the criticism and suggestions constructively, not as defects but as something to build upon. Remember the observer's purpose is to help you.

CADET COMMANDER AND BEYOND: CONSULTING

A consultant is a person who is not a commander but instead is a “walking encyclopedia” of knowledge and experience. Commanders and staff rely on a consultant for advice and ideas. You may be completing high school or beyond and have the experience and ideas, but often cannot regularly attend CAP functions as you used to. As such, you are not usually available to command. However, as a consultant, you can still actually help your unit. Two examples of consultants in CAP are the Spaatz cadet (not serving as a commander) and an Air Force Reserve Assistance Program Officer/NCO.

Whatever you will be doing as a consultant, it will require the ultimate approval of your senior member unit commander. Stepping out of the spotlight as the cadet commander, or cadet staff officer, to become a consultant is not meant to be a demotion in status or a tactful way of being “pushed out of the way.” Granted, it is not as necessary for a consultant to be at most cadet functions as it is for the cadet commander, staff and subordinate commanders. But at this time in your life you should be either completing or have completed high school and starting your self-development program. Now, you will be going to college, vocational school, or have a job. You simply will not have the time for CAP that you once had. But you have vital knowledge and valuable experience. Consulting gives you a legitimate opportunity to share this, without it interfering with your self-development program.

Consulting is an emerging leadership role. When the United States sends military advisors to its allies, it is sending consultants. They do not command foreign forces, they are attached to them and provide advice and assistance. Between the services, the Armed Forces do the same thing. Within the Air Force, many people are assigned a similar consultant role, such as the wing USAF-CAP liaison officer. Your wing liaison officer does not work as a CAP member, but works as an Air Force member. In certain local units, Air Force reserve personnel provide advice and assistance to CAP unit commanders. Always, the consultant does not command the unit members they help, and members do not command the consultant. Each freely cooperates with the other to identify and achieve a clearly defined mission.

Adapting experiences to new leadership situations. An effective consultant will always be challenged by change. The changes in unit personnel, CAP regulations, unit meeting place, and other things. Many questions or issues will involve things you once knew thoroughly, but have forgotten or partially forgotten. Because of change and forgetting, keep current on CAP regulations. This will let you refresh yourself and give advice based on *facts* before relying on opinion. This process also lets you highly polish your leadership skills.

Avoid confusion and misunderstandings; fully define your consultant role. Because consulting is an emerging role at the squadron and flight level of CAP, not too many people know about it. Senior members and cadet commanders must know what you do, how you do it, and why you do it that way. This is especially true where you are not known, like at a unit near your college instead of your home unit. The suggestions that follow are only guidelines. Review them constantly; you need to adjust to new problems, new situations, and keep new people up to date. Times, problems, and situations constantly change. When they do, adjustments need to be made. When they are, everyone needs to be kept up to date.

DESCRIBE THE ROLE OF A CONSULTANT.

DESCRIBE THE UNIQUE LEADERSHIP CHALLENGES RELATED TO CONSULTING.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Discuss the responsibilities that are unique to command.
2. Contrast command with other positions of leadership.
3. Identify and describe ways leaders can simplify the work of their subordinates.
4. Describe methods used in creative thinking.
5. Identify the purpose of a conference.
6. Describe leadership techniques and traits important to conference facilitators.
7. Describe the role of a consultant.
8. Describe the unique leadership challenges related to consulting.

SPECIAL READING

CARL SPAATZ

From *Webster's American Military Biographies*.

Carl Spaatz was an army and air force officer. Born on June 28, 1891, in Boyertown, Pennsylvania, Spaatz (originally Spatz—he added an “a” in 1937) graduated from West Point in 1914 and was commissioned in the infantry. After a year at Schofield Barracks, Hawaii, he entered aviation training in San Diego, California, becoming one of the army's first pilots in 1916 and winning promotion to first lieutenant in June. He advanced to captain in May 1917 and was ordered to France in command of the 31st Aero Squadron. He organized and directed the aviation training school at Issoudon and by the end of the war had managed to get just three weeks' combat duty, during which he shot down three German aircraft. In June 1918 he was promoted to temporary major.

During 1919-1920 he served as assistant air officer for the Western Department; he reverted to captain in February 1920 and received promotion to permanent major in July. Spaatz served as commander of Mather Field, California, in 1920; as commander of Kelly Field, Texas, in 1920-1921; as air officer, VIII Corps, in 1921; as commander of the 1st Pursuit Group at Selfridge Field, Michigan, in 1922-24; in the office of the chief of the Air Corps in 1925-29; as commander of the 7th Bombardment Group at Rockwell Field, California, and subsequently of Rockwell Field in 1929-1931; and as commander of the 1st Bombardment Wing at March Field, California, in 1931-1933. During January 1-7, 1929, Spaatz and Capt Ira C. Eaker established a flight endurance record of 150 hours, 40 minutes, in a Folkker aircraft, the *Question Mark*, over Los Angeles. After two years as chief of the training and operations division in the office of the chief of Air Corps and promotion to lieutenant colonel in September 1935, he entered the Command and General Staff School, Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, graduating in 1936. He was executive officer of the 2nd Wing at Langley Field, Virginia, until 1939 and then again joined the staff of the chief of the Air Corps. After a tour of observation in England in 1940 he was promoted to temporary brigadier general and named to head the material division of the Air Corps, and in July 1941 he became chief of air staff under Gen. Henry H. Arnold, chief of the (renamed) Army Air Forces.

In January 1941 he was appointed chief of the Air Force Combat Command. Later in that year he returned to England to begin planning the American air effort in Europe. In May he became commander of the Eighth Air Force, and in July he was designated commander of U.S. Army Air Forces in Europe. In November he went to North Africa to reorganize the Allied air forces there for Gen. Dwight D. Eisenhower, becoming commander of the Allied Northwest African Air Forces (NWAAF) in February 1943. In March he was promoted to temporary lieutenant general. From March to December 1943 he was also commander of the U.S. Twelfth Air Force, a unit of the NWAAF, which took part in both the North Africa and Sicily campaigns. In January 1944 Spaatz was named commander of the Strategic Air Force in Europe; his command included the Eighth Air Force under Gen. James H. Doolittle, based in England, and the Fifteenth Air Force under Gen. Nathan F.

Twinning, based in Italy, and had responsibility for all deep bombing missions against the German homeland. In March 1945 he was promoted to temporary general, and in July, war in Europe having ended, he took command of the Strategic Air Force in the Pacific. The atomic bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki took place under his command.

In March 1946 he succeeded Gen. Arnold as commander in chief of the Army Air Forces, and he became the first chief of staff of the independent air force in September 1947. He held that post until retiring in July 1948 in the rank of general (he had been permanent major general since June 1946). He served subsequently as chairman of the Civil Air Patrol and for a time contributed a column to *Newsweek* magazine. Spaatz died in Washington, D.C. on July 14, 1974.



GEN CARL A "TOOEY" SPAATZ served as the first chairman of the CAP National Board. After helping lead the Allied air campaigns during WWII, Gen. Spaatz was appointed the first chief of staff of the newly-independent U.S. Air Force.