

PREFACE

Since it was created in 1775, the US Army has had effective leadership. Our history is filled with examples of men who, in this nation's times of need, have led our Armed Forces successfully in conflicts throughout the world. Regardless of how these men came to be good leaders, their actions reflected certain fundamental truths concerning the leadership of men. These truths have evolved into what we have come to know as the principles of leadership—eleven basic guidelines which have stood the test of time for use in leading men.

Despite the constancy of these tried and true principles, the techniques by which they are applied cannot remain unchanged. They must be systematically reassessed, modified, and improved if we are to lead effectively. The soldier of today is not the same as the soldier of yesterday, and the soldier of tomorrow will also be different. The leadership techniques that we apply must reflect an expanded recognition and understanding of this fact and take fully into account the soldier's increasing level of education, his changing attitudes and values, and the complex social pressures bearing on him.

This is not to imply that our leadership goals have changed. Our Army has been and must always be mission-oriented. Thus, our ultimate objective—our primary leadership goal—must continue to be mission accomplishment. This goal, however, is fully compatible with a leadership approach that includes reasonable consideration of the men being led.

Any mission-oriented organization operates on the basis of authority vested in specific persons. True leadership, however, is the art of gaining influence with others without the exercise of physical force or reliance on authority. Stated another way, it is the ability to cause others to willingly accept specified goals as their own and to work wholeheartedly for the achievement of those goals. One factor that affects a person's ability to gain influence with others is the position he holds within the group, together with the authority associated with that position. However, this is but a single element in the total leadership equation. Leadership that is based primarily on position and authority and is lacking empathy will, in the long run, prove ineffective.

The military leader is ultimately responsible for any decisions that are made. He also must take into full account situational factors influencing the accomplishment of his mission. Consequently, there are times when he necessarily must be directive in his approach. Because missions are accomplished by people, success or failure hinges generally on the leader's ability to identify intelligently with others, to understand the "why" of human behavior, and to translate that understanding into appropriate leadership techniques. A leader need not be a psychologist, but he must have a clear valid understanding of his men and of their attitudes, aspirations, and motivations. To lead well he must strive constantly to maintain the best possible balance between consideration of the needs and goals of his unit and the needs and goals of the men of whom it is comprised.

Over the past two decades there has been a great deal of research conducted in the field of leadership. We now know much more about individual and group behavior, the forces that motivate people, human relations, and the role of the leader in influencing his men. Diligent study and careful analysis of this pool of research-based knowledge will provide many ideas for innovative improvement of the techniques by which we apply the principles of leadership. Thus armed, today's leader will be far less reliant on a trial-and-error approach than were his predecessors.

This text is not intended to be the final answer to leadership in the Army, but to serve as a foundation upon which all leaders can build. For this reason a bibliography is provided for further reading and study.

Users of this manual are encouraged to submit recommended changes or comments to improve it. Comments should be keyed to the specific page, paragraph, and line of text in which the change is recommended. Reasons will be provided for each comment to insure understanding and complete evaluation. **Comments should be prepared using DA Form 2028 (Recommended Changes to Publications) and forwarded direct to the Commandant, US Army Infantry School, Fort Benning, Georgia 31905.**

MILITARY LEADERSHIP

INTRODUCTION

	Page
PREFACE	i
INTRODUCTION	v
PART ONE LEADERSHIP FUNDAMENTALS	
CHAPTER 1. The Question—Command, Management, or Leadership	1-1
2. Traits and Principles of Leadership	2-1
3. Professionalism and Ethics	3-1
4. Discipline	4-1
PART TWO HUMAN BEHAVIOR	
CHAPTER 5. Why Study Behavior?	5-1
6. Values and Attitudes	6-1
7. Human Needs	7-1
8. Motivation	8-1
9. Stress	9-1
PART THREE APPLICATION	
CHAPTER 10. Decisionmaking	10-1
11. Communication	11-1
12. Counseling	12-1
13. The Effective Leader	13-1
PART FOUR CONTEMPORARY HUMAN PROBLEMS	
CHAPTER 14. Drug Abuse	14-1
15. Race Relations	15-1
16. Prevention of AWOL	16-1
PART FIVE SITUATIONAL STUDIES	
Situational Studies	Studies-1
BIBLIOGRAPHY	Bib-1

*This manual supersedes FM 22-100, 1 November 1965.

The purpose of this publication is to provide the military leader with a basic reference for the study of individual and group behavior and the principles and techniques of applied leadership. There is no standard solution to becoming a good leader, and none will be presented here. Leadership is intangible, hard to measure, and difficult to describe. However, by understanding and applying what is presented here, the leader will understand what motivates his subordinates, and will develop a personal framework for leadership.

A basic understanding of human behavior is a prerequisite to good leadership. Although the study of successful leaders is helpful and can provide a background to assist in forming an individual leadership style, each leader must recognize that he cannot completely adopt the style, method, or attitude of another man and expect to be totally effective. In recent years, a wealth of new information in the field of human behavior has been developed through both military and civilian efforts. The material presented here is a condensation of this new information and represents the latest thinking concerning the relation-

INTRODUCTION

The Army needs professional leaders who have high standards, who possess great skill in their roles, and who are willing to study and learn to achieve their full potential. Being a military leader has always been a tough, demanding, but rewarding job because of the high standards and responsibilities involved. The challenge facing today's leader is greater than ever.

Rapid technological and social change have created a highly complex leadership role for the professional soldier. While today's young soldier is as effective a fighting man as our country has produced, he is more challenging to lead for two reasons: (1) the complexity of the skills he must be taught in order to perform his duties; and (2) his variant values and attitudes, brought about by the rapidity with which social change has taken place in the past 15 to 20 years. The service school system and the instruction of junior leaders in training management help meet the first aspect of the challenge. Because of the latter reason, however, leaders often have difficulty in understanding and communicating with their followers and vice versa. Technological advances in all communication media, especially television, have made the young soldier of today more knowledgeable of what is going on in the world than his predecessors. He has also been taught in school to think more for himself and to question anything which is not clearly based on logic and reason. Finally, he is the product of an affluent society—one which has provided him with more material things and has given him more freedom of action than ever before.

All these factors dictate that the military leader must have a better understanding of individual and group behavior and be more proficient in the execution of his total responsibilities. Such professionalism is developed in many ways, but a key element is the willingness to study.

PURPOSE AND SCOPE

The purpose of this publication is to provide the military leader with a basic reference for the study of individual and group behavior and the principles and techniques of applied leadership. There is no standard solution to becoming a good leader, and none will be presented here. Leadership is intangible, hard to measure, and difficult to describe. However, by understanding and applying what is presented here, the leader will understand what motivates his subordinates, and will develop a personal framework for leadership.

A basic understanding of human behavior is a prerequisite to good leadership. Although the study of successful leaders is helpful and can provide a background to assist in forming an individual leadership style, each leader must recognize that he cannot completely adopt the style, method, or attitude of another man and expect to be totally effective. In recent years, a wealth of new information in the field of human behavior has been developed through both military and civilian efforts. The material presented here is a condensation of this new information and represents the latest thinking concerning the relation-

ship between human behavior and good leadership as it applies to the military.

In addition to behavioral research, the Army has conducted a number of



studies to determine the type of leadership required for today, as well as for the future. These studies critically examined the time-honored principles of leadership in an effort to determine their continuing worth. All of the studies concluded that the leadership principles are still valid. They also indicated, however, that it is necessary to better prepare our leaders in the area of human behavior and motivation so that the principles can be more effectively applied. A good understanding of leadership principles and the "why" of behavior, coupled with improved application of leadership techniques, will assist each leader to meet the high standards required today.

CONCEPT

The concept of leadership for the United States Army is based on accomplishing the organizational mission while preserving the dignity of the soldier. This requires that a continuing effort be made to maintain a proper balance at all times between fulfillment of the goals of the organization and the needs and goals of its members. Leadership behavior must be, therefore, flexible in technique and personal in

application to motivate the soldier, promote and maintain a high state of discipline and responsiveness, and develop a combat-effective unit.

OBJECTIVE OF LEADERSHIP!



The ultimate objective of leadership in a military organization will always be the successful accomplishment of the mission. In striving to achieve this goal, the leader must accept full personal responsibility for all his decisions and must continually assess the situational environment in which he is operating. Situations may arise in which the leader must take a directive approach and limit to varying degrees the extent

to which his subordinates participate in the decisionmaking process. Even then the needs and goals of the soldier should not be ignored. The leader always must keep uppermost in his mind that unit missions are accomplished by the people who comprise the unit. If they are to contribute willingly and wholeheartedly to the accomplishment of those missions, the leader must always exert every reasonable effort to consider their needs.

Too often leaders focus their efforts on short-range goals at the unnecessary expense of their subordinates. In the long run this can be detrimental to both the soldier and the unit. Effective leadership is, on the other hand, accomplishing the mission with a minimum expenditure of time and effort and an appropriate balance between unit, group, and individual needs and goals.

LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Developing leadership ability is a twofold task. The first task—that of learning the principles and techniques of leadership and the aspects of human behavior—can be accomplished in an academic environment through the use of textbooks, case studies, and role-playing exercises. The second task—that of applying what has been learned—can take place only in a real-world environment. The two tasks complement and reinforce each other. The leader, after studying, can apply his knowledge in his unit, whether in the field or in garrison. If situations arise which present him with difficulty, he should return to his texts, get guidance from his superiors, and discuss the problem with others. Only in this way can he profit fully from his experience and achieve maximum improvement.

At the same time he is learning more about human behavior and how to apply that knowledge, the leader must increase his tactical and technical proficiency. In the long run, professional job competence is an absolute prerequisite to truly effective leadership and to gaining influence with subordinates, peers, and superiors alike. Only through the simultaneous development of his skills in both areas can the leader mold the men for whom he is responsible into a willing, responsive, motivated team, capable of efficient operations.

For a leader to achieve his potential, he must have the opportunity to exercise his skills. The junior leader especially must be given the opportunity to use his own initiative even though mistakes due to lack of knowledge and experience, as well as errors in judgment, may occur. Senior leaders, because of their greater experience and their desire to insure that the job is done right the first time, too frequently do the junior leader's job for him. The junior leader will not improve, however, unless he is given an opportunity to perform on his own. This opportunity should be granted during training on routine tasks, where possible, to prepare him to act in critical situations where lives could be lost or equipment damaged and destroyed. The senior leader who fails to grant his subordinates the opportunity to learn by experience is negligent in fulfilling one of his most important responsibilities—that of developing effective leaders who will eventually replace him.

ORGANIZATION

This publication is based on the concept that a leader can study and learn to make himself a better leader. Part I deals with the fundamentals of leadership, emphasizing the leader's expected behavior and personal standards. Part II is primarily devoted to a study of the

behavior of subordinates, both singly and as a group. Part III integrates the information previously presented into a discussion of some of the processes and procedures used by the leader to accomplish the mission. Part IV presents the major contemporary issues facing Army leaders and Part V presents a number of situational studies.

The Question?

CHAPTER 1

COMMAND?

Leadership fundamentals

Part I



In military as well as in civilian life, the concept of command is essential. It is the foundation of command and control, and it is the basis of leadership. In military terms, their definition of leadership is the relationship of the Army.

COMMAND

COMMAND IS THE AUTHORITY A PERSON IN THE MILITARY SERVICE LAWFULLY EXERCISES OVER SUBORDINATES BY VIRTUE OF HIS RANK AND ASSIGNMENT OR POSITION. What does this mean to the officer or noncommissioned officer? It provides the legal basis for exercise of the broad activities of leadership and management and is derived from the position to which he is assigned. Command is based primarily on authority delegated through the chain of command. Authority is the legitimate power of a leader to direct those subordinate to him or to take action within the scope of his position. Responsibility is an integral part of the leader's authority. All army men are morally and legally accountable

The Question?

CHAPTER 1

COMMAND?

MANAGEMENT?

LEADERSHIP?



In military as well as in civilian usage, the functions of command, management, and leadership become a question of interpretation due to their interrelationship. To enable each leader to begin the study of leadership with a common foundation, it is necessary to understand these terms, their definitions, and their relationship in the Army.

COMMAND

COMMAND IS THE AUTHORITY A PERSON IN THE MILITARY SERVICE LAWFULLY EXERCISES OVER SUBORDINATES BY VIRTUE OF HIS RANK AND ASSIGNMENT OR POSITION. What does this mean to the officer or noncommissioned officer? It provides the legal basis for exercise of the broad activities of leadership and management and is derived from the position to which he is assigned. Command is based primarily on authority delegated through the chain of command. Authority is the legitimate power of a leader to direct those subordinate to him or to take action within the scope of his position. Responsibility is an integral part of the leader's authority. All Army men are morally and legally accountable

for their actions. Additionally, leaders are responsible for exercising their authority to accomplish their mission.



The guidelines for the responsibility and authority exercised by officers and noncommissioned officers come from regulations, manuals, orders, and other directives; but these do not cover all situations. There are times when a leader must decide on a course of action without the help of guidelines. In these situations the guide lines for the commander's or leader's authority are solely his ability to judge what is right. He then exercises responsibility and authority based on his personal judgment and experience.

What is the relationship of the leader to responsibility and authority? At all levels of command, the leader is responsible for what his men do or fail to do, as well as for the physical assets of his unit. He is responsible down the chain of command for his subordinates and up the chain of command for mission accomplishment. He has the authority to direct his men's actions toward the accomplishment of missions assigned by superiors and to generate activities such as training and maintenance which will

prepare his unit to accomplish its missions. The leader's responsibility and authority do, however, differ in degree depending on his position. If the proportion of resources alone is considered, it is obvious that with higher position greater responsibility and hence more authority to meet this responsibility is realized. Because of the Army's system of advancement, the increase in responsibility and authority go hand-in-hand with increased experience and higher rank.

The commander is responsible for attainment of the numerous goals of his organization. To attain them, he must use good leadership techniques in dealing with his men and good management techniques in organizing and providing the resources necessary to accomplish the mission.

MANAGEMENT

Management is defined as: THE PROCESS OF PLANNING, ORGANIZING, COORDINATING, DIRECTING, AND CONTROLLING RE-



SOURCES SUCH AS MEN, MATERIAL, TIME, AND MONEY TO ACCOMPLISH THE ORGANIZATIONAL MISSION.

As can be seen from this definition, the commander is involved in all organizational activities. When a commander is unable to personally supervise each activity, he delegates his authority and thereby uses his subordinates to assist him in the accomplishment of the mission.

Management Resources



Of the resources available to the manager, men are the most important. This resource is the foundation for the employment of the other resources. The manager uses the process of leadership to control this critical resource.

LEADERSHIP

There are many definitions of the term leadership. These definitions have two common elements: the accomplishment of a mission or task and the influence of one man, the leader, on another man or group of men. If these definitions are combined into one which directly applies to military leadership, we can say that: **MILITARY LEADERSHIP IS THE PROCESS OF INFLUENCING MEN IN SUCH A MANNER AS TO ACCOMPLISH THE MISSION.**

Leadership involves the personal relationship of one person to another, the ability of a commander to use his personality to directly influence his subordinates to accomplish a mission.



Ideally, the process of leadership would get the willing cooperation of subordinates through persuasion. Persuasion does not mean that the leader takes a vote to determine the unit's course of action or that his decision is open to argument from his subordinates. It means that, because of the leader's sound judgment, knowledge, and personal relationships with his men, he is able to direct his men's attitudes as well as their behavior, toward the attainment of organizational goals. Because of the Army's combat mission, and the characteristics of subordinates, persuasive leadership alone is not always effective or appropriate. It is sometimes necessary to apply a more authoritarian form of leadership in combination with persuasion.

How do leadership and management relate? At lower levels, leaders lead primarily through face-to-face dealings with their men. They are also managers, but most of the physical resources they use are controlled from a higher level within the chain of command. For example, the squad leader devotes most of his efforts toward influencing people and only a small portion of his efforts toward managing materials and time.

As a leader moves up the chain of command, the size of his unit increases but his direct influence on the actions of the unit decreases. For example, it is difficult for a company commander to personally influence all of the men in his unit. He can, however, by working through his staff and subordinate leaders, influence his unit to accomplish the mission. He uses leadership in dealing with his subordinate leaders by personally influencing their actions. Through their actions he gets things done.

As a man gains a higher position, he increases the extent to which he must use all of the



resources. For example, a mechanized infantry battalion commander is responsible for a large number of vehicles of various types. He cannot personally supervise all aspects of the maintenance program to insure that the vehicles are combat ready. He can, however, by working through his motor officer and other subordinates, insure that his vehicles are properly maintained. The battalion commander manages his vehicle resources through his chain of command and staff who in turn must supervise the mechanics and drivers who actually perform the maintenance. The battalion commander insures that this is done by personal spot checks, reports, and inspections.

SUMMARY

A commander must wear two hats—he must be both a leader and a manager. He will not succeed if he does not exercise leadership when dealing with his subordinates and does not properly manage the resources of his organization. Because the leader must use people to employ time, material, and money, he must be able to influence them to accomplish the organizational mission. A leader must not only adhere to the principle of leadership, but he must understand the “hows” and “whys” of his men’s behavior, and of his own as well. This manual will emphasize the leadership aspects of command.

Traits and Principles of leadership!

CHAPTER 2



TRAITS

When a study of the personalities of a group of successful leaders was conducted some time ago, fourteen traits were identified as common to the group. Possession of these traits by itself does not guarantee success, but apparently they are most desirable in all leaders.

Although these traits are a good guide for the desirable personality development of a leader, the mission, the personalities of subordinates, and the situation will have a direct effect on

which traits the leader must apply. They are not all-inclusive, but serve as those which are most desirable in a military leader. The traits are:

Bearing	Integrity
Courage (Moral and Physical)	Judgment
Decisiveness	Justice
Dependability	Knowledge
Endurance	Loyalty
Enthusiasm	Tact
Initiative	Unselfishness

Bearing!



BEARING

A man's bearing is his general appearance, carriage, deportment, and conduct. The bearing of the leader establishes the standard which affects subordinates, peers, and superiors. His carriage should be upright, his general appearance and condition of his clothing and equipment exemplary. His appearance and manner should reflect alertness, energy, competence, and confidence. Through the control of voice and gestures he can exert firm and steady influence over those around him. Few things can steady the morale of troops more than the realization that their leader, with full knowledge of the difficulties of a situation, neither

looks nor acts worried. Good leaders know that their apparent confidence in themselves, their troops, the equipment, and the outcome of a situation is reflected in their men.

Frequent irritation, loss of temper, and vulgar speech indicates a lack of self-control or self-discipline. A leader who cannot control himself cannot expect to control others. The job of a leader frequently requires that he make verbal corrections. To use profane or obscene language or to talk down to subordinates, especially when giving orders, risks friction, resentment, quarreling, and even insubordination. Men resent being sworn at by their leaders. They feel, and rightly so, that immoderate language is more often an expression of anger directed at them.

Avoid verbal condemnation of an entire group. It is unlikely that the leader will have an entire unit which deserves wholesale reprimand or punishment. The resentment created in subordinates that are unfairly included in mass disciplinary actions makes this an unsound practice.

Like profanity, sarcasm and irony often leave men in doubt as to exactly what the leader means. Even a bantering tone should not be used often. The American soldier is often too accustomed to wisecracking to resist replying in the same manner when he is on the receiving end of such remarks. At the same time, any wise leader will know that in some circumstances a certain amount of joking is helpful. During periods of exhaustion and discouragement, humor may impart confidence or relieve tension. Often humor is well received as a means of implying sympathy and understanding or cooperation in the midst of difficulty. This method is very effective when employed by those leaders who display great dignity.

Dignity is also an essential element in the leader's bearing which should not be overlooked. It implies a state of being honorable and requires the control of one's actions and emotions. A leader who makes a spectacle of himself through loudness, drink, or drugs quickly loses the respect of his men. To develop good bearing a leader should concentrate on achieving and maintaining the highest standards in appearance and conduct.

COURAGE

Courage is a mental quality that recognizes fear of danger or criticism, but enables a man to proceed in the face of it with calmness and

firmness. It is a quality of mind that gives a man control over fear, enabling him to accept responsibility and act properly in a threatening situation. Courage exists in a moral, as well as a physical sense. Moral courage means knowing and standing up for what is right in the face of popular disfavor. A leader who has moral courage will admit his errors, but will enforce his decisions when he is sure he is correct. To help attain and demonstrate courage, the leader should study and understand his reactions to fear and control his fear by developing self-discipline and calmness. He must be orderly in his thought process and take care not to exaggerate adversity. He must stand for what is right in the face of popular disagreement and accept blame when he is at fault.

DECISIVENESS

The leader should be able to make decisions promptly and to state them in a clear, forceful manner. Many situations have more than one solution. The wise leader gets all the facts, weighs one against the other, then calmly and quickly arrives at a sound decision. Decisiveness is largely a matter of practice and experience. The leader should also keep in mind that many sound ideas originate at the subordinate level. He should solicit opinions of his subordinates when appropriate. A positive approach, little waste of time, objectivity, timely analysis, and sound evaluations of opinions made by others all contribute to the development of decisiveness in the leader.

DEPENDABILITY

Dependability, the certainty of proper performance of duty, is a quality the leader must develop. A dependable leader can be relied upon to carry out any activity with willing effort. This willing and voluntary support of the policies and orders of the chain of command does not mean blind obedience. Most commanders will listen to the suggestions of their subordinates, but once the commander makes the final decision, the subordinate must give it his complete and energetic support.

The leader who has a high sense of duty will continually put forth his best efforts in an attempt to achieve the highest standards of performance. He will also subordinate personal interests to military requirements.



Endurance!

ENDURANCE

Endurance, the mental and physical stamina measured by the ability to withstand pain, fatigue, stress, and hardship, is akin to courage. It is an important quality of leadership which leaders must have if they are to merit the proper respect from subordinates. Subordinates may view a lack of endurance in a combat situation as cowardice. Likewise, the leader's lack of endurance makes him a liability rather than the asset he should be. The leader sets the standards for a unit most effectively by example. The leader must display an acceptable, if not superior, level of endurance. He may develop his endurance and stamina by regular participation in strenuous physical and mental activities. Frequent self-administered tests can give the leader a measure of his endurance level. Self-discipline and fortitude are essential in developing and maintaining endurance.



ENTHUSIASM

Enthusiasm is the display of sincere interest and zeal in the performance of duties. This requires the leader to be optimistic and cheerful. The leader must, therefore, willingly accept the challenges of his profession and determine to do the best job possible. This attitude, when developed, helps create a good unit. Whether in training or combat, enthusiastic troops are very helpful in accomplishing the mission. A most important step in instilling enthusiasm in men is explaining the "Why" of the leader's actions. If soldiers believe in, and understand a mission, they usually do their best to accomplish it. To avoid becoming stale, set aside a brief period daily to relax. Capitalize on success. Enthusiasm is contagious and nothing will develop it more than the success of a unit or an individual.

INITIATIVE

Initiative, or taking action in the absence of orders, is often required of leaders. Men develop respect and trust for a leader who meets new and unexpected situations with prompt action. One way to encourage initiative in men is to assign them tasks commensurate with their grade and experience level. This allows them to work out the details and complete the tasks. This method frees the leader from a number of details so that he can devote more time to monitoring the activities for which he is respon-

sible. Closely associated with initiative is resourcefulness, the ability to deal with a situation in the absence of normal resources or methods. Under combat conditions, the unexpected is often encountered. In these situations, failing to act cannot be excused. When normal resources do not support a situation, another method must be found to solve the problem.

The ability to anticipate future unit missions is also important. A leader who spends much of his time reacting to situations or "putting out fires" rather than anticipating and planning ahead often finds himself unable to lead his unit efficiently.

Caution, judgment, and discretion must be used in reaching decisions. To aid development of initiative, stay alert, try to recognize the task that needs to be done, and then do it. Use available resources efficiently.

INTEGRITY

The uprightness and soundness of moral principles, the quality of truthfulness and honesty describe integrity. In the military, the lives of thousands are placed in the hands of a few leaders. These leaders must have unquestionable integrity. Honesty, sense of duty, and moral principles must be placed above all else. Reports from the small unit leader to the highest headquarters must contain true facts because the seemingly unimportant report might have great effect. Sound estimation and planning at high levels are impossible without accurate information supplied throughout the chain of command. A leader who proves himself unreliable or of questionable integrity has no place in the military.

JUDGMENT

Judgment is the ability to logically weigh facts and possible solutions on which to base sound decisions. Anticipation of situations, avoidance of hasty decisions, and the application of common sense will insure success in most situations with which the leader is confronted.

Technical knowledge plays an important role in many judgment situations. The lack of technical expertise in a given situation may turn what would ordinarily be a sound decision into a disaster. The leader who always appears to make sound decisions is the one who has personal knowledge or the presence of mind to confer with experts about those subjects in which he lacks knowledge. Often a sign of good judgment is knowing when to ask a question.

Many inexperienced leaders fall victim to the old saying, "If you ask a silly question, you'll get a silly answer." It would be more correct to adhere to the saying, "The only silly question is the question not asked."

JUSTICE

The military leader gives reward and punishment according to the merits of the case in question. Impartiality is necessary in all situations requiring a judgment. Prejudice of any kind cannot be accepted. Each decision made by a leader is a test of fairness which is observed by subordinates and superiors alike. A careless mistake can destroy a reputation of fairness that took months to establish. When confronted with a situation requiring justice, the leader must be fair, consistent, and prompt. In instances involving discipline, individual consideration must be given in each case. Although cases may appear similar, no two are exactly alike. The persons, situation, and circumstances are peculiar to each case. In some situations, mass punishment may appear to be the answer. Even in the case where guilt is obvious in each member of the group, they should still be dealt with singly.

Justice also has a positive effect in the form of awards and decorations. The effective leader does not fail to recognize subordinates who are worthy of commendation or award. The leader who uses nothing but punishment will destroy his unit's morale. Additionally, the leader who establishes favorites is just as destructive to unit morale as the one who only punishes.

KNOWLEDGE

The leader should develop a program of learning to keep himself abreast of current developments in his military specialty, command policies, and his local and world communities. Field manuals, training directives, after-action reports, Department of the Army reading lists, magazines, newspapers, and periodicals are valuable aids towards this goal. Serious discussion, research, and experience also contribute to broadening the leader's knowledge.

LOYALTY

Loyalty is the quality of faithfulness to country, the Army, seniors, subordinates, and peers. The confidence and respect that can be gained from superiors and subordinates is immeasurable. Conversely, the damage resulting from a lack of loyalty is immeasurable. A leader's reputation spreads far and wide when

it is based on his actions to protect his subordinates from abuse. Yet, that same leader can lose that respect by discussing a subordinate's personal problem about which he has learned during a counseling session. Loyalty to a commander is often erroneously viewed as indicative of being a "Yes Man." Total agreement with every order is seldom experienced throughout a military career. The good leader does not allow his personal opinion to interfere with his mission, nor does he give the impression of disagreement with orders when relaying them to his men. He views his orders as his superior's method of dealing with the situation, and supports them wholeheartedly. As a leader, it is important to have every action reflect loyalty to subordinates, the unit, superiors, the Army, and to the United States.

TACT

Tact is the ability to deal with others in a respectful manner. The leader who displays tact



Tact!

in dealing with superiors and subordinates encourages courteous treatment in return. Usually this practice is not difficult. During conditions of stress or when delivering criticism to a subordinate, the use of tact becomes more challenging. To demand courtesy and to fail to return it indicates lack of respect. The inexperienced leader sometimes feels politeness in the military implies softness. Unfortunately, some men wrongly consider courtesy to a superior as "brown nosing" or "bootlicking." Usually a calm, courteous, firm approach will bring cooperative response without creating ill feeling. Abrupt and forceful orders may be desirable in emergencies because of time saved and the seriousness of the situation. There are other situations that require forcefulness of tone and action, but even then there is no reason for discourtesy.

UNSELFISHNESS

The unselfish leader is one who avoids providing for his own comfort and personal advancement at the expense of others. The comfort, pleasure, and recreation of subordinates should be placed before that of leaders. It is difficult to respect a leader who seeks his own comfort over that of his men or who hoards credit for achievement made possible by subordinates. The true leader places himself last in priority and shares the dangers and hardships with his men.

The fourteen traits alone mean little unless applied in an effective manner. The principles of leadership can assist in this application.

The principles have stood the test of time and have guided the conduct and action of successful leaders of the past. Throughout history, these have, in varying degrees, influenced the actions of every successful leader. The fact that every leader has not always made full use of each one of these principles does not make them any less valid. Although their application may vary with the situation, a leader who disregards them risks failure. These guidelines are the principles of leadership:

1. Know yourself and seek self-improvement.
2. Be technically and tactically proficient.
3. Seek responsibility and take responsibility for your actions.
4. Make sound and timely decisions.
5. Set the example.
6. Know your men and look out for their welfare.

7. Keep your men informed.

8. Develop a sense of responsibility in your subordinates.

9. Insure that the task is understood, supervised, and accomplished.

10. Train your men as a team.

11. Employ your unit in accordance with its capabilities.

Studies conducted in 1970 by the United States Army War College and the Continental Army Command Leadership Board set out to determine, as one of their goals, what type of leadership would be appropriate and effective for the Army of today as well as for the Army of the future. One of the major topics examined and evaluated was the principles of leadership. Findings of these studies showed dramatically that the Army's time-honored principles of leadership are considered appropriate today and for the future by leaders and followers at every level. The findings of these studies also indicate that most leadership deficiencies result simply from failure to apply these principles properly.

The principles of leadership guide all leaders. This guidance is not new. It is based on a common-sense approach to accomplishing the

Know Yourself..

Seek self-improvement



SOLICIT, WHEN APPROPRIATE, THE HONEST OPINIONS OF YOUR CONTEMPORARIES AND SUPERIORS AS TO HOW YOU CAN IMPROVE YOUR LEADERSHIP ABILITY....

mission. If the leader understands the principles and recognizes the necessity for a working knowledge of human behavior in order to apply

these principles, he will have the basic tools to be an effective leader.

Although the principles are still valid, their use requires reexamination by each leader so that he may best apply them and because some principles have added significance due to the nature of today's soldier.

Know Yourself and Seek Self-improvement

Honest self-evaluation to determine his own strengths and weaknesses is of paramount importance to a leader. Through this process he can determine his capabilities and limitations. Additionally, through knowledge of himself, combined with his knowledge of individual and group behavior, the leader is able to evaluate how his actions and behavior affect his subordinates and their behavior. This process also gives a leader knowledge necessary to further develop his strengths and strengthen his weaknesses.

Some techniques for applying this principle are:

a. Analyze yourself objectively to determine your strong and weak personal qualities. Strive to overcome the weak ones and further strengthen those in which you are strong.

b. Solicit, when appropriate, the honest opinions of your contemporaries or superiors as to how you can improve your leadership ability.

c. Profit by studying the causes for the success or failure of other leaders, past and present.

d. Develop a genuine interest in people; acquire the human touch.

e. Master the art of effective writing and speaking.

f. Cultivate friendly relations with members of the other arms and services and with civilians.

g. Develop a philosophy of life and of work. Have a definite goal and plan to attain it.

Be Technically and Tactically Proficient.

A leader must demonstrate to his men that he is well qualified to lead his unit. He must be competent in combat operations and training as well as in the technical and administrative aspects of his duties. Today's soldier expects answers to his questions. Rank and position alone will not automatically gain his respect and confidence. The leader must demonstrate

his proficiency to get his men's respect and confidence. If the leader is deficient in carrying out his duties, his men will lose confidence in his ability and in the effectiveness of their unit.

The application of this principle can be enhanced through the use of these techniques:

a. Seek a well-rounded military education by supplementing attendance at service schools with independent reading, research, and study.

b. Seek out and foster association with capable leaders. Observe and study their actions.

c. Broaden your knowledge through association with members of other arms and services.

d. Seek opportunities to apply knowledge through the exercise of command. Good leadership is acquired only through practice.

e. Keep abreast of current military developments.

f. By study and through frequent contact with subordinates, familiarize yourself with the capabilities and limitations of all elements of your command.

g. Prepare yourself for the job of leader at the next higher echelon.

h. Learn and apply sound leadership and management principles and techniques.

Seek Responsibility and Take Responsibility for Your Actions

LEADERSHIP PRINCIPLES

**Seek Responsibility!
Take Responsibility
for your actions..**



CAREFULLY EVALUATE A
SUBORDINATE'S FAILURE...
MAKE SURE HIS SHORTCOMINGS
ARE NOT DUE TO AN ERROR
ON YOUR PART...
SALVAGE THE MAN WHEN
POSSIBLE...
REPLACE HIM WHEN
NECESSARY!!

Armed with the knowledge gained from honest self-evaluation and with the sound technical and tactical foundation required to perform his job, the leader must take the initiative to accomplish his unit's mission. By seeking responsibility, he develops himself professionally and increases his leadership ability. Accepting responsibility for all that his unit does or fails to do is part of the leader's job. In the absence of orders, seizing the initiative and taking the necessary action based on personal judgment and experience will aid in accomplishment of the mission. Constant study, training, and proper planning will lay the groundwork for the competence necessary for the sound and timely decisions which form the basis for the leader's actions.

These techniques may be used to assist in applying this principle:

- a. Learn the duties of your immediate senior and be prepared to accept his responsibilities.
- b. Seek diversified leadership positions that will give you experience in accepting responsibility.
- c. Take every opportunity that offers increased responsibility.
- d. Perform every act, large or small, to the best of your ability. Your reward will be increased opportunity to perform bigger and more important tasks.
- e. Accept just criticism and admit mistakes.
- f. Adhere to what you think is right; have the courage of your convictions.
- g. Carefully evaluate a subordinate's failure before taking action. Make sure his apparent shortcomings are not due to an error on your part. Consider the manpower available, salvage a man if possible, and replace him when necessary.
- h. In the absence of orders, seize the initiative and take the action you believe your senior would direct if he were present.

Make Sound and Timely Decisions.

The leader must be able to make a rapid estimate of the situation and arrive at a sound decision. He must be able to reason under the most trying conditions and decide quickly what action is necessary to take advantage of opportunities as they occur. The indecisive leader is unable to employ his unit well. He also creates hesitancy, loss of confidence, and confusion within his unit. When circumstances dictate a change of plans, prompt reaction builds the men's confidence in their leader.

The following techniques can assist the leader in the application of this principle:

- a. Develop a logical and orderly thought process by constant practice in making objective estimates of the situation.
- b. When time and the situation permit, plan for every possible event that reasonably can be foreseen.
- c. Consider the advice and suggestions of your subordinates when possible before making decisions.
- d. Announce decisions in time to allow subordinates to make necessary plans.
- e. Encourage concurrent estimates and planning in your unit.
- f. Make sure your men are familiar with your policies and plans.
- g. Consider the effects of your decisions on all members of your unit.

Set the Example

A leader must be a good example for his men in integrity, courage, administrative knowledge, professional competence, personal appearance, and personal conduct. Moreover, he must set the

Set the example!



personal and professional standards for his organization by his performance. If he appears in an unfavorable light, the mutual confidence and respect that must exist between himself and his men may be destroyed.

Some techniques for the application of this principle are:

- a. Be physically fit, well groomed, and correctly dressed.
- b. Master your emotions. The leader who is subject to uncontrolled bursts of anger or to periods of depression will be less effective as a leader.
- c. Maintain an optimistic outlook. Develop the will to win by capitalizing on your unit's capabilities. The more difficult the situation, the more you must display an attitude of calmness and confidence.
- d. Conduct yourself so that your personal habits are not open to censure.
- e. Exercise initiative and promote the spirit of initiative in your subordinates.
- f. Be loyal to your seniors *and* subordinates. Support the lawful policies of senior officers whether you personally agree with them or not. Loyalty is a two-way street.
- g. Avoid being partial to any subordinate.
- h. Be morally courageous. Establish principles and stand by them.
- i. Share danger and hardship with your men to demonstrate your willingness to assume your share of the difficulties.
- j. By your performance, develop conviction within your men that you are the best man for the position you hold.
- k. Delegate responsibility and authority and avoid oversupervision in order to develop leadership among subordinates.
- l. Strive for professional competence.

Know Your Men and Look out for Their Welfare

Of equal importance to understanding himself is the requirement for the leader to know and understand his men. It is not enough just to know their names, marital status, hometown, and other such data. The leader must understand what makes his men tick—their values, ideals, attitudes. In short, he must know why they act as they do. The leader must therefore observe, become personally acquainted with, and recognize his men as individuals who have

Know Your men and look out for their welfare



different backgrounds and different personalities. Each leader must have a knowledge of individual and group behavior, because without such knowledge he cannot understand the "why" of his men's actions.

Your men's desires to satisfy their own physical and learned needs is the basis for their behavior. Whether or not they put forth their best efforts in the performance of duty depends on the satisfaction of these needs. If you know your men and provide for their physical needs (e.g., food, water, shelter) and help them to satisfy their learned needs (e.g., safety, belonging, esteem, self-fulfillment), you will foster individual productivity and unit proficiency. When men know you are concerned with their welfare, they will have an attitude which enables them to accomplish their unit's goals.

By using these techniques, the leader can improve his application of this principle:

- a. See the members of your command and let them see you; be friendly and approachable.
- b. Develop a knowledge and understanding of your subordinates.
- c. Concern yourself with the living conditions of the members of your unit.
- d. Help your men get needed support from available personal services.

e. Provide for the spiritual welfare of your command by supporting religious activities.

f. Protect the health of your unit by active supervision of hygiene and sanitation.

g. Support actively a safety program.

h. Determine what your unit's mental attitude is.

i. Administer justice timely, fairly, and impartially.

j. Insure fair and equitable distribution of rewards.

k. Encourage individual development.

l. Provide sufficient athletic and recreational facilities and supplies and insure that your unit is receiving its share of quotas for recreation areas and entertainment benefits.

m. Share the hardships of your men so you can better understand their reactions.

Keep Your Men Informed.

This will encourage initiative, improve teamwork, and enhance morale. In the past, soldiers did not expect to be told why they were required to perform tasks. They accepted the fact that their leaders deemed it necessary and they performed as required. Today's soldier, however, has grown up in a society whose widespread communications media gives him added knowledge and an awareness of what goes on around him. Moreover, he has been taught in school to look for the logic in things, to think for himself, and to question things which do not make sense to him. Therefore, he expects to be kept informed and, when possible, given the reason for a particular requirement. Otherwise, he may become frustrated and will not perform well. The well-informed soldier has a better attitude toward the leader and the unit and will therefore be a better soldier. Additionally, subordinate leaders are kept abreast of the situation and, in your absence, will be able to make similar decisions based on the same reasoning. Because he understands the mission and his role in its accomplishment, he can establish a personal goal which is related to the organizational goal and adjust his behavior accordingly. However, a leader will not be able to give his men the reasons for every task because he may not know them or there may not be time to explain. If the men understand that their leader will, when feasible, explain the logic or reasons behind each requirement, they will be conditioned to react accordingly. If they have respect and confidence in their leader, soldiers will accept a number of tasks without knowing why. In combat, men expect to be told what to do

without delay for explanations. Another reason for keeping your men informed is that soldiers usually fear the unknown. By keeping them informed, you will reduce fear and rumors.

Some techniques for applying this principle are:

a. Explain why tasks must be done and how you propose to do them whenever possible.

b. Assure yourself by frequent inspections that immediate subordinates are transmitting necessary information to the men.

c. Be alert to detect the spread of rumors. Stop rumors by replacing them with the truth.

d. Build morale and esprit de corps by publicizing information concerning successes of your unit.

e. Keep your unit informed about current legislation and regulations affecting their pay, promotion, privileges, and other benefits.

Develop a Sense of Responsibility in Your Subordinates.

Another way to show your men that you are interested in their welfare is to give them the opportunity for professional development. Delegation of authority commensurate with responsibility develops mutual confidence and respect between the leader and his subordinates. It also encourages the subordinate to exercise initiative and to give his wholehearted cooperation in the accomplishment of unit tasks. The leader who properly delegates authority demonstrates faith in his subordinates and increases their desire for greater responsibilities. Failure to delegate authority indicates a lack of leadership.

Some techniques for applying this principle are:

a. Operate through the chain of command.

b. Tell your subordinates what to do, not how to do it. Hold them responsible for results.

c. Give your men frequent opportunities to perform duties of the next higher echelon.

d. Be quick to recognize your subordinate's accomplishments when they demonstrate initiative and resourcefulness.

e. Correct errors in the use of judgment and initiative in such a way as to encourage the man. Avoid public criticism or condemnation.

f. Give advice and assistance freely when it is requested by your subordinates.

g. Let your men know that you will accept honest errors without recrimination.

h. Assign your men to positions in accordance with demonstrated or potential ability.

i. Be prompt and fair in backing subordinates. Until convinced otherwise, have faith in each subordinate.

j. Accept responsibility willingly and insist that your subordinates live by the same standard.



Insure that the Task Is Understood, Supervised, and Accomplished

Your men must know what is expected of them and must be informed of specific task requirements through clear, concise orders. Be sure that you are understood by communicating with your subordinates. Men respond quickly to orders which are clear and concise. Do not overstate an order by giving too many details. Subordinates resent oversupervision and harassment. Initiative is developed in men when they can develop their own techniques for performing tasks. However, troops should understand that their leader is available for advice and counsel. The leader must also insure that the orders are properly executed by either checking personally or by using his chain of command.

To apply this principle, use these techniques:

a. Be sure the need for an order exists.



Train Your men as a team!

b. Use the established chain of command.

c. Through study and practice, develop the ability to think clearly and issue clear, concise, positive orders.

d. Encourage subordinates to seek immediate clarification of any point in your orders or directives they do not understand.

e. Question your men to determine if there is any doubt or misunderstanding as to the task to be accomplished.

f. Supervise the execution of your orders.

g. Make available those resources your men need to accomplish their mission.

h. Vary your supervisory routine and the points which you emphasize during inspections.

i. Exercise care and thought in supervision. Oversupervision stifles initiative and creates resentment; undersupervision will not get the job done.

Train Your Men as a Team

Issuing clear, concise orders and checking on their execution is only part of being a successful leader. Your men must be well trained if they are to accomplish any mission. It is the leader's duty to train the members of his unit so that they will be tactically and technically pro-



Employ Your Unit in Accordance with Its Capabilities!

ficient, and so that they work as a team. Teamwork is a key to mission accomplishment. It starts in the smallest unit and carries through to the largest organization. Each man must understand that his contribution to the unit's operations is important and recognized.

Since task accomplishment is based on teamwork, it is evident that the better the teamwork, the better the tasks will be performed. Furthermore, members of a unit will perform better if they have a sense of belonging and team spirit. As in football, if the team is "up" for the game, they can often defeat a superior team. So it is with soldiers. If the unit spirit is "up," they can often accomplish extremely difficult tasks. It's a two-way street—the unit gives its members a feeling of accomplishment, security, and recognition; and, in turn, the member gives his best for the unit.

Some methods of applying this principle are:

- a. Provide the best available facilities for team training and make maximum use of communications exercises and realistic tactical problems.
- b. Insure that all training is meaningful and its purpose is clear to all members of the command.

- c. Acquaint each element of your unit with the capabilities and limitations of all other elements, thereby developing mutual trust and understanding.

- d. Insure that each subordinate leader understands the mechanics of tactical control for his unit.

- e. Base team training on current and probable realistic conditions.

- f. Insist that each leader knows the functions of those with whom he habitually operates.

- g. Insure that each subordinate leader knows and understands his men.

- h. Seek opportunities to train with other units, both combat and service.

- i. Explain to each man his responsibilities and the importance of his role in the effectiveness of the unit.

Employ Your Unit in Accordance With Its Capabilities

Good training prepares a unit for its job. The leader must know what his unit is trained to do, as well as its capabilities. He must employ the unit within its capabilities. Men get satisfaction from performing tasks which are reasonable but challenging, but become dissatisfied if they are given tasks which they consider too easy or too difficult to accomplish. The leader must exercise sound judgment in employing his unit because each time the unit fails, it causes his men to lose confidence in him as a leader. In time, this will lower morale, esprit de corps, discipline, and proficiency.

To help yourself in the application of this principle:

- a. Keep yourself informed as to the relative operational effectiveness of your command.
- b. Be sure that tasks assigned to subordinates are reasonable. Do not hesitate to demand their utmost in an emergency.
- c. Analyze all assigned tasks. If the means at your disposal are inadequate, inform your immediate commander and request the necessary support.
- d. Assign tasks equitably among the elements of your unit.
- e. Use the full capabilities of your unit before requesting assistance.
- f. Make decisions in light of sound leadership and management principles.

SUMMARY

The traits and principles of leadership are not in themselves the solution to good leadership. They can, however, help the leader because they present desirable personal qualities and common-sense guidelines for use in his relationships with his men.

In addition to the traits and principles of leadership, there are guides which relate to personal standards of behavior and conduct and which are of equal importance. These are called ethics. We will discuss ethical behavior in the next chapter.



Professionalism and Ethics!

A military professional is a man who has undergone special preparation and training. He has the knowledge on which professional soldiers are based and the ability to apply this knowledge in a practical way. Furthermore, the professional leader knows the principles of leadership and how to apply these to his unit's advantage. He accepts the service nature of his work. His profession is a matter of earning a living, but wages do not become the primary purpose of his work.

Why is professionalism important in the military?

There are two significant reasons why professionalism is important in the military. First, the military leader is a public servant responsible for defense of the nation. Second, the military organization is often responsible for the life of its soldiers. In combat, a leader may have to take risks which endanger the lives of his men in order to accomplish a mission. Hopefully, however, these risks will be carefully eval-

CHAPTER 3



Professionalism and Ethics!

A military professional is a man who has undergone special preparation and training. He has the knowledge on which professional actions are based and the ability to apply this knowledge in a practical way. Furthermore, the professional leader knows the principles of leadership and how to apply them to his unit's advantage. He accepts the service motive of his work. His profession is a means of earning a living, but wages do not become the primary purpose of his work.

Why is professionalism important in the military?

There are two significant reasons why professionalism is important in the military. First, the military leader is a public servant responsible for defense of the nation. Second, the military organization is often responsible for the life of its soldiers. In combat, a leader may have to take risks which endanger the lives of his men in order to accomplish a mission. Hopefully, however, these risks will be carefully eval-



uated and the planning and execution will exploit all available resources. If the leader is careless in carrying out his responsibilities, his unit may suffer needless casualties.

The military leader is trained to use special skills, perform an essential service which the civilian public needs, and follow a code of ethics. Military men have certain common characteristics. Included among these are military skills, military bearing, self-discipline, and a cosmopolitan view of world affairs developed through diverse military assignments.

Because of the nature of the work and its inherent responsibilities, there is a great need for the development and maintenance of high standards of conduct among the members of this profession. This standard or code of conduct applies to the soldiers' responsibilities and relationship to the citizenry and the community as well as to their relationships to each other within the organization.

How to become a professional?

Three attributes of military professionalism are technical competence, values/attitudes, and ethical conduct. Each is important to the leader. Most of the training which men get in the Army is directed toward improving their technical competence. The development of values and atti-

tudes is discussed later in chapter 6. The subject of ethics is discussed in this chapter.

Ethics.

"Ethics" is generally used interchangeably with "morality" and has been described as the science that deals with conduct insofar as this is considered right or wrong, good or bad. Webster defines ethics as "the principles of conduct governing an individual, profession, or group."

What is the role of ethics in society?

Based on the definition of ethics, it is obvious that ethics has something to do with the establishment of guidelines for living. These guidelines are simply basic functional rules that a society must adopt over a period of time for its survival. For example, through choice or necessity, any time two or more soldiers interact to accomplish a task or mission, there must be an agreement as to how common functions should be performed. If there were no agreement, the squad, platoon, or company would not be a cohesive unit, but would consist of individuals and exist at an "every man for himself" level.

How are ethical standards set?

In any organization, an ethical code which will best insure the accomplishment of organizational goals is established. The ideology of the organization partially determines the degree of participation its members have in the formulation of this code. For example, within the society of the United States, the people have

ethical codes

...HAVE ALWAYS BEEN NECESSARY FOR MEN TO BE ABLE TO LIVE WITH ONE ANOTHER...



determined their ethical code through government, their religion, and the culture and traditions of the country. An organization within the overall society, such as the Army, will usually establish an ethical code within the society's code. The code which results serves as a guideline for developing the cooperation necessary to do things that require the efficient interaction of two or more persons.

The military code of ethics.

The Army does not have a specific code written as one document. Its code or the "military ethic" exists in many forms and documents. It is primarily a continuation of the unwritten ethical practices accepted and advocated by our society and supported by our legal system. In its written form it exists in such documents as:

1. The oath of office of allegiance.
2. The Uniform Code of Military Justice.
3. The Code of Conduct.
4. The Code of Ethics for Government Service.

ice.

We all find times when such things as personal ambition, convenience, avarice, and our prejudices conflict with what we know is ethical behavior. It takes great strength of character and personal integrity to live by a code of conduct which is completely ethical. However, we are fortunate in that most of our leaders do. Those men are recognized and respected for their ethical practices. Their followers gain confidence in the knowledge that their leaders can be trusted and depended on to do the right thing. This enhances the leader's ability to lead by setting a good example and by engendering mutual confidence and trust which promotes teamwork and "esprit."

By practicing the ethics these publications prescribe, the leader gains a sense of ethical conduct, a certain pride and dignity in himself and his profession. This code is the starting point in the leader's dedication to his military profession. He could be a good leader and still use means that are ethically wrong in carrying out his mission. In leadership, intentions are not enough. The desire and the need to obey orders cannot replace principle. In other words, "The end does not always justify the means."

What is the relationship of ethical code to actual behavior?

These guidelines are stated in terms of the ideal

way to do something and as such cannot be achieved all of the time. In fact, for various reasons, seldom will the ideal be achieved. Therefore, we have to distinguish between the ideal and actual behavior of persons. There are many reasons for failure in the battle to live up to the ethical code: to work at a job for a big salary and little personal satisfaction; to tell everyone that all races are equal, but not permit your children to play with a boy of a different colored skin; and to buy a houseful of furniture now, but not carefully plan monthly payments, are only a few examples of ethical codes in conflict. There is a difference between the ideal behavior as expressed in the ethical code and the actual behavior that occurs. Although the ideals of an ethical code are seldom achieved, leaders must strive to reach those ideals to insure efficient leadership and ultimately, perhaps, the survival of their men.

Why should the leader be concerned about ethics?

During the Vietnam conflict, stories were televised over national newscasts and printed in many of our newspapers which emphasized alleged misconduct and unethical practices of several high-ranking officers and noncommissioned officers. This bad publicity has caused many American citizens to wonder whether our military profession has any ethical standards or professional codes to guide our conduct. Even though news editors and newscasters often stress the sensational because that attracts attention, the fact remains that some military professionals do face the temptation to bend or to break the military professional standards. That old cliché, "The end justifies the means," could provide every leader with a ready excuse for doing something questionable, things which, if leaders really examined them critically, would not measure up very well against their professional code.

The leader's concern, however, is not to look into the obvious mistakes and misconduct of those who made the headlines. He must learn the basic principles which will guide him throughout the military service. He should also help to maintain the ethical standards of the military profession through his conduct and that of the men whom he leads. One unwritten rule in the military fraternity has been that the soldiers will emulate the behavior and standards of their leaders. Therefore, the leader must have definite professional standards and ethics.

SUMMARY

Professionalism must be the heart of every military leader. The importance of a full understanding and appreciation of the ethical code, which is a significant part of the professionalism, is clear when one considers the role of ethics in establishing the basic frame of reference for guiding the actions of all members of the Army.

Why should the leader be concerned with ethics? During the Vietnam conflict, ethics were tolerated over national concerns and resulted in many of our resources which contained skilled, high-ranking officers and noncommissioned officers. The high-ranking non-commissioned officers were the backbone of the military. They were the ones who were the backbone of the military. They were the ones who were the backbone of the military. They were the ones who were the backbone of the military.

Why should the leader be concerned with ethics? During the Vietnam conflict, ethics were tolerated over national concerns and resulted in many of our resources which contained skilled, high-ranking officers and noncommissioned officers. The high-ranking non-commissioned officers were the backbone of the military. They were the ones who were the backbone of the military. They were the ones who were the backbone of the military.

Why should the leader be concerned with ethics? During the Vietnam conflict, ethics were tolerated over national concerns and resulted in many of our resources which contained skilled, high-ranking officers and noncommissioned officers. The high-ranking non-commissioned officers were the backbone of the military. They were the ones who were the backbone of the military. They were the ones who were the backbone of the military.

The Army does not have a specific code written into its laws, regulations, and orders. The Army does not have a specific code written into its laws, regulations, and orders. The Army does not have a specific code written into its laws, regulations, and orders.

The Army does not have a specific code written into its laws, regulations, and orders. The Army does not have a specific code written into its laws, regulations, and orders. The Army does not have a specific code written into its laws, regulations, and orders.

The Army does not have a specific code written into its laws, regulations, and orders. The Army does not have a specific code written into its laws, regulations, and orders. The Army does not have a specific code written into its laws, regulations, and orders.

The Army does not have a specific code written into its laws, regulations, and orders. The Army does not have a specific code written into its laws, regulations, and orders. The Army does not have a specific code written into its laws, regulations, and orders.

CHAPTER 4



discipline!

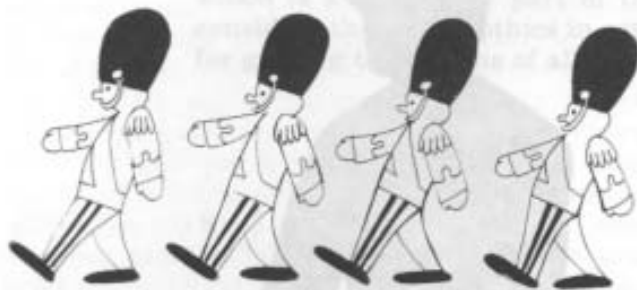
A fundamental requirement in military operations is a unified effort based on the coordinated activities of men and units. The achievement of this unified effort depends directly on the degree of discipline in the unit.

Discipline, A Closer Look.

Over the years the term discipline has acquired at least three meanings—punishment, obedience, and self-control. The first meaning, punishment, is frequently used when a soldier violates a policy or regulation. He may be informed that he will be disciplined for his actions. Secondly, discipline seems to suggest

complete and total obedience to the orders of superiors. The most striking characteristic of this type of military discipline is the consistent and unwavering compliance with duty demanded of all troops. Yet, under closer examination, the most constructive form of discipline involves something more than either punishment or unquestioning obedience. This leads to the third and highest concept of discipline which involves self-control and a sense of personal responsibility that goes beyond the threat of punishment or mere obedience. It is this third concept of discipline with which this chapter is concerned.

discipline!!!



Frequently, the root meaning of a word best explains the word's meaning. In Latin, "to discipline" means "to learn" or "to teach." Army leaders must learn and teach standards of personal behavior, job performance, courtesy, appearance, and ethical conduct which will increase the willingness of their men to perform their jobs efficiently.

Military discipline is similar to the discipline of a football team in that it satisfies both the needs of the men and the requirements for an effective organization. There are two great differences, however, between the discipline required in the Army and that required in any other organization. First, unlike his civilian counterpart, if the soldier objects, he cannot



... A SOLDIER IS NOT FREE TO PICK AND CHOOSE THE ORDERS HE IS GOING TO OBEY!!

simply quit. Second, in order that an Army may function even when riddled with casualties, the actions of its men must be regulated beyond that required in other organizations.

Discipline is the individual or group attitude that insures prompt obedience to orders and initiation of appropriate actions in the absence of orders. Discipline is an internal attitude that motivates men to conform to the informal and formal requirements of their leaders and the service. It is a state of mind that produces a readiness for willing and intelligent obedience and for proper conduct. Discipline insures stability under stress; it is prerequisite for predictable performance.

Self-Discipline, A Critical Factor.

Self-discipline is a voluntary compliance with directives and regulations of leaders whose requirements are established in the interests of the organization. Thus, self-discipline is a condition that exists when a man accepts organizational control over his behavior. Self-discipline then insures that each man can be relied upon to act in accordance with the needs of his unit rather than personal ones, particularly in dangerous or stressful situations where personal needs would otherwise be expected to dominate.

The requirement for self-discipline is not peculiar to any member of the Army or to any level. Each soldier, regardless of rank or position, must be a "self-regulating" person who shares a common concept of proper conduct.

Obviously, not every man is willing to conform to a prescribed way of behaving for the same reason. There are two types of behavior which are disciplined, but for different reasons. In both types, compliance is obtained. However, in one type discipline is obtained because the person accepts the necessity for the requirement and is committed to placing the needs of the unit before his own needs. Under this condition, compliance can be expected. In the other type, the soldier acts because he fears that which may happen if he fails to act. He does not have any personal commitment to the accomplishment of the unit's task or mission. The soldier obeys merely to escape punishment.

Therefore, the responsibility of all members of the chain of command is to instill in every man the principle of acting in the best interest of the unit.

The Climate of Discipline.

Discipline is a composite of many things. Before discipline can be attained, a climate for learning discipline must be created. This climate of discipline is a function of morale, esprit de corps, and open communication channels so that the soldier can communicate upward and receive accurate communications from above. It is also a function of reasonable rules and regulations and of the way the soldier views those rules and regulations. Creating this climate of discipline in a unit is a time-consuming and continuing task—but a necessary one.

The best way to look at this is to realize that discipline is a learned attitude. A soldier will learn to perform well and to behave well if he is rewarded for his good performance and good behavior. The reward does not have to be something given to a soldier; it may be just the self-satisfaction associated with the successful completion of a task. Orders with personally satisfying results for the soldier or obvious success for the unit reinforce what we have told him. He, therefore, learns that obedience to orders is good for both himself and the unit. Conversely, if he receives orders which are personally dissatisfying over a long period of time, he may tend to resist those orders, and unit discipline may be undermined. Even in combat, the soldier learns to obey if he realizes that obeying his leader results in the accomplishment of a task with minimum losses. If, on the other hand, every time his unit goes into a fight it is soundly defeated, the soldier loses confidence in his leaders and he begins to question orders.

Orders must also appear reasonable to the soldiers. For an order to appear reasonable, communication and understanding in the unit must be good. An order will not be viewed as reasonable if it becomes garbled through transmission. Orders must have an explainable and logical foundation and the leader must have gained the trust and confidence of his men based on his past performance.

There will be certain tasks that cannot be readily explained. This is not to say that the leader should do away with all requirements that cannot be clearly and logically explained, but he must realize that he may have to accept a measure of dissatisfaction among the soldiers when he enforces this type order. The leader alone must decide whether the action is worth the resultant dissatisfaction or not. If he has established a leadership climate wherein his subordinates accept what he does as being logi-

cal and rational; and if the soldier has learned that satisfying results usually occur, he will accept requirements which he personally might not like. We will discuss this in more detail in chapter 5.

Orders must be Rational!



In addition to satisfying needs and being reasonable, developing a climate of discipline requires consistency in enforcing rules and regulations. Any man who purposely disobeys an order should be punished. If he is not punished, he assumes that what he did was acceptable. He is likely to disobey again. The results for the soldier who is not corrected for failing to salute an officer are often personally satisfying. If he purposely does not salute an officer and is not corrected his undisciplined behavior is reinforced and he is likely to repeat it. Organizational standards and rules must be rational, understandable, and consistently enforced. Even though some regulations and policies are not obviously rational to subordinates, the leader must see that they are also consistently enforced. For example, a common practice in combat is to carry machinegun ammunition in bandolier fashion, draped across the men's shoulders. Soldiers carry the ammunition this way because it is easier to carry it this way than in the ammunition boxes and it is more accessible when needed. If a leader tries to change this way of carrying machinegun ammunition, he will find that his policy does not appear reasonable to many of his men. How-

Create a climate of discipline!



ever, he must insure that they comply with his policy, at first, for no other reason than that it is his policy. Additionally and equally important, the leader must convince his men that by carrying it in boxes the ammunition remains clean, rounds are not subject to being knocked out of alignment, the lubrication will not be wiped off, and the gun can be supplied with ammunition just as quickly by carrying it in boxes.

Dissatisfaction among soldiers is often exhibited by hostility toward the leader, the unit, and the Army. This hostility tends to be a vague, generalized attitude. When a soldier must carry out an order which he doesn't like, he is angry, not only at the leader, but at the Army as a whole. Therefore, the leader must strive to keep the level of dissatisfaction to a minimum.

Discipline Development.

Some conditions which foster a climate of discipline are:

1. Clearly stated and enforceable personal standards.
2. High performance standards.
3. Loyalty to superiors and subordinates.
4. Competitive activities.

5. Tough, stressful training.

6. Open channels of communication.

7. Reduction of troop frustrations. (Eliminate the little things that irritate and frustrate soldiers.)

8. Analysis of current rules and policies to update and eliminate those no longer productive.

9. Fair and just system of rewards and punishments.

The level of discipline in any unit is, in part, what the leaders make it. The purpose of regulations is to set a standard of personal conduct and work performance for the Army. Training schedules, operational directives, and other work programs serve the same end. There is still a broad area in which the influence of the leaders is brought to bear. Telling subordinates what to do is only the beginning. The leader must then see that the job is done. The rules of conduct may be laid down by the leader, the other men within the unit, and regulations; however, the leader alone must stimulate his men's acceptance of orderly military habits and set the tone for their performance. In other words, a training schedule may require that certain tasks be carried out, but only the leader can assure that the work will be done with faithful devotion to duty.

Maintenance of Discipline.

Building discipline in a unit is similar to constructing a large office building. When the structure is finished, the work is not completed—continuous maintenance is needed. So it is with discipline. Continuous maintenance must be performed on the elements that make up the climate of discipline. Continuous observation of these elements helps the leader determine where the maintenance is required.

Developing junior leaders must not be overlooked. Continual training of junior leaders is essential to insure that they know what discipline is, why it is important, how it is achieved and maintained, and how the degree of discipline in a unit is determined.

There are numerous indications of the degree of discipline that a unit or a soldier exhibits. Level of performance; conduct on and off duty; standards of dress, bearing, and cleanliness; and the responsiveness to orders are all indicative of the state of discipline in a unit. These are outward manifestations of that unit's dis-

cipline built on esprit, morale, and training. They portray those qualities of pride, initiative, self-reliance, self-control, and dependability that help create an effective unit.

After considering all the building and maintenance aspects of discipline, we still have the problem of what to do with the man who fails to respond to our leadership and disregards our clear and rational orders. When this happens, the leader should apply fair and impartial punishment. Pampering men or abusing them will not get them to perform well consistently. A good leader who understands and cares for his men, and who has the courage to administer appropriate justice when necessary can get consistent satisfactory performance. When a man does not respond to proper leadership, swift, decisive, appropriate military punishment should be administered. The soldiers who do

meet the standards expect violators to be punished.

Some leaders use such techniques as make-work, extra details, and withholding of privileges without using proper judicial or nonjudicial procedures to punish those who violate the standards of good discipline. These mental and physical abuses are often conducted under the guise of enforcing discipline. Soldiers resent and object to any infringement on their rights or dignity. The Army does not advocate permissiveness or leniency toward breaches in discipline. When violations occur, they must be dealt with promptly.

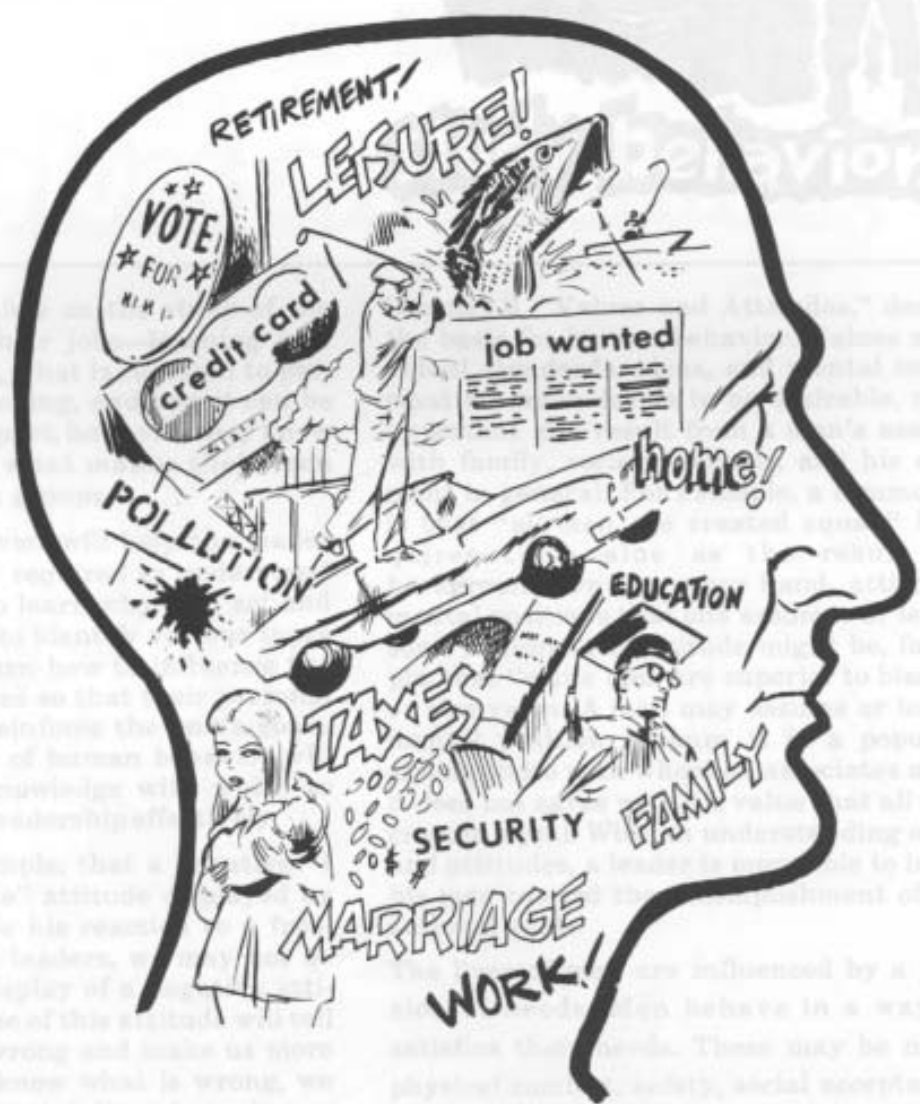
The Army has the right to expect disciplined responses from its soldiers, and its soldiers in turn have the right to expect consideration for their individuality and self-respect from the Army.

SUMMARY

Discipline represents the ultimate product of good leadership in developing group solidarity, esprit, motivation, and skillful performance. Discipline is the individual or group attitude that insures prompt obedience to orders and initiation of appropriate actions in the absence of orders. Discipline is attained by creating a climate of discipline. This climate of discipline is established by insuring that orders are rational, that they result in individual and unit satisfaction, and that they are consistently enforced. Once established, discipline must be maintained, for without it no unit can be fully effective.

Part II

Human Behavior!



CHAPTER 5



Leaders spend much time on the study of the technical aspects of their jobs—learning how their equipment works, what is required to prevent it from malfunctioning, and how it can be repaired. For the most part, however, they know or study little about what makes their men tick—individually or in groups.

Studying human behavior will help the leader acquire the knowledge required to understand himself and his men, to learn why men act and react in certain ways, to identify various types of behavior, and to learn how to influence the behavior of subordinates so that their personal goals complement or reinforce the unit's goals. In addition, the study of human behavior will give the leader the knowledge with which to apply the principles of leadership effectively.

We will learn, for example, that a negative "I don't want to cooperate" attitude displayed by one of our men may be his reaction to a frustrating experience. As leaders, we may not be able to tolerate this display of a negative attitude. Knowing the cause of this attitude will tell us that something is wrong and make us more understanding. If we know what is wrong, we may also be able to correct it or have it corrected. By eliminating the cause of the frustration, we may easily turn a negative person into a productive soldier.

Chapter 6, "Values and Attitudes," deals with the basis for human behavior. Values are individual standards, ideas, and mental images of what a person deems to be desirable, right, or important and result from a man's association with family, society, schools, and his environment in general. For example, a common value is that "all men are created equal." Man acquires this value as the result of his background. On the other hand, attitudes are mental positions that one assumes or learns for some reasons. An attitude might be, for example, that "white men are superior to black men" or vice versa. A man may assume or learn this mental position because it is a popular one among those with whom he associates although it does not agree with his value that all men are created equal. With an understanding of values and attitudes, a leader is more able to influence his men toward the accomplishment of organizational goals.

The lives of men are influenced by a progression of needs. Men behave in a way which satisfies their needs. These may be needs for physical comfort, safety, social acceptance, ego gratification, etc., moreover, one man's needs are basically the same as those of others; they simply vary in degree of importance to the man.

If we as leaders understand a man's needs and can satisfy them or help him satisfy them, we can influence his behavior to some degree. This is discussed in chapter 7.

A leader should understand how to motivate his men because through motivation, he can get the self-disciplined responses he needs from them. Motivation, this need or desire that causes a person to act, is discussed in chapter 8. A leader will have difficulty motivating his troops in the presence of "dissatisfiers"—things that keep men from being satisfied, such as poor conditions for their families or unsatisfactory working conditions for themselves. Dissatisfiers tend to divert the attention and efforts of men from their work, so their leader should identify and eliminate or reduce dissatisfiers.

In chapter 9 we discuss the frustrations and pressures to which we are all exposed at one time or another. We will consider reactions to stress, how we can adjust, and how we can assist our men to adjust to it. Failure to adjust to stress will keep a person from performing at his best, thus reducing both his and his unit's efficiency. If we are to induce men to endeavor to reach organizational goals, we must understand human behavior as associated with stress and adjustment.

We must be concerned with group behavior as well as with individual behavior. Group behavior is an extension of individual behavior. It is our job, as leaders, to direct the efforts of the group; to do this, we must understand and be able to influence individual behavior.

Chapter 6 "Values and Attitudes," deals with the basis for human behavior. Values are individual standards, ideas, and mental images of what a person deems to be desirable, right, or important and result from a man's association with family, society, schools, and his environment. For example, a common value is that "all men are created equal." Men as a group give this value as the result of his background. On the other hand, attitudes are mental positions that one assumes or learns in some manner. An attitude might be for example that "white men are superior to black men" or vice versa. A man may assume or learn this mental position because it is a popular one among those with whom he associates although it does not agree with his value that all men are created equal. With an understanding of values and attitudes, a leader is more able to influence his men toward the accomplishment of organizational goals.

The lives of men are influenced by a progression of needs. Men behave in a way which satisfies their needs. These may be needs for physical comfort, safety, social acceptance, recognition, etc.; moreover, one man's needs are basically the same as those of others; they simply vary in degree of importance to the man.

Leaders spend much time on the study of the technical aspects of their jobs—learning how their equipment works, what is required to pre-vent it from malfunctioning, and how it can be repaired. For the most part, however, they know or study little about what makes their men tick—individually or in groups.

Studying human behavior will help the leader acquire the knowledge required to understand himself and his men, to learn why men act and react in certain ways, to identify various types of behavior, and to learn how to influence the behavior of subordinates so that their personal goals complement or reinforce the unit's goals. In addition, the study of human behavior will give the leader the knowledge with which to apply the principles of leadership effectively.

We will learn, for example, that a negative "I don't want to cooperate" attitude displayed by one of our men may be his reaction to a frustrating experience. As leaders, we may not be able to tolerate this display of a negative attitude. Knowing the cause of this attitude will tell us that something is wrong and make us more understanding. If we know what is wrong, we may also be able to correct it or have it corrected. By eliminating the cause of the frustration, we may easily turn a negative person into a productive soldier.

CHAPTER 6

VALUES AND ATTITUDES

By understanding human behavior, the leader is better able to analyze, predict, and influence the behavior of his men. Chapter 3 states that the military ethic requires that each soldier accept responsibility for his actions. It also implies that living by this ethic is worthwhile.

Everyone lives according to what he feels is worthwhile, or according to his value system. A man's value system motivates his thinking and actions.

Each person develops his own value system through his experience with society. Because of

Values are learned!



the impact of differing cultures, classes, ethnic backgrounds, intelligence, family characteristics, and the like, there are many variations in what people believe and the way they behave. A mistake leaders often make is to fail to note these differences. We are quick to say, "I don't understand why he would do that!" or "I don't see why he should feel that way!" Value and attitude differences cause people to see things differently and to act or react differently. Values and attitudes are, then, two of the many factors a leader must consider in understanding human behavior.

This chapter will define values and attitudes, indicate their source and soundness, and discuss how a value system serves to shape attitudes. With a better understanding of values and attitudes, leaders will be better prepared to bring about a change in another person's thinking and acting when such a change is necessary. This understanding should also help each leader to evaluate his own values and attitudes, as well as help him become aware of the changing nature of values in our American society.

VALUES

What are values?

A value may be defined as an attitude for or against an event based on the belief that it helps or harms some person, group, or institution. Using this definition, a value is a recognizable outward display of behavior and, as such, is observable and measurable.

Values have also been called attitudes which give men the ability to determine what they believe to be worthwhile or right. Values, like needs, can have either a direct or indirect effect on views and beliefs. Additionally, values have been called learned goals which are developed beginning at the moment of birth.

What do values do?

Values are the center of man—his character. They are man's psychological center, a place which draws together his powers as the core of a magnet draws the magnet's lines of force together.

A common phrase heard often today is that society must work out a new set of values. Others are saying in response, "There's nothing wrong with the values of the past—such as love, equality, and brotherhood. We simply need to bring them back again." Because values are the basis for our beliefs and attitudes, we may become emotional regarding certain issues. These values begin early in life and develop

Value System!



throughout adulthood. People develop, process, evaluate, and place their beliefs or values in an order of importance that is beneficial to their daily existence in society. They become building blocks for each man's value system.

In many people a conflict exists between what they value mentally and what they value emotionally. There is an inconsistency of external actions and internal beliefs. An example of this is in the parent who tells her child to always stop and look both ways before crossing the street. The child may notice an inconsistency between what his mother says and what she does if she does not stop and look before crossing the street. The child notices that his mother is careless. He therefore fails to use caution himself before crossing a street. A second example is found in personal or social values. A store owner may say he believes in an issue of the racial problem. He may proclaim racial equality and brotherhood of man, but, he may refuse to employ black persons in his store and forbid his children to attend an integrated school. When confronted with this discrepancy, he will reply, "Well, I know what is right and I believe it, but I have difficulty in practicing my beliefs." Values are influenced by our fears, hatreds, loves, and friendships. Our attitude

toward others may be influenced by the doctrine of brotherly love (religious values); by direct competition on the labor market (economic values); by experiences regarding open housing (political values); by contact with others in work or social events (social values); and by the need to find scapegoats on which to blame our own insecurities and many other factors in which we are emotionally involved (personal values).

Beliefs and attitudes often overlap and interact within a person's value system. Therefore, certain values should not be too simply categorized. To identify and understand a person's values, it is necessary to understand that person. To be able to relate to social values in a particular community, a person needs to have knowledge of the people and their present views, practices, and society.

How can values be identified?

Because the subject of values is vague, a method for value identification is necessary. For better understanding, group values are divided into the following five categories: personal values, social values, economic values, and religious values.

Personal values. Each person has traits that are representative of his moral character. These may have an order of importance to him such as: honesty, responsibility, loyalty, moral courage, and friendliness. Universal values held by most young people are an interest in others, intellectual development, and self-satisfaction. Two common male values are success and prestige. Two female values are an interest in others and an appreciation of beauty. The values a person has integrated into his character are made apparent by his attitudes, beliefs, and actions.

Social values. These values may include social responsibility, loving interpersonal relationships, social consciousness, equality, justice, liberty, freedom, and pride in "our country." A social value is learned. It involves one's relationship to society and other people. These values are learned through an educational and experimental process, and involve one's relationship to society. For example, many parents teach their children right from wrong, and what goals to work toward in their lives. Social values may be divided into four classes:

Folkways—values people accept out of habit.

Mores—morality which governs values.

Institutional ways—practices set up under law.

Taboos—the emphatic do's and don'ts of a particular society.

Economic values. These values are identified through such mediums as equal employment, stable economy, balancing of supply and demand of productive goods, money, private property, pride of ownership, and taxes. Many believe that value is a commodity. An automobile, a house, or a TV set has a certain value to it. Its price or market value is an economic value. If one of our economic values is affluence, a rise in living standards will help us realize a goal based on this economic value.

Political values. These include loyalty to country, concern for national welfare, democracy, and the "American Way," public service, voting, elections, and civic responsibility.

A person's political views reflect his political values. In our democracy, the basic freedoms provided for by the Constitution are held in high esteem and protected by most citizens. Freedom of speech, freedom of press, and freedom of religion are only three major freedoms out of a multitude which United States citizens enjoy.

As we become adults, political values have new significant interpretations. If a person seeks public office, there will be a political platform which proclaims his intentions. His political ideas may affect the business or economy of a particular country, state, or the nation.

Religious values. These values are characterized by reverence for life, human dignity, and freedom to worship. Religious values are indicated by the expressed belief in a supreme being or another force which is beyond the comprehension of man. The roots of religious values are found in oral or written religious doctrine. For centuries, the Judeo-Christian heritage has been the foundation of most Americans' religious beliefs and practices. The Bible has served as the basis for values with emphasis on the brotherhood of man.

How can values be related to behavior?

A person's behavior is a product of his values. Values are formed in the following institutions:

- home/school
- peer group and neighborhood
- community
- job or employment
- church or synagogue

Through these institutions, a behavior code is disseminated and, in a sense, thrust upon all people in the early stages of their development. Through these institutions, a person not only learns what is expected of him, but he builds his own value system, which will thereafter provide him with internal rewards or punishments for his actions.

The total make-up of a man—his characteristics, intelligence, goals, drives, interests, and adjustment patterns—constitutes the second general influence on his value system and character development. To some degree, personal make-up is determined by heredity, but to a great extent these personal characteristics are the results of early environmental and social experiences.

Values and the professional leader

Now that the subject of values has been treated in specific and general terms, in what ways will this information assist the professional leader?

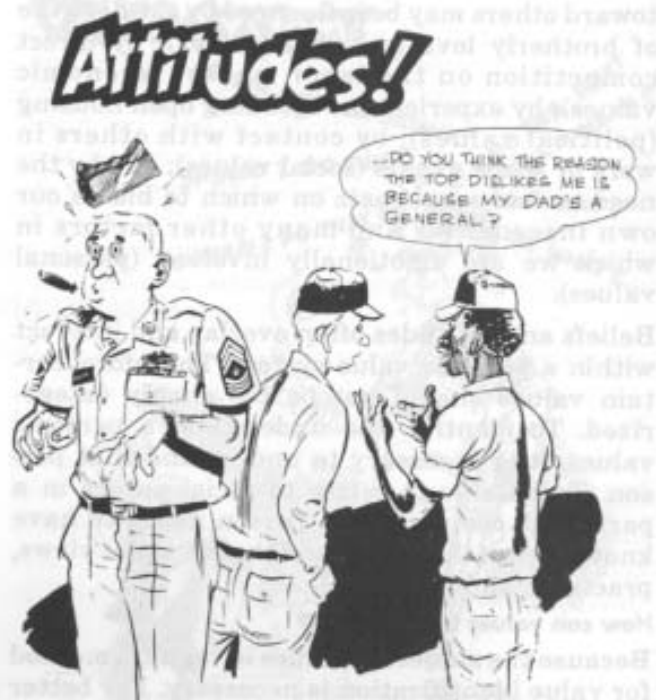
First, if the leader has a clear understanding of values and their relationship to the American soldier, he can fulfill one essential principle of leadership. That principle is knowing and understanding his men. Various ways are available to the leader for determining the soldier's values and attitudes. Some of these are interviewing, counseling, observing, and talking to the man's immediate supervisor.

Second, often a leader is from a different social and economic background than his subordinates. He may be older and not in tune with recent communicative "jargon" or newly established customs. Knowing the values of his men, the leader can communicate better, give orders that appear more rational, and create the climate of discipline which generates the kind of intangible strength necessary to have a first rate unit.

Third, education in values generates a sense of values which the Army desires. Leaders need to become skillful in the techniques which can bring about change in their men so that behavior patterns and attitudes are improved. However, the leader is primarily concerned with behavior which is enforced through policies, directives, and Army regulations. Attitudinal change among subordinates may take place at a later time after behavior patterns have been enforced over a period of weeks or months.

ATTITUDES

Behavior is the result of a soldier's reaction to a situation, group, or leader. That reaction



depends on what the situation is and how the soldier interprets the situation. If several men were placed in the same situation, there probably would be various reactions to the situation. This would occur because each person may see that situation differently. Such differences are expressed in attitudes.

Attitudes are a person's feelings toward something or someone and are expressed in likes and dislikes. The word "attitude" is used rather loosely as a catch-all term for the whole collection of one's beliefs, opinions, prejudices, and sentiments, even though the basic meaning of these terms is different.

Attitudes are learned, or caused, in much the same way as are values. This learning usually occurs gradually through many kinds of experiences over a long period of time or as the result of a particularly forceful or emotional experience. Most attitudes are learned from those experiences which make an impression and which seem to be important. These experiences can be favorable or unfavorable, pleasant or unpleasant, and the resulting attitude ends up as either positive or negative. When a soldier comes into the Army and finds his first leader interested in his needs and welfare, a favorable attitude toward the military is likely to be the result. Social environment plays an important part in shaping attitudes. We may borrow attitudes from others, such as parents, friends, leaders, or persons of prestige. We may acquire them from the cultural influences of a particu-

lar geographical area such as a farm, small town, or slum. Furthermore, a person's attitudes may be affected by age, position, and education.

The soldier's attitudes, once formed, make up a frame of reference for his actions and, as such, will affect what he sees and where he looks. Attitudes may cause him to do things which do not seem to be based on any logical reason. We may use logic to plan what he is going to do, but attitudes will determine how he will end up doing it. For example, he may act toward a peer or someone who has influence over him in a completely different way than he would act toward someone whom he disliked, though both persons treat him the same way.

ATTITUDE GROUPS

Although attitudes originate from a great variety of sources, most of them can be found in one of four groups. These four groups show how various attitudes are interrelated and the functions that they serve in our interaction with other persons. An understanding of these groups can assist the leader in changing a poor attitude to a good one.

The first group includes attitudes which help us adapt to the situation. We tend to look for those things in our environment which reward us and to avoid those things which penalize us. A soldier usually develops favorable attitudes toward peers, superiors, and assignments which

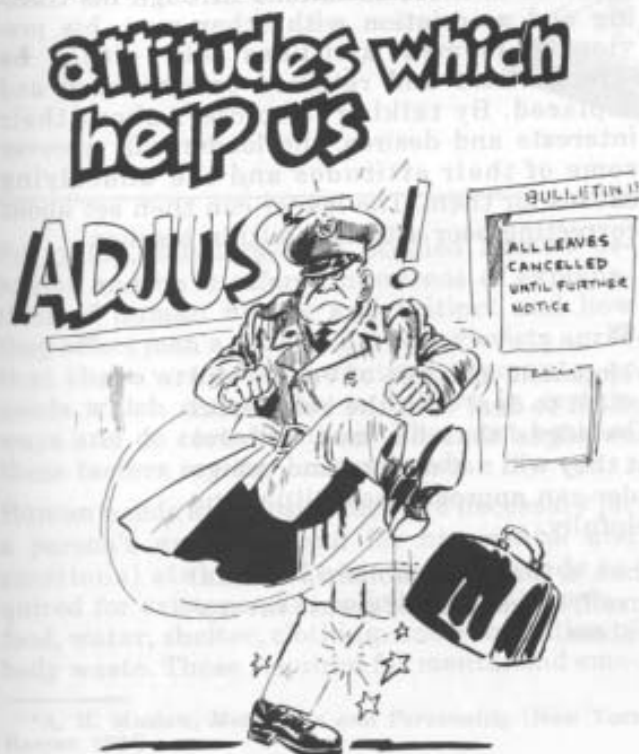
satisfy his needs, and unfavorable attitudes toward the same which get in the way of that satisfaction. If this soldier is denied a much-wanted leave, his attitude may become unfavorable to the leader or to the military in general unless his need is met in some other satisfying way.

The second group includes attitudes which help each of us defend his self-image. How the soldier protects his self-image from threats within himself or from threats posed by others in his environment is known as the ego-defense mechanism. Many of his personal attitudes function in the protection of this self-image. In an effort to live a full life, he looks for everything in his environment which can add something meaningful, but he also directs his concern to being able to live with himself. For example, the soldier who always sounds off and quarrels with fellow soldiers may be doing this because he is insecure or has personal problems. He may be using this type of behavior to ease some of these tensions. His expressed anger, quarreling, and other visible hostile actions form his ego-defense. Thus, many attitudes serve the purpose of protecting the way he thinks of himself. He may also use these same attitudes to defend those persons with whom he identifies, such as his family, civilian friends, company, platoon, or squad. When a person feels his self-image or the group's image threatened, his attitudes may be openly expressed to build up his prestige or that of his group.

A third group includes attitudes which express our value system. Many of his attitudes hide or camouflage the real person. Some serve the purpose of letting subordinates, peers, and superiors know his values.

The final group includes attitudes by which the soldier categorizes people, events, and experiences. There is a vast world of people, objects, and ideas that he can see, feel, and think about, and seem real to him. This is the environment in which he lives. How he interprets that environment, however, is colored by his attitudes. Thus, when he is faced with events or persons which do not correspond to previous experiences, he compares this new event or person with attitudes he already has. This partially explains the prevalence of prejudice and racially stereotyped attitudes among service people. He uses his attitudes as the yardstick for judgment, such as the mother who watched her son's unit march by the reviewing stand and said, "They're all out of step but my Johnny!"

If attitudes are considered to be products of



experiences, then experiences in the military service will influence a soldier's attitudes toward the unit, the leader, and the Army in general. The leader's expertise and trustworthiness play a most important part in attitude change. For example, when the leader's interest in his men is made apparent by an improvement in living quarters, by recognizing each soldier as an individual, and by alleviating organizational problems such as overdirection, overcommitment, malassignment, etc., he is able to create favorable attitudes.

Just as attitudes are learned through experiences, they can be changed or improved through other experiences which add new meanings or facts to the situation. When a unit is given a mission, attitudes are formed immediately. As the men learn what is involved in the mission, the reason the mission was given to them, the need for the mission, and other related facts, their personal attitudes toward the mission may change. However, not all attitudes can be easily changed. Those which involve strong emotional factors—such as religion, politics, and race—are difficult to change. Yet, most attitudes can be changed to some degree by providing new conditions, new experiences, and new information.

GOOD ATTITUDES

Some methods a leader can use in trying to create better attitudes include:

Providing information. Often an attitude is based on a misconception, and supplying the correct facts may result in a changed attitude. The leader may be able to present some of the facts involved in a certain situation in his unit about which his soldiers have formed poor attitudes.

Showing concern. A simple act of kindness or

an indication that the leader cares about his men can often change a poor attitude to a better one. Listening to a soldier who is bitter or hostile permits him to blow off steam.

Changing a person's status. Giving a soldier a new job or position can cause him to identify with new roles and frames of reference. This gives him a new slant on the situation. In other words, attitudes can be changed at times by merely changing the situation.

Allowing discussion. Leader-subordinate discussions may help to correct negative attitudes because communicating encourages the soldier to express his feelings and problems. This can be one of the best methods used to improve attitudes. The art of communicating depends a great deal on listening. When the leader is alert, attentive, and demonstrates a sincere interest and willingness to understand not only what is said, but what is not said, he goes a long way toward building bridges of understanding.

A man enters military service with a built-in set of attitudes toward the Army. His attitudes were most likely influenced through mass media and by feedback from relatives, friends, or acquaintances who were in the service. The soldier's reaction to these influences, whether good or bad, forms the basis of what he expects from the service. As he experiences new situations in his service career and begins to feel involved in these situations through his training and association with other men, his previously formed attitudes will either be strengthened and retained or weakened and replaced. By talking to soldiers about their interests and desires, the leader will uncover some of their attitudes and the underlying causes for them. The leader can then set about correcting poor attitudes within his men.

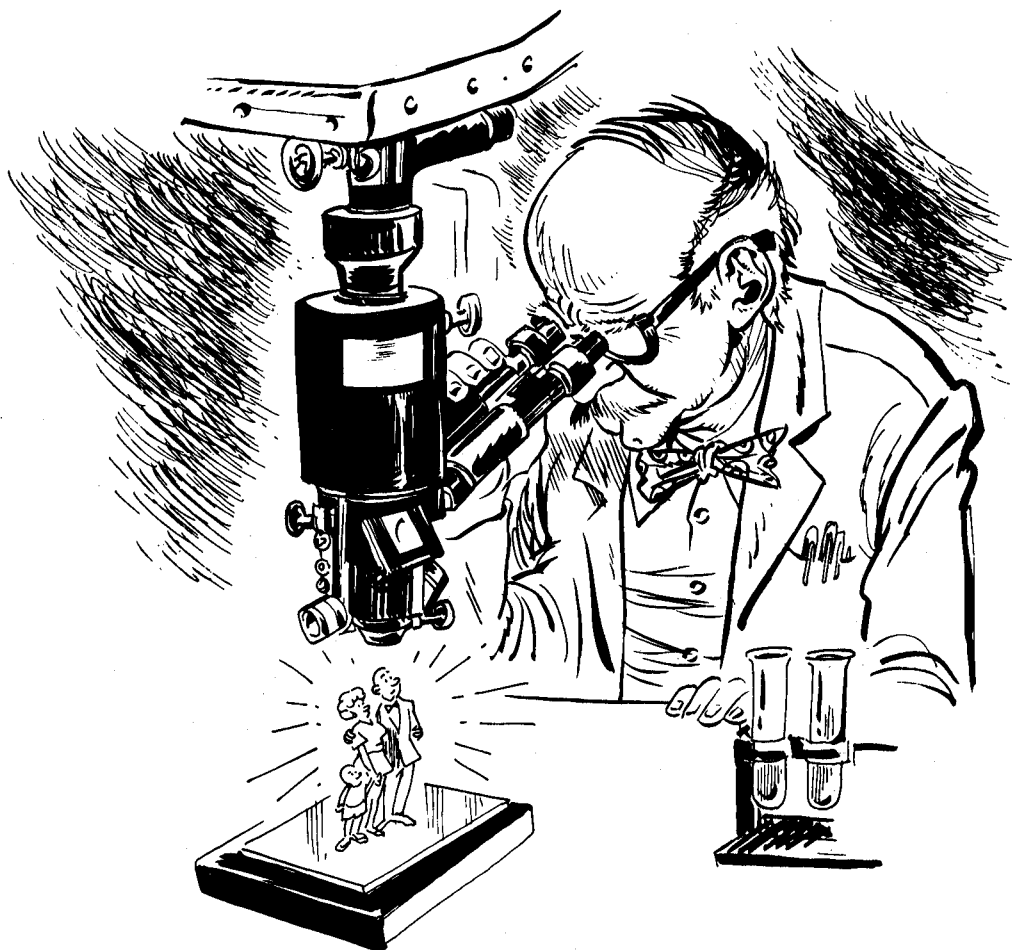
SUMMARY

When the leader understands the development and role of values and attitudes he is in a more favorable position to deal with the behavioral problems of his men. When he acknowledges that his men will not always act and react as he does, or that they will not understand things or feel about them as he does, the leader can approach new situations and his men more intelligently and helpfully.

Values and attitudes are learned. When a leader establishes mutual understanding among his men and himself, he has helped create favorable soldier attitudes toward suitable values.

Human Needs!

CHAPTER 7



For years, scholars have studied human behavior and have offered hundreds of explanations of human nature and instinct and how they affect men's actions. All behaviorists agree that there are certain factors, elements, or needs which cause men to behave in certain ways and do certain things. The most basic of these factors are the human needs.

Human needs are those which are necessary for a person's existence and for his mental and emotional stability. Those human needs required for existence are called physical needs—food, water, shelter, clothing, and elimination of body waste. Those required for mental and emo-

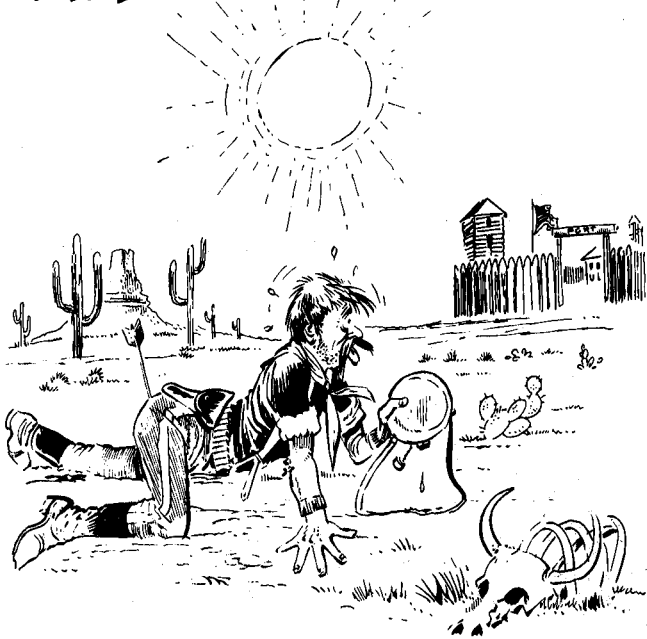
tional stability are learned needs—safety, social acceptance, esteem, and self-fulfillment. Human needs are the same for all men, but they vary in importance or degree from person to person.

RELATIONSHIPS OF NEEDS

Understanding the definitions of physical and learned needs, we can now examine the relationship between needs. The attempt to classify human needs, which is probably the easiest to understand is the one developed by Abraham H. Maslow.* In Maslow's theory, human needs develop from lower to higher needs, with the lower needs having to be satisfied before the higher needs can develop. For example, a man who has

*A. H. Maslow, *Motivation and Personality* (New York: Harper, 1964)

Physical needs!



not had water for a long period of time will only be interested in satisfying his thirst. The need for water is a basic physical need.

Physical needs do not usually cause either the

social need!



leader or the follower any problem except under the most trying circumstances, such as during prolonged combat or in a natural disaster. When they are not satisfied, the man turns his attention from task and mission accomplishment to his own personal well-being.

Above the physical needs are the learned needs. These are based on and developed through men's relationships with each other and society in general. The safety needs are the most basic of the learned needs and include the desire for security and for law and order. If, for example, a man is concerned with the protection of his personal possessions because barracks thievery is common within his unit, he will not give full attention to his duties. Instead, he will be thinking of the safety of his belongings. The leader must provide the required security which frees the soldier from worry so that he can attend to his military duties.

The needs for belonging and for social acceptance rest upon the man's desire to be an accepted member of his unit and to have good personal relationships with its members. Almost every leader has been approached by a soldier who has complained of not fitting into his squad or platoon or who cannot get along



ego!..Self-esteem!



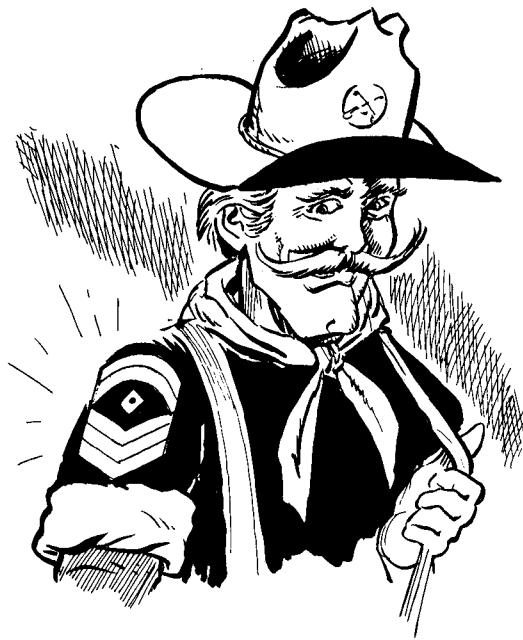
with the other members of his unit. The problem of “not belonging” concerns this soldier so that he can think of little else. He is not a productive soldier, so some action must be taken to satisfy his need to belong.

Esteem follows in the progression and, next to the physical needs, is the one most easily satisfied by the leader. The esteem needs are those which stem from the person’s desire for recognition, respect, and appreciation. The leader can directly recognize his subordinates for their performance and show his appreciation by intangible rewards such as a simple “Well done” or a pat on the back. He can also offer tangible rewards in the form of time off; recommendations for awards, decorations, and promotions; and favorable efficiency reports. In the same way, he can recognize poor performance by a verbal or written reprimand or a recommendation for administrative or judicial punishment. Today’s soldier for the most part is seeking individuality—he is “people-oriented” more than “system-oriented,” and he desires distinction. He wants logical rules and regulations with which to govern himself, hard but meaningful work, and a sense of belonging to the group. By respecting each of his men for what they are, by recognizing them as individuals,

and by treating each of them as important contributing members of the unit, the leader helps satisfy the self-esteem needs of his troops.

The highest need in Maslow’s progression is that of self-fulfillment or the achievement of full potential. Because needs are progressive, satisfying this final need is based on at least partial satisfaction of the needs which precede it. Many privates desire to become sergeants major, and many lieutenants desire to become generals, but these desires are realized in only a few cases. Although the percentage of those who reach self-fulfillment is small, intermediate promotion goals can be attained, and partial satisfaction achieved.

Self-fulfillment!



The attainment of these intermediate goals is conducive to good behavior.

What about other men whose ideas of self-fulfillment do not include moving to the top of the ladder of success in the Army or some other

organization? Some men just want to find their true selves, to enjoy life, to do their jobs and avoid trouble. If this is "their thing," we must not criticize their ideas and beliefs because their ideas differ from ours. For example, take a case in which we have only one unit award for soldier of the month and two men are equally qualified for the award after the completion of the normal competition. If we find that one man plans to get out of the Army as soon as his enlistment is up and that the other plans to reenlist, we must not allow this knowledge to influence our decision. We must dig deeper to determine who should get the award. If our investigation favors the man who is not making the Army a career then he should get the award.

GROUP NEEDS

In addition to individual human needs, there are group norms which are established to meet the needs of the group. Group norms vary from individual needs only in that they are a collection of the needs of the individuals in the group. This collection of needs may require members of the group to change or adjust their needs to fit the group's norm.

In using the word "group" we refer to organized groups having common goals and established leadership. They may be formal such as a fire team, squad, or platoon; or informal such as a bowling or softball team. Unorganized groups, on the other hand, seldom have common goals or established leadership.

In organized groups, personal relationships between the members cause them to conform to certain standards set by the group or, in the case of the military, to preestablished standards. For example, the platoon (group) that wants to earn a high rating on its Army Training Test (ATT) will literally force the members of the platoon to do their best on the test. Each man will work hard in order to maintain his acceptance by the other members of the platoon. In other words, they don't want to "let their buddies down" or lose their respect. Each wants to do his part to attain the group goal. This is due to the need for social acceptance and status within the group. This force is strongest in the leaders because they need the respect of their men for their own self-esteem. The troops will have confidence and faith in their leaders as long as group needs and expectations are met. On the other hand, if the leaders do not live up to group expectations and satisfy the group's

needs, its members will seek individual satisfaction instead of group satisfaction.

A leader must provide purpose and goals for the group. By evaluating his resources to see if they are adequate to reach a goal and by selecting the best course of action, the leader provides purpose and goals for the group. He must then, time permitting, explain the logic and reasoning behind his decision so that each man understands his importance to the unit. The leader must then demonstrate his enthusiasm for the task and provide direction and assistance in accomplishing the goal. This direction should include information on the required standards of performance.

Americans live in a highly competitive society. Because of this, many join or at least identify with groups that fulfill the need to be competitive. For example, they identify with a sports team of one kind or another. While following the success or failure of their team, they often become personally and emotionally involved. By accepting the team's competition as their own, they are able to satisfy their need for competition. Many people also belong to bowling leagues or softball leagues, meet regularly for playing cards, or engage in some other type of competition where they are directly involved. From these group associations, loyalties, teamwork, and leaders emerge. In a military organization, however, the leaders are already identified. The designated leader must realize that although he is recognized as the head of the group because of his rank and position, he will not in fact be the accepted leader until he earns the respect and confidence of the group by satisfying their needs.

NEED SATISFACTION

The leader satisfies these needs in part by insuring that teamwork and loyalty to the group are established and maintained. He insures that individual and group needs are satisfied by establishing goals, missions, or tasks for individuals and groups to reach which lead to mission accomplishment. For example, the unit mission may be to paint the barracks. The leader may establish some type of competition or reward for the platoon that does the best job. Thus, the individual and group needs of improving their living conditions (social needs), competing and being recognized (ego needs), and accomplishing meaningful work (self-fulfillment) are met. The method of satisfying

needs by establishing goals is a part of motivation. We will discuss the subject of motivation

in the next chapter and answer the question, "How do we motivate our men?"

SUMMARY

For a soldier to be a contributing member of the Army, his physical needs must be satisfied. He must be put in an environment in which he can satisfy his learned needs. Because men's needs are progressive, they must be at least partially satisfied at each level before a higher level can be reached. If a leader expects good performance from his troops, he must strive to satisfy or assist in the satisfaction of their individual needs.

Equally important are group needs, which are the collective needs of all members of the unit. The collective needs are translated into a common group norm to which members of the group must conform. As is the case with individuals, groups require their leaders to establish goals and purpose for their efforts in order to satisfy the group's needs.

motivation

CHAPTER 8



FORMAL AND INFORMAL CONTRACT

The task of motivating subordinates is squarely on the leader's shoulders. His first task in motivating his men is to recognize the existence of both the formal and informal contract between the soldier and the Army and to insure that the terms of these contracts are met. The formal contract is the military obligation a man incurs when he is sworn into military service. The informal contract consists of those implied obligations and responsibilities which the organization and the soldier have to each other. The informal contract is based on individual and organizational expectations and on the necessity for each to satisfy the other. The leader

plays an important role as the organization's representative in insuring that the terms of the informal contract are fulfilled by both parties.

Units have standards in such things as job proficiency, discipline, participation as a team member, and personal conduct—to name a few. In the same way, the soldier has certain expectations which must be met by his unit. The unit must reasonably satisfy his "physical" needs for food, water, shelter, etc. It must also provide a climate for the satisfaction of his "learned" needs for security, law, and order; his "belonging" needs of family, work, and social groups; and his "self-satisfaction" need for self-fulfillment. By directly satisfying the soldier's physi-

cal needs and giving him the opportunity to satisfy his learned needs, the unit meets the basic terms of the informal contract it has with the soldier. The opportunity is now present to motivate him to accomplish the organizational goals.

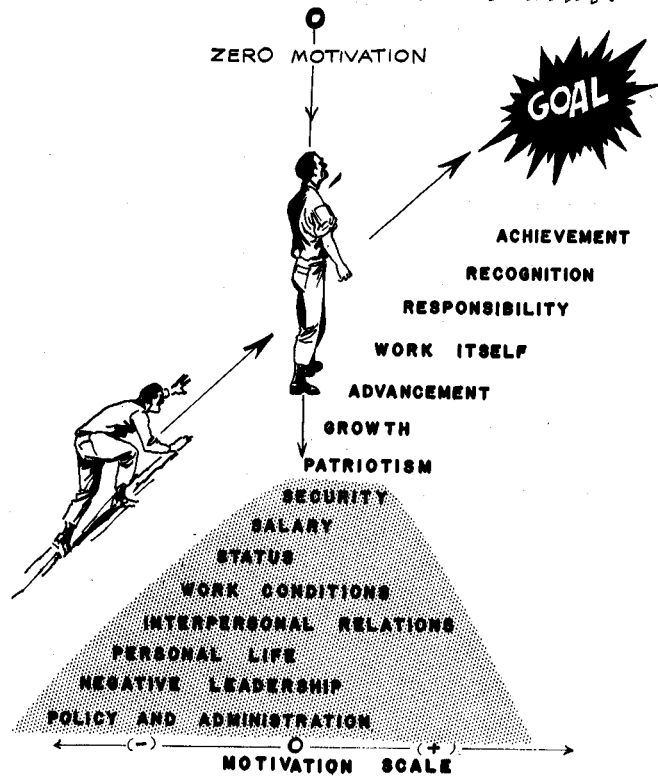
In short, under the terms of the informal contract, both the organization and the soldier depend on each other for satisfaction of their expectations, and each must meet the terms of the contract according to what the other expects. If both parties participate fairly in meeting the contract's terms, then a satisfactory relationship will exist between the two, and the organizational mission can be accomplished while the soldier's needs are also satisfied.

The leader is responsible for accomplishing the missions of the Army and is vitally concerned that the Army's expectations are met. On the other hand, he must see to it that the soldier's expectations are met. The leader is, therefore, the executor of the informal contract and must see that each party meets the expectations of the other.

MOTIVATION AND NEEDS

Needs form the basis for men's actions. Needs motivate men to behave in certain ways and to

Ladder of 'MOTIVATORS' and 'DISSATISFIERS'

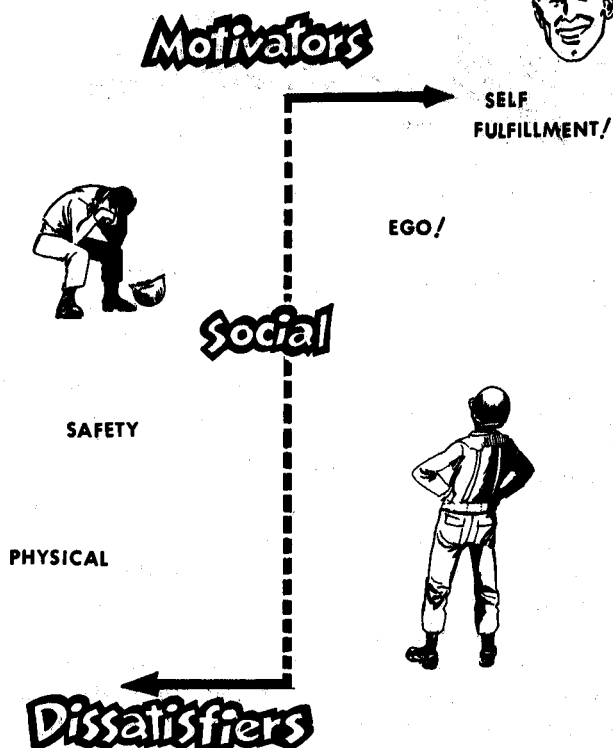


do certain things. So any attempt to motivate must be based on an understanding of human needs and must be directed at satisfying these needs.

Motivation is related to what people do in performing their jobs and is associated with the higher needs as described in Maslow's progression of needs in chapter 7. The degree to which a person desires to satisfy these needs usually determines how productive and creative he will be on the job. At the lower end of Maslow's progression are those factors which are related to the job environment. Failure to provide for these needs creates dissatisfaction. If the job environment is dissatisfying, the soldier will be concerned with his own well-being to the point of excluding all activities which do not lead to this satisfaction. Thus, his performance will be directed towards satisfying his physical needs, and unit needs will not be satisfied.

It is interesting to note, however, that elimination of dissatisfiers does not motivate subordinates. If a motivation scale is indicated on a progressive ladder of motivators and dissatisfiers, the elimination of the dissatisfiers does not by itself cause motivation, but simply causes a neutral situation in which motivation can occur. The satisfaction of needs on the

Relationship between 'HUMAN NEEDS' and 'JOB SATISFACTION'



positive side of the scale motivates subordinates, while failure to satisfy these needs results in dissatisfaction. For example, the soldier who consistently performs well but who is not recognized for his work may become dissatisfied.

Although it may appear that the leader faces an impossible task in motivating his subordinates because he is surrounded by potential dissatisfiers, this is not the case. In our society the physical and safety needs are usually easy to satisfy and, except in extreme circumstances, our men are not concerned with these two needs but are more interested in satisfying their higher needs. The social needs are also partially satisfied to some degree merely because, by being in the Army, the soldier is a part of a formal group. As a member of the formal organization and of several informal groups, the soldier is socially motivated to meet both the formal and informal established standards. These group standards show the soldier how to behave in various situations and support him in times of stress.

Motivation is a complete process which is determined by the interaction of all the needs. It is based on those needs created by the situation and on a combination of personal and group needs. Because the requirements of the situation, personal needs, and group commitment are always present, we may conclude that everyone has some type of motivation to do something. For example, everyone needs food and is motivated to eat. Rational people, when their lives are threatened, attempt to reduce the threat; and most people desire social or group acceptance and are motivated to achieve that end.

MOTIVATING PERFORMANCE

Because everyone has motives, the question for a leader is not, "How can people be motivated?" but rather, "How can the motives of his soldiers be channeled towards attaining the organizational objectives?" To answer this question, consider these factors which influence a soldier's motivation to perform well:

- His feeling that he can succeed if he tries.
- His feeling that he will be recognized for his good work, either tangibly or intangibly.
- His value of that recognition.
- His estimate of the probability that he will be punished if he does not try.

MOTIVATION TO TRY

Experience shows that a man will have little

motivation to try something he thinks he cannot do. The leader must know his men's capabilities and establish challenging attainable goals within these capabilities. He can build the men's confidence in himself by offering support, encouragement, and assistance and by indicating that a man will not be punished if he gives his best effort and fails. This is important because on difficult tasks, men encouraged to keep trying may ultimately succeed; without encouragement, they may simply quit.

EXPECTATION OF RECOGNITION FOR GOOD WORK

When a man is convinced that his chances of success are good enough to warrant the effort to try, his belief that success will help him achieve his own personal goals or needs becomes important. If he is not convinced that good performance is the best way to satisfy these needs, his motivation will be low and he will have little or no interest in doing his best.

Creating assurance that good performance will be rewarded is based on three things. First, the leader must have a consistent record of checking and evaluating performance. Second, he must have an equally consistent record of using the rewards and punishments at his disposal in respect to improving his men's performance. A man who does better work than any other member in the unit should be the first man considered for privileges and promotions, while the capable man who does not do good work should never be allowed to escape the consequences of his poor performance. Finally, although tangible rewards are most important to many soldiers, there are others who feel that completion of the task itself is sufficient reward. In other words, the unit and individual goals are reinforcing and complementary.

Motivation cannot always be achieved by taking such actions as offering tangible rewards, increasing work requirements, changing the man to a similar job (such as changing his job from driving an armored personnel carrier to driving a 5-ton truck), or asking him what action can be taken to improve his job. Motivation can, however, be realized by changing the method of achieving unit goals so that they satisfy the needs of the troops as well as contribute to mission accomplishment. Usually, if a man is allowed to develop his own method of reaching a unit goal, he will be more motivated to do so because he can choose a course of action which will enable him to satisfy his own goals as well. Additionally, by influencing a man's choice of personal goals, you may in turn influence the alignment of his personal goals with unit goals.

The best technique to use to align personal and unit goals and to provide personal-satisfaction motivation is to give the soldier increased authority and responsibility. This technique can be used at any level from the lowest ranking enlisted man to the highest ranking officer. For example, at the lowest level, guidance for the accomplishment of routine tasks may often be given along with specific standards of accomplishment to be met. This will give a man the opportunity to use his own ability and initiative to perform tasks so as to meet the leader's standards. This technique can give the soldier the opportunity to satisfy his own needs while accomplishing unit goals. The same process of using broad guidelines can be used in giving more responsibility and authority to junior leaders. In other words, you should assign a task and hold the leader responsible for its accomplishment. Give junior leaders the authority to grant certain rewards, such as time off, to their subordinates with the understanding that mission accomplishment cannot be sacrificed. The leader's imagination, within the limits of regulations and policies, can be used freely in arriving at ways in which increased authority and responsibility can be given to subordinates.

The benefits of this technique are far-reaching. In addition to increasing motivation, this technique gives men the opportunity to grow professionally because their abilities are challenged. The leader is also able to free himself from many tasks which he previously performed himself and thereby devote more attention to his other leadership functions. For example, if the leader can free himself from having to personally supervise a particular task, he can step back and take a more objective view of his unit's performance. He can then evaluate his unit's performance in order to improve it.

THE VALUE OF RECOGNITION FOR GOOD WORK

A person's desire for recognition is directly related to the third factor affecting motivation to work—the value a man places on the recognition he will get for successfully completing assigned tasks. What can the leader provide that will be of value to the subordinates? Should every task be rewarded? It is difficult to answer these questions because a soldier does many routine tasks during a day which do not merit a tangible reward, but which must be done well. Further, giving tangible rewards for all good performances, especially routine tasks, would reduce the value of rewards as a motivating factor. Finally, even if this would not lower the



value of rewards, there are not enough tangible rewards available to use this way.

Fortunately, there are other rewards, intangible in nature, which are available to the leader. The best example of an intangible reward is the praise given a man for successfully completing a task. Praise tells the soldier that he is a valued member of the unit. While a man may work for tangible rewards, one of his chief goals is to feel that he is important and worth something to the unit. In contrast, if the leader never compliments a soldier for a job well done, it is easy for the man to believe either that he never does good work, or that his leader is not interested in good work. Either of these beliefs can destroy a man's motivation.

Making newly assigned soldiers feel welcome.



PROBABILITY OF PUNISHMENT

In the Army, assigned tasks must be done well, and each leader's unit must perform well. Each man must do his share of the total job, or several problems will result. First, the unit's effort will be weakened. Second, others in the unit will have to do more than their share. They will not continue to do more, however, if corrective action is not taken against the shirker. They will feel that there is no reason for them to do more than their share and their performance will decline to the level of the shirker. Third, the shirker himself will develop a habit of shirking. The longer he gets away with this, the harder it will be for the leader to change him. Prompt and firm punishment at the first occurrence may salvage the man and eventually aid in making him a good soldier. If punishment fails and the man continues his poor performance, more severe punishment will be required. Moving the man to another unit or a different job may also help remotivate him. If nothing works, as a final step he should be eliminated from the service.

EVALUATING PERFORMANCE

From these points and others raised in this chapter, it is clear that one of the most demanding and complex problems of leadership is the action the leader must take after evaluating his men's performance. There are several factors

that should guide decisions on what action is appropriate for a given performance.

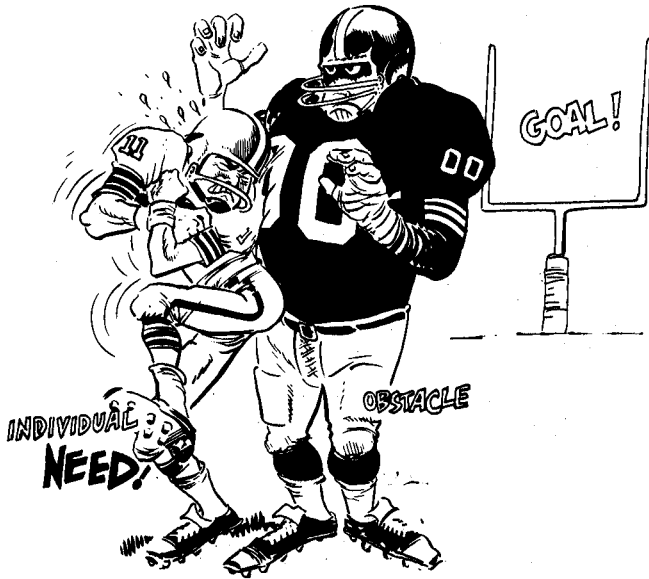
When performance is good, the leader's job is a simple one. If an attempt is made to get special recognition for the unit when the men have put forth special effort, and if good work is always recognized, motivation in the unit will increase. Far more complex is the problem of correcting poor performance.

Performance of duty is, in general, the product of three interdependent factors: ability, motivation, and the work method. If ability is high but motivation is low, performance will be poor. Performance will also be poor if the opposite is true, with ability low and motivation high. Therefore, it is often difficult to determine whether poor performance is the result of low ability or low motivation. Yet, the determination must be made, since the nature of the leader's action will be different depending on which he decides is the case. If the poor performance is the result of a lack of ability, the proper action is to identify and correct the ability failure. This can normally be done through extra training. If the failure is attributed to inadequate motivation, however, the key is to take action to increase the motivation level of the man. It is not easy to identify the reason for a failure. For example, a failure that appears to be caused by a lack of ability may be indirectly the result of an earlier lack of motivation to learn while the soldier was being trained. The leader must determine which is the cause for failure. A review of the man's performance is a help, but is not totally reliable. For example, a new man may "goof off" from the day he joins the unit, and thus always appear as a poor performer. Or, a man with a good past record may suddenly start fouling up because of pressing personal problems he cannot solve. There are two errors to avoid. One is to punish when the failure is due to inadequate ability, and the second is to give additional training when the failure is due to a lack of motivation.

Of these two errors, the first, punishment for a lack of ability, is very serious. There are at least three reasons for this. First, if a man gives his best, fails, and then is punished, he will probably never again try that hard. If he is going to be punished for failing, he might as well be punished for not trying. Second, if he fails because of a lack of ability, his failure is not entirely his fault. It is primarily the leader's fault for assigning him a task beyond the limits of his ability. So, if a man gives his best and is punished for failing, his motivation

FRUSTRATION!

BEHAVIOR PATTERN

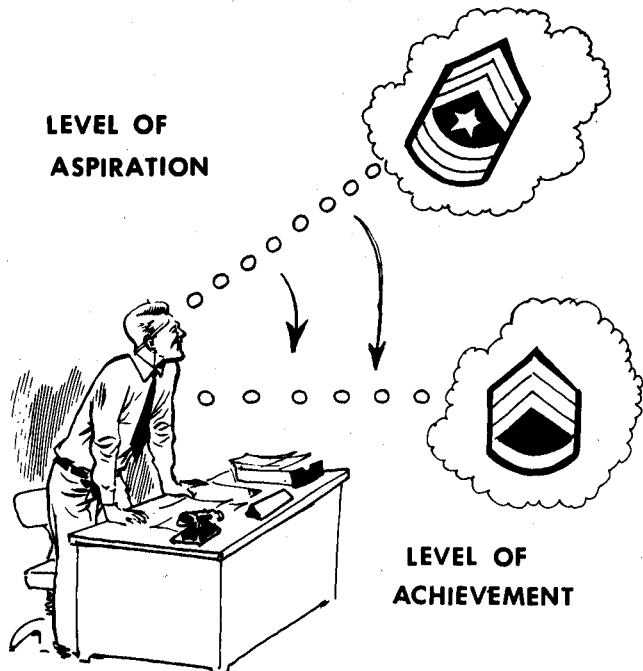


ule to be altered, a degree of frustration results. For example, the mess truck is 30 minutes late arriving at a training site. This may cause the training schedule to be altered, which in turn

may cause the troops and the instructors to experience minor frustrations. Frustration is likely to be more severe when an obstacle blocks someone from attaining his objective. A blocking obstacle may be a physical or mental condition beyond the control of the man concerned. It may be a self-imposed or psychological obstacle such as a lack of self-confidence which prevents a man from reaching a goal. When the level of achievement is lower than the level of aspiration, frustration results. For example, a staff sergeant (E6) who is an outstanding NCO is told that he cannot be promoted to sergeant first class (E7) because he does not have a high school education.

Frustration by conflict occurs when someone desires two or more goals, but the satisfying of one causes the denial of the other. Of course, these goals must be of fairly equal importance. For example, if a soldier is confronted with the choice between a steak dinner or promotion, there would probably be no conflict. However, if he has not eaten for 3 days and the steak dinner is the only food available, a conflict might exist. Another example of this type of conflict would be deciding between two good jobs—one which has a supervisor you like, or one that is particularly beneficial to your career.

ASPIRATION VS ACHIEVEMENT



MULTIPLE CONFLICT!



Conflict also occurs when a person must choose between two unpleasant goals. An example of this type conflict is a choice between two equally undesirable tours overseas.

Conflict often occurs when a goal involves both pleasant and unpleasant features. For example, a noncommissioned officer may desire to work in the brigade tactical operations center, but in so doing would have to work for someone he dislikes.

Most situations involve a complex combination of desirable and undesirable factors, as exemplified in the following hypothetical case.

LT Smith is asked to work on a project which involves an extended trip away from his home station. He realizes that this is a vote of confidence from superiors, an opportunity to learn and to get away from the routine of his job, and an opportunity to observe the actions of high ranking and influential leaders. However, he has doubts of his ability to do the job, and being away from home could cause personal hardship and financial problems. LT Smith's problem is not easy to solve, because either choice results in conflict.

REACTIONS TO FRUSTRATION

Whatever the cause, frustrating events stimulate some type of behavior. The resulting behavior varies with the person and the situation, and it can cover a wide range of reactions. Behaviors induced by frustration can involve either good or bad reactions. Good reactions are those which occur because of increased drive and can cause a man to overcome the obstacle which is preventing him from reaching his original goal. Good reactions to frustration are not uncommon. In fact, many perform at their best when subject to some minor form of frustration. The saying "the more I have to do, the more I get done" is a good reaction to what might otherwise be a situation where, because of the amount of work to be done, a man could react poorly. Because good reactions do not require leader attention or action they are seldom of concern to the leader. On the other hand, frustration can produce various bad reactions such as aggression, rationalization, regression, fixation, resignation, and negativism which are of great concern to the leader.

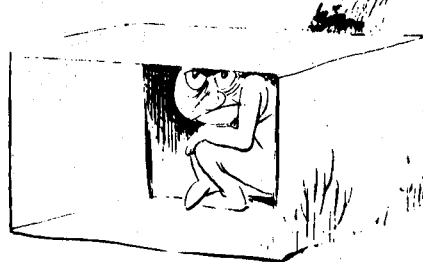
Aggression is one of the most likely reactions to frustration; however, other responses to frustration may occur first. Hostility, striking out, smashing objects, vicious gossip, snide

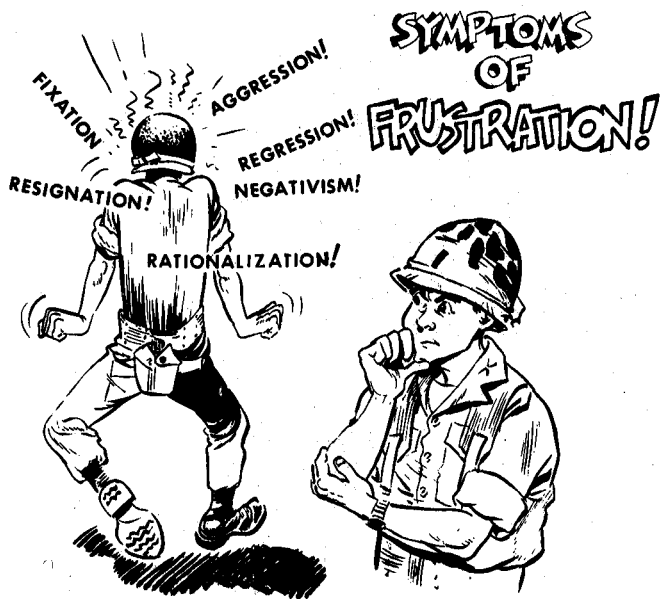


remarks, and other forms of unacceptable behavior characterize aggression.

Another reaction of frustration is misdirected hostility, often called "scapegoating." A person may be in a position where he cannot attack the cause of his frustration directly. He often takes out such frustration on another person or object having nothing to do with the original cause of his frustration. For example, Sergeant Jones, who is experiencing a great deal of frustration he believes is caused by his platoon

ESCAPE FROM REALITY!





leader, goes home and vents his aggression on his wife. All too often people direct their hostility toward their peers or subordinates who, in turn, may vent their aggression on their unit by not performing a task to the best of their ability.

Rationalization is a behavioral reaction in which the frustrated person blames someone else for his inability to achieve some goal or talks himself out of the desirability of a goal. For example, a man disappointed at not having been promoted to sergeant first class may rationalize; "I did not want the added responsibility of being promoted to E7, anyway." Frequently, however, the reaction to this frustration is to blame a superior for one's inability to attain a desirable goal.

Regressive reaction is simply the failure to act one's age. A person who is unable to deal constructively with reality and who retreats to the behavior of an earlier age that seems more satisfying is showing regression. A person who, in a frustrating situation, puts on a temper tantrum or pouts is reverting to his formative years when such behavior worked; in other words, he got his way by a display of temper as a child and reverts to this behavior in an effort to have his way as a man. As in other reactions to frustration, the number of frustration-producing elements influences the degree of regression.

Fixation is another severe reaction to frustration. It is characterized by compulsive, stereotyped, repetitive behavior. A person may exhibit the same behavior pattern over and over again with no attempt to adjust to the situation. An example of fixation is the mechanic who per-

sists in trying to fit a bolt into place, even though it is the wrong size.

Resignation, or apathy, is a reaction characterized by loss of hope, escape from reality, withdrawal, and retreat from the source of frustration. The person becomes apathetic and resigned to failure. For example, a man, in an attempt to escape from the rigors of Army life, may withdraw into himself and go absent without leave.

Negativism is the most common reaction to frustration. In this behavioral reaction, the person adopts a negative resistive attitude toward the situation. For example, Lieutenant Smith presented his plan for the coming movement to the company commander, who found fault with it. Lieutenant Smith then became frustrated and displayed a defensive, negative attitude toward all recommendations that the company commander made for improving the plan.

The symptoms of frustration described here—aggression, rationalization, regression, fixation, resignation, and negativism—are conditions for which the leader should be alert, so that he can take remedial action.

COPING WITH FRUSTRATION

There is no clearly defined ladder of frustrated behavior in which a person proceeds, first being aggressive then regressive, etc. Further, the ability of people to cope with or tolerate frustration varies. What may be a stressful situation for one person, may be stimulating for another, and what may induce frustration in a man at one time may not at another time.

Once you determine that a man or a group is frustrated, identify the source of the frustration and try to solve the problem. In doing so, you must be cause oriented and not symptom oriented. Do not make a snap judgment. If frustration is the problem, remember that frustration is cumulative. What may appear to be the primary cause of the frustration may only be "the straw that broke the camel's back," the last of a long series of causes of frustrations. By discussing a man's problem with him, you can in most cases be able to determine or to help him determine the cause of his problem.

There are numerous problems that can arise relating to the job, the unit, or the Army which may be solved by the leader. The cause of a soldier's frustration may be his inability to get along with members of his squad. In this case, the leader can eliminate the cause by finding out why he is not getting along and helping him understand what adjustments he can make to

PRESSURE!



resolve the problem. In some instances it may benefit the unit and the soldier if he is transferred to another squad. Other causes of frustration such as personal problems may require the leader to prompt the soldier to seek help from the chaplain, Army Emergency Relief, Red Cross, Judge Advocate General, hospital, etc. Still other problems can be solved only by the soldier himself. In these cases, the leader may help him eliminate the cause by suggesting ways to overcome the problem or by suggesting alternate goals.

Solving a problem is not the final step for the leader. After the cause of the frustration has been identified and eliminated, the leader must take steps to prevent a recurrence and future frustration. Just as it is easier to put oil into your automobile engine than to replace a burned-out engine, it is easier to prevent frustration than to correct it. There are a number of steps you, the leader, can take to prevent frustration in your men.

Conduct an honest self-evaluation to determine if *you* are causing frustration. Your personality, your method of operating, and your manner of communicating with them are some of the things which may frustrate your men. For example, if you give sarcastic replies to their questions you may build up a resistance to your leadership.

See that your men are meaningfully employed. Do this by planning ahead, eliminating "busy

work," and by maintaining unit integrity whenever possible.

Keep channels of communication open in order to provide an outlet for their problems.

Establish reasonable logical and reasonable rules, regulations, and SOP.

Insure that human needs are satisfied and that the men are motivated and well trained.

The efforts of a leader to prevent frustration are not always completely successful. Some frustration is inevitable. Fortunately, most men can tolerate frustration to some degree. Because frustration is inevitable, an important aspect of leadership is in learning how to manage frustration so that it does not become destructive to the man or the unit. This management of frustration is actually adjustment to the situation. This is addressed later in this chapter.

Pressure involves internal feelings of tension, anxiety, or fear experienced by a person in a situation which he sees as demanding or threatening. An example of pressure is the feeling you had when you stood your first "in-ranks" inspection. Pressure, like frustration, may be caused by internal or external sources.

INTERNAL PRESSURE

Internal sources of pressure center around our own aspirations and egos. When a man has high ideals, in terms of work to be done and standards to be met, the pressure may be severe and continuous. The career oriented soldier who wants to get his college degree, go to officer candidate school, and end his career as a general officer, for example, may experience pressure his entire career. In general, the well-motivated person who wants to do a good job is more likely to experience pressure than is the unmotivated person. Many men drive themselves relentlessly and try to attain unrealistic standards of work, courage, and social acceptance. They may feel that they should work harder, get along with everyone, be braver, and be better persons than they are. This may be good because it can motivate many men to do well, but they will have to cope with the resulting pressure.

EXTERNAL PRESSURE

There are many sources of external pressure. There is pressure to succeed in a competitive society; pressure to produce well over an extended period; pressure to adjust to constantly changing conditions; and pressure to satisfy wishes of family, peers, and superiors. These



reaches his individual "overload point," the point at which he is no longer able to function effectively under the pressure that he feels.

In our highly competitive society, people grow up learning to compete for everything—grades in school, athletic honors, popularity, jobs, leadership positions, money, and social status. Some men are more competitive than others, and some are better equipped to handle the pressures created by competition. Not everyone can be a winner all the time. Striving to do the impossible invites frustration and self-devaluation. While competitive pressure drives many to greater productivity and higher standards of excellence, such pressure may be harmful if it leads to constant "overloading" of a person's ability to adjust or to cope with the pressure. This type of pressure is more severe among motivated leaders whose success is partially dependent upon competitive performance.

Sustained concentration of effort is another pressure to which all men are exposed at one time or another. This pressure often occurs as a result of having a job for which many demands are felt for a prolonged period. Generally, the higher in the chain of command a leader is, the greater the pressure caused by demands for decisionmaking and production.

Being unfamiliar with a problem and the suddenness with which it arises may create pressure. An example of this is the pressure a basic

are but a few of the more prevalent sources of pressure which we face daily.

A person may maintain an outwardly, calm behavior pattern through a long series of minor pressures and suddenly explode over some seemingly minor incident. The people around him may be completely surprised by his reaction, not realizing that it represents the culmination of a long series of minor pressures. Pressure can be handled by a person until he





Overload Point!

trainee feels when he first enters active duty. He may be unfamiliar with his new surroundings and activities and, because of a desire to do well, may experience some pressure. In some cases, this pressure makes it difficult for a new soldier to adjust to Army life.

If a situation represents a possible threat, it adds to the pressure. Situations which entail a possibility of physical harm, such as rappelling down a cliff, could exert great pressure. Similarly, situations which threaten a person's value to the Army, such as failing to do a job that he should be able to, involve a strong element of pressure. In general, a situation believed to be threatening creates more strain than a situation presenting a difficult, but manageable problem.

Anticipation of pressure itself can cause pressure as the pressure inducing event becomes imminent. You may have felt pressure build up inside you as the time approached for you to address a group of people, particularly people with whom you are closely associated or those who can influence your career.

The severity or level of pressure is the degree of strain (tension, anxiety, or fear) produced within a person. The degree of strain felt depends on a number of factors. First is the importance attached to the situation. The strain may be greater when preparing for the inspector general's annual inspection, for example,

than when preparing for a routine company inspection, because the inspector general's inspection is more important than a routine inspection. The second factor is that the longer a pressure situation continues, the more severe the strain. The number of demands made at one time also has a direct bearing on the degree of pressure felt. Each man has a different level of pressure that he can stand. It depends on his maturity, personal characteristics, the situation, and the presence or absence of support from others. Under mild pressure, a person normally adjusts easily with little or no loss of efficiency. Under moderate pressure, adjustment may be difficult and some efficiency will be lost. Under severe pressure, ability to adjust is overtaxed and inefficiency results.

Stressful situations may not cause any strain at all in some men. If the man is confident that he can handle the situation, then he probably will feel very little pressure. On the other hand, if he feels he is not confident, he will feel great pressure. The level of competence, perception, the presence or absence of threat, and self-confidence all contribute to one's ability to withstand pressure.

Another factor determining the degree of pressure experienced is the evaluation given to the problem. When someone does not get a job he wants or needs, he may think that he is a failure. Another man in this situation might view it as good fortune as he will now have more time to mature and prepare for the job at a future date.

The evaluation of a problem depends on the person's whole system of beliefs. If he views the world as a dangerous and hostile place, each new demand will add to the burden he already bears. If he sees the world as friendly, the demands will be viewed as manageable. For instance, the person who feels that the world is "out to get him" may view a task assigned to him by his leader as more work which will keep him from his family and from doing what he desires. This man's performance will probably be satisfactory at best. On the other hand, the man who has a good outlook will probably view the assignment of additional tasks as a vote of confidence from the leader. He will in most cases do a more-than-satisfactory job.

An appraisal of a threat situation is affected by self-evaluation. If the man views himself as helpless and inadequate, a problem that looks minor to someone else might look serious to him. Failing a proficiency test might spark a

self-confident soldier to study harder while it may convince the less confident man that he is not capable of passing any proficiency test. This points out the difficulty in predicting the effect a situation or demand will have on a person because he reacts not to the situation alone, but also to how he perceives, defines, and evaluates it. Most people are not aware of how life's pressures cause them to act the way they do.

PRESSURE TOLERANCE

The degree of pressure that each man can tolerate is fairly constant for that man. There may be variations in certain situations. Working as a staff officer might create severe pressure for some people, but very little for others. Disappointments, emergencies, and other life problems that many can take in stride might be too much for others to handle. Some can function well under complex and difficult situations, while others are so marginally adjusted that the slightest pressure presents a serious problem to them. Each person has his own vulnerable points. Some may be able to cope with failure, but not criticism, others with prejudice and discrimination, but not with disappointment.

Usually, men are not alone when they face a pressure situation. If they go in a difficult job, they can count on emotional support from their family and friends and perhaps assistance from other sources. Lack of external support, either personal or material, will increase pressure and weaken their ability to cope with the situation. Consequently, it is not surprising



..Too much?

..Too little?

that, when under pressure, most people turn to others for support and reassurance.

Under pressure, for example, a soldier may have his ability to recognize and define a problem reduced. If when operating under pressure he is given a mission, he may not understand all that the mission entails. His ability to cope with the problem may diminish, and only one course of action may be identified. Efficiency may also be impaired. "Examination jitters" cause people to do poorly on an examination, even after adequate preparation. In fact, high levels of tension, anxiety, or fear may lead to erratic behavior as well as to poor performance.

When a man copes with one severe situation, a lowering of tolerance for another situation may result. Soldiers who develop resistance to the pressure of combat may become unusually sensitive to bad news from home. A man who can tactfully follow the instructions of a difficult boss all day may have no patience left for his teenage son when he gets home.

If pressure is viewed as unwarranted or arbitrary, the natural tendency is to resist it. Some people resist pressure actively by being defiant and rebellious while others will resist passively by not paying attention, malingering, acting helpless, and deliberately performing below their capabilities. Resisting pressure is often important to a person maintaining his integrity and his dignity, and in protecting himself from being overloaded with requirements.

COPING WITH PRESSURE

A normal, well-adjusted life results not from a lack of pressure, but from learning to cope with pressure. However, coping with pressure has a price in terms of effort, resources, and time. For severe or continuous pressure, the price may be high. A leader can help his men cope with pressure. Insure, as much as possible, that the men are not exposed to prolonged periods of intense pressure. Give them adequate time to rest and take care of personal needs. Keeping your men informed of the situation and what is expected from them will help to reduce pressure.

The soldier's ability to withstand pressure can be increased by increasing their knowledge and self-confidence through training. If a soldier has performed a task well in training, the next time he is given that task or a similar task, the pressure will not be as great because the task is not new to him. Through training, men become familiar with their own jobs and abilities, and with those of the other members of the unit. They can practice procedures, develop teamwork, reduce the probability of being confronted by unfamiliar situations, and develop confidence in themselves and their unit.

Putting the right man in the right job helps preclude pressure. The soldier who is in a job which satisfies his needs is much less likely to experience pressure than one who is not satisfied with his job. He enjoys the work, and, because of his interest, becomes much more proficient at it.

Once soldiers are proficient at their duties, they usually do not like to be moved to a new position unless such a move will satisfy one of their personal needs. Therefore, the leader must keep personnel changes to a minimum. Leaders should be consistent in their actions because if their men never know what to expect, they will experience pressure caused by tension and anxiety.

The best thing leaders can do to reduce the pressure, if the source of pressure cannot be eliminated, is to be present in stressful situations. If the leader remains calm and confident his men will gain strength to withstand the pressure. In combat this conduct can mean the difference between success and failure. For example, the commander whose company is in action, should position himself where he can best influence the outcome of the operation. In an attack he should be near the maneuver element. If his forces are slowed or stopped, his presence alone may influence his men to continue. Soldiers who see their leader demonstrating his strength in stressful situations respond by viewing the situation as less threatening. The leader cannot expect his men to show less effect of pressure than he does, so he must conceal the effects of pressure he feels, not by denying that he is under pressure, but by acting with cool confidence.

SUMMARY

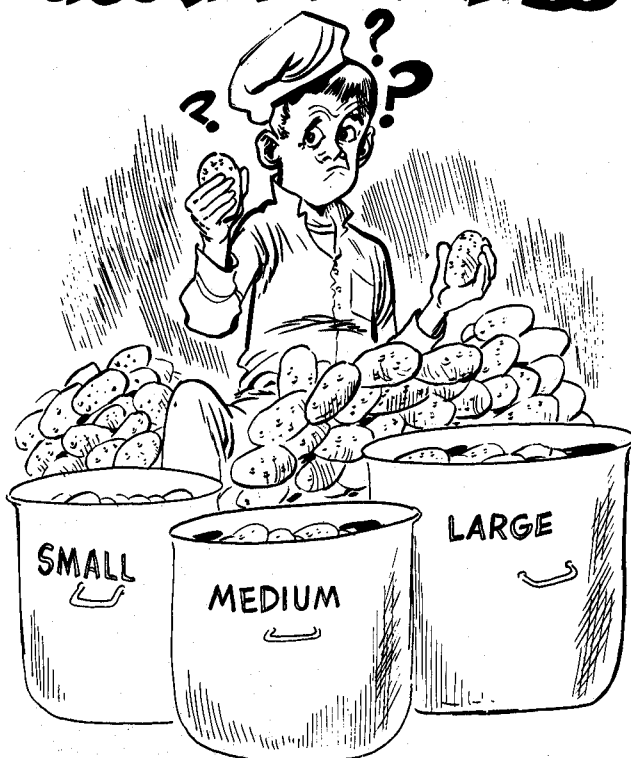
The leader must be alert for situations which produce frustration and pressure. He must strive to reduce their bad effects by training, counseling, arranging for professional assistance, providing external support, and setting a good example. Soldiers perform well only when their pressure and frustration is kept at an acceptable level.

APPLICATION!



decision making!

CHAPTER 10



Leaders make decisions everyday involving not only themselves, but the morale and welfare of their subordinates. Some decisions, such as when to take a break or where to store supplies are simple decisions which have little effect on others. Other decisions may be based on policies, procedures, or regulations. These are also simple decisions and are based on the leaders' knowledge and experience in similar situations.

Other decisions, such as what training to schedule for the coming month or which formation to choose when attacking an objective, are more complex and may have a significant effect on the men and unit. These more complex decisions often require the leader to consult others because he may not have all the pertinent information. This does not mean that he makes all simple decisions alone or that all complex decisions are made by consulting others. There are times when he will consult others on simple decisions. For example, should physical training be scheduled before breakfast, during mid-morning, during midafternoon, or at the close of the duty day? If this many alternatives are available, it may be wise to get additional information from several other sources before the

final decision is made. There will be times when, because of the situation or time available, immediate decisions will have to be made without consulting anyone, as in combat when time frequently is not available to consult others.

Decisionmaking is a conscious process for selecting a course of action from two or more alternatives for the purpose of achieving a desired result. There are three elements in this definition: choice, consciousness, and orientation toward a goal.

A decision cannot be made if the leader does not have a choice between courses of action. If only one choice is available, no decision is required. However, this does not mean that "to do nothing" is not an available course of action. On the contrary, to wait and see how a situation develops or to allow time to gather more facts is often a wise course of action. Decisionmaking must be a conscious process in order to avoid overlooking important factors which might vitally affect the decision. A well thought-out decision avoids the difficulties which may arise as the result of a snap decision. Further, decisions must be oriented toward the attainment of some

decision making! PROCESS

PHASES
Prepare

STEPS

Identify the problem---



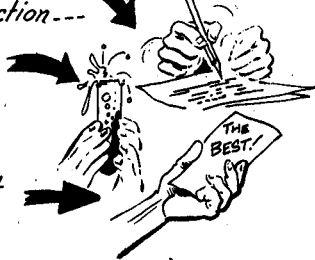
Gather information---



decide

Develop and list courses of action---

Analyze the courses of action ---



select the best course of action---

act

Implement & re-evaluate the solution---



meaningful goal. Otherwise, resources may be expended in reaching and carrying out decisions which do not contribute to the accomplishment of unit missions.

When a leader makes a decision, either with or without advice from others, he should arrive at it by a procedure which allows for logical consideration of all influencing factors and possibilities. The leader may go through this procedure quickly in his mind, or he may write it step-by-step in order to have all aspects of the problem covered and so that nothing is overlooked while he is considering and evaluating the possibilities.

The terms used here may differ from those you use to describe your own decisionmaking process, but the orderly progression from identification of the problem to re-evaluation of the decision is probably the same.

The decisionmaking process consists of three phases and contains six steps. The leader may not be able to identify exactly what the problem is. For example, suppose his unit has been dispatching 10 trucks daily, and suddenly he is able to dispatch only five. Is the problem a shortage of drivers, qualified mechanics, repair parts, POL, or is it one of motivation? As can be

seen from this example, identifying the problem may not be easy. Often, considerable time and effort may be expended in an effort to determine what the real problem is. The more clearly a problem is defined and isolated, the easier it is to arrive at a solution.

When the problem has been defined, the next step is to gather the information needed to solve the problem. In this step, all factors that affect the problem must be considered. Some of the information may not bear on the problem at hand. So the leader must sift through the information and use only that which applies to that specific problem. He must also realize that a person's attitude may alter information. So, when gathering the information to solve a problem, consider the attitude of the people providing the information so that you can allow for its impact on the information. For example, the motor sergeant tells the motor officer there is no problem getting repair parts when it actually takes 60 days to get parts. The motor sergeant may consider this to be a normal time delay, so to him it is no problem. To the motor officer, however, this may be totally unsatisfactory, and therefore a problem.

The second phase of the decisionmaking process is the decision phase. It involves developing courses of action, analyzing them, and selecting the best one to solve the problem. Step three, the development of courses of action, requires an analysis of the available information so as to determine whether each course of action will or will not solve the problem.

decision making!

"BRAINSTORMING" OR
"SKULL" SESSIONS
ARE USEFUL...





Conducting "brainstorming" or "skull" sessions is a good technique to use when there is difficulty in developing courses of action. Brainstorming is a creative technique which encourages several persons to suggest as many solutions to a problem as possible. The idea behind brainstorming is to allow each member of the group to give his suggestions without fear of criticism. Keep in mind that in these sessions, the emphasis is on quantity rather than on quality, especially since a "far-out" solution may trigger a workable idea from someone else in the group. Evaluate all suggestions following the session, and discard those that are not feasible.

After the courses of action have been developed, analyze each one to determine its good and bad points so that a better evaluation of each course of action can be made. Through this evaluation, the best course of action may be determined. A useful point to remember is that a course of action may appear worthless in itself, but when it is combined with a second course of action, it may become the best possible solution. Therefore, a good decisionmaker guards against letting his instinctive first reaction to a problem color the analyzing process. An open mind must be maintained throughout the decisionmaking process.

Up to this point in the decisionmaking process, several people may have been involved in the search for the best solution. Subordinates may have been used to research the problem, gather data, and develop and analyze the various courses of action. The leader should also, if time permits, talk to those directly concerned with the problem to gather additional information and, if possible, solicit their comments and cooperation in seeking the best solution.

The study of behavioral science has revealed that subordinates are more likely to support a plan or decision if they have had a part in its development. This technique will pay dividends in terms of increased motivation and better efficiency on the part of the unit. There will be situations when a leader must make decisions without consulting anyone. However, if a climate of discipline has been established, one-man decisions will be accepted readily.

Participation in the decisionmaking process must end when the decision is reached. Prior to this, the leader should encourage differences of opinion from all parties because honest differences are useful in determining the pros and cons of each alternative. The key is to encourage objective differences and to avoid emotionalism. Although this is a difficult task, the leader must train his subordinates to express their views objectively. This will allow him to make decisions based on what is right rather than on who is right. If personalities are allowed to creep into the decisionmaking process, there is a risk of having those personalities color the decision. After the decision is made, all subordinates must support it to the best of their ability.

There is another point to consider when making decisions. Sometimes the best course of action cannot be followed due to factors beyond the leader's control. For example, the best solution to the problem of moving a unit to a new location may be to load it all on helicopters and move it at one time. If, at the last minute, a sufficient number of helicopters is not available, the next best course of action must be chosen, which might be to move the unit in two lifts.

Once the decision is made, it is time to act. In this sixth step, the decision must be put into effect and then evaluated to insure that the desired results are being achieved. This evaluation is often a neglected step in the decisionmaking process. Because that which is a good decision today may not be a good decision tomorrow, all plans and policies must be continually re-evaluated. Additionally, one decision may create other problems within the organization. Therefore, a good decisionmaker builds a feedback mechanism into the plan to evaluate the effectiveness of his decisions. The various ways to get feedback are discussed in chapter 11.

The decisionmaking process, when viewed by itself, may appear as a rather mechanical one. Remember that in explaining or using the proc-



ess it is easy to isolate one area of concern from the overall situation and to examine it without regard for the other actions which are taking place. Decisions cannot be made this way. No one decision is isolated from the rest of the situation. Each one must be made in light of everything else that is taking place within the unit.

DECISIONMAKING ERRORS

An understanding of the decisionmaking process is critical. Of almost equal importance is familiarity with the errors which the leader can make during the development of a decision so that they can be avoided.

Perhaps the worst error in decisionmaking is attempting to solve immediate problems without regard to the long range effects of their solutions. In this fashion the leader often finds himself in a situation where, instead of reaching a "right" solution, he makes a never ending series of small adjustments which provide only temporary relief. Such remedial decisions do not promote the accomplishment of future goals.

Another error is an attempt by a leader to deal with the symptoms rather than the causes of a problem. It is too late for the leader to counsel the AWOL soldier when he returns. He should have counseled the man before he went AWOL and perhaps the AWOL could have been prevented. Additionally, leaders often look for the simple decision, whether it is the best one or not. Perhaps because simple decisions are easier to implement and explain, they are chosen over more complex decisions. Do not automatically choose the first simple approach to solving a problem. This is not to say that simple solutions are not often good, but each decision, whether simple or complex must be evaluated for its contribution toward the accomplishment of both the mission at hand and future unit goals.

Many leaders rely too much on their own experience instead of consulting with peers, subordinates, and others. The success which the leader enjoyed in a previous similar situation may have been due entirely to luck. Each leader must put his own experience in proper perspective and understand that shared decisionmaking often produces wiser decisions.

In some instances leaders base their decisions on preconceived notions. In these instances, the leader either "doctors" the facts to support his decision or uses only those facts which result in the preconceived decision. In order to reach the best possible decision, the leader must use the decisionmaking process with an open mind and with impartial consideration of all available facts.

Finally, a leader may try to "pass the buck." He does not want to make any decision himself and tries to get either his superiors or his subordinates to make the decision for him. He may feel that he is not prepared to accept the consequences of a bad decision and by getting someone else to make it for him, he will not be held responsible if the results are unsatisfactory.

The final point to consider about the decisionmaking process is that all decisions should be made at the lowest possible level within the chain of command. This practice will improve the motivation, the ability, and the efficiency of all leaders.

SUMMARY

Decisionmaking is a continual process involving interpersonal relationships from top to bottom in any organization. Before a good decision can be reached, the leader must first recognize the problem and gather all information needed to solve the problem. Second, he must develop, analyze, and select the best solution to the problem. Upon reaching a decision, he must inform those concerned of the decision and be alert for changing situations which may require his decision to be modified or changed.

Communication

CHAPTER 11



Through communication with others, the leader employs his command and issues his decisions for action. Without the ability to convey instructions and orders to subordinates clearly, the leader may as well operate in a vacuum, completely detached from his unit. A good plan is worthless unless every man in the unit understands his part.

Communication is "an exchange of information" or "a technique for expressing ideas clearly." Leaders are surrounded by barriers to communication and communication often breaks down. Muddled communication is a major Army problem.

FORMAL COMMUNICATION

Understanding the Army's formal communication system is the first step toward effective communication. This system is the chain of command which carries official information. Through the chain of command the leader issues instructions for the performance of unit tasks, conveys his policies and standards, and, conducts the "business" of the unit. It is a two-

way system in that; first, it carries information from the leader to all or to any part of the unit; and second, it carries information from within the unit to the leader.

A common assumption about the downward flow of information is that when the leader wants to pass information to his men, he merely inserts the information into the chain of command, and it is then transmitted throughout the unit reaching all those for whom it was intended.

It does not work that well. Frequently information is distorted, diluted, changed, or stopped before it reaches all those for whom it was intended. Usually, as information travels down the chain of command, it becomes more specific because refinements and details are added at each level through which it passes. A simple statement made by a commander could become a major project by the time it reaches lower levels. For example, the division commander may tell his G3, "I plan to visit the river-crossing exercise that A Company, 1st Battal-

UPWARD COMMUNICATION



DOWNWARD COMMUNICATION



ion, 69th Infantry, will conduct on Monday. Tell the CO I will be there around 1000 hours." By the time this information reaches the company commander, it may be an order to conduct a river-crossing demonstration at 1000 hours Monday for the division commander, and it may require rehearsals for the battalion and brigade commanders. Processing information at the various levels slows its flow and adds distortion. The information goes through personal filters at each level where additions and deletions are made based on interpretation. Some of the more common filters are—

- What the leader believes he "heard" (either verbally or in writing).
- What the leader believes his men should know.
- What the leader believes his men want to know.
- What the leader believes his boss wants him to pass along.
- What the leader thinks should be "toned down" or "built up."
- What the leader's values and attitudes do to the information.

- What stress, if any, the leader is operating under.
- What importance the leader attaches to the information.
- What the leader feels at the moment he is passing the information.

When we consider the filters that information must pass through at each level, it is understandable that distortion, dilution, or total loss of information occurs. Do not misunderstand these remarks. After all, it is the leader's job to filter messages in order to clarify them or add to them when required. The leader, however, should not allow his personal values, attitudes, beliefs, and feelings to filter communications inappropriately.

Upward communication or feedback is also vitally important. Leaders need upward communication to help them make and evaluate decisionmaking, policies and decisions and to foresee problems which they can plan to avoid.

A downward communication has the bosses' seal of approval behind it. A kind of gravity flow exists. On the other hand, feedback must go

Processing information!



upstream all the way; the "people filters" are more severe and cutting than those applied to downward communication. So it is more difficult to develop feedback. Some common filters that people apply to upward communication are—

- The notion that any opinion in opposition to a superior's idea is "negative thinking" and therefore bad.
- The notion that soldiers always gripe, and you should only worry when they don't.
- The belief that the information is unimportant and that the originator does not have the big picture in mind.
- The belief that superiors are not interested in the information.
- The belief that you will get into trouble for passing along this type of information.
- The belief that the information will reflect adversely on you, your ability, or your unit.
- The belief that your superiors only want to be told the good things and not the bad things.

Do not think that all filters are bad. Some serve a useful purpose. You should try to solve problems, take the required action, and pass on upward only significant information. You must determine what is significant and what is not. The acid test is to ask yourself whether you would need or like to have this information if you were the next leader up in the organization. If the answer is yes, pass it up the chain of command.

INFORMAL COMMUNICATION

In addition to the Army's formal communication system, there are a number of informal ones. These informal systems of exchanging information can exert either a helpful or a disruptive force within a unit.

One informal communication system is the lateral system. This is the exchange of information between leaders or staff members of equal levels in the organization. For instance, the platoon leaders inform each other of what they are doing and pass on to each other information they get from the company commander and other sources. For example, while leaders go to their own unit maintenance officers to get technical help in maintaining their equipment, they may also go directly to those of adjacent units or of direct support units to get help.

A second informal communication system is the social communication system. It is not confined to work problems or interests. Membership in

this system is based on social position within the unit. People group together to drink coffee, eat lunch, bowl, go out on the town, and have other social contacts outside working hours. This grouping depends on such things as skill or ability, job assignment, ethnic background, or taste and values.

These groups, and there may be any number of them in a unit, have significant influence on the unit. By standing together, members of a group can influence the commander's actions in regard to a policy, regulation, or procedure. When a new policy is released, for example, it is discussed in the group, which inevitably makes judgments concerning it. Each member of the group knows what the other's feelings are on the new policy. They usually all react to it in the same way. The reactions of these groups can give the leader valuable information on how his policies are viewed by the unit.

Social communication systems usually control the actions of their members. For example, the clerks in a finance section know what they consider to be a fair day's work. If a new clerk violates the standards of the group, the group can bring him into line by refusing to associate with him both on and off duty; he gets excluded from their trips to the movie and snack bar and from their nights out on the town; and, when his desk is overloaded, no one offers to help. The group can quickly force him to meet their standards or make his life so dissatisfying that he will seek transfer to a new unit.

Do not assume that social groups influence only the lower-ranking people. Every man in the organization, including high-ranking officers, is a member of some social group, and is influenced by it. As might be expected, formal communications are interpreted by such groups. These groups can make bad policy work, but they can also defeat the intent of a good policy.

The reaction of a social group to a policy is the direct result of the group's evaluation of that policy. The response of each member will conform to the standard set by the group. If they view the policy as bad, their collective actions can influence the actions of other members of the unit. The initiator of the policy may have to re-evaluate it to determine its worth to the unit. If it is a useful policy, then the unit members must be influenced to follow it; if it proves to be a poor one, it should be either rescinded or revised.

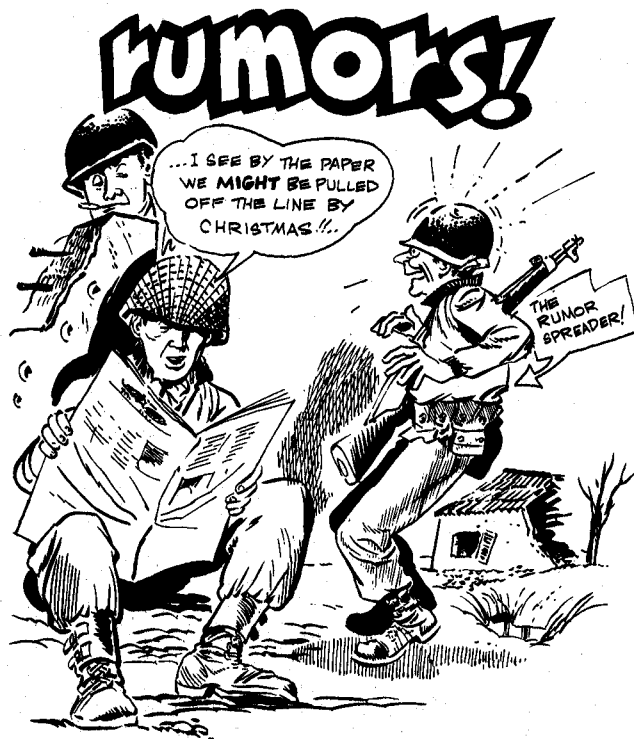
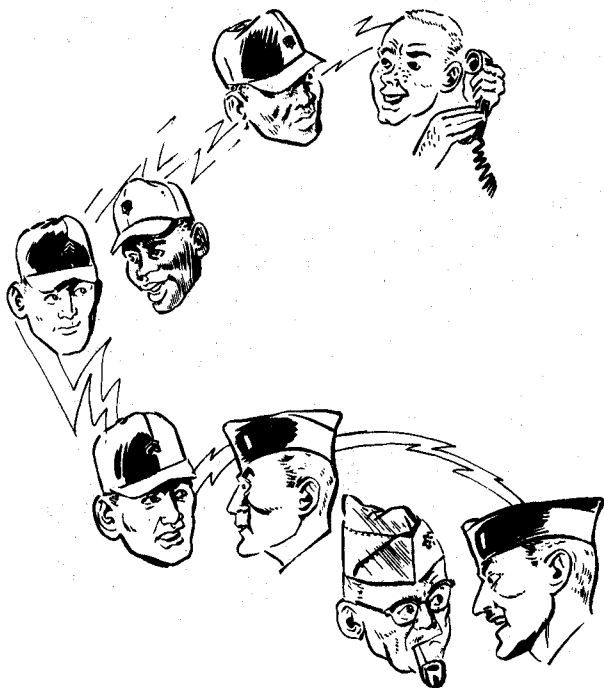
Leaders tend to distrust the influence of the

social groups and to think that they are not good for the unit. On the contrary, these groups can be potent forces for high morale and productivity. In fact, there is evidence that membership in these groups is among the most satisfying aspects of one's work. If the members of such a group like each other, like their leader, and identify with the unit's goals, their strength is tremendous. In fact, these informal groups can give the unit service and work effectiveness that the leader could not get through other means.

The leader's job in dealing with social groups is to see that they have ample and correct information, to understand their viewpoints, to transmit pertinent reactions upward through formal channels, and to be available to the groups as needed. The leader does this by knowing who the group's leaders are and by informally talking to them. In this way, he can get a feel for the social groups' reactions to the unit's activities. He can listen for useful ideas and insure that the social group is correctly informed. In short, the leader becomes the communications center for their messages.

The "grapevine" is the third informal communication system within the Army. It differs from other systems in that it uses the others in combination to pass on information. How much

the grapevine!

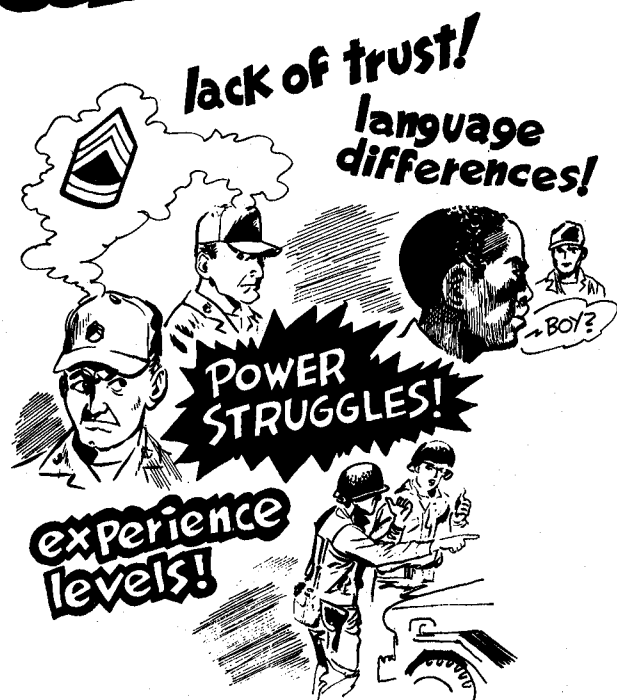


the various systems contribute to the dissemination of a communication depends on the significance of the communication concerned. The more importance a system attaches to the information, the more that system will help disseminate the information. The only communication system which does not usually become a part of the "grapevine" is the formal, or chain of command, system.

Everyone likes the information he hears to make good sense. If it does not make good sense, men sometimes invent additional information or interpret the fragmentary information received so that it does make sense, at least to them. This is the effect that the "grapevine" has on partial information, and on complete information which does not make sense. A leader may understand a situation while his soldiers may not. Therefore to avoid distortion of information in the "grapevine" system, make sure that enough information is available which provides a reasonable explanation for the situation at hand.

Sometimes a leader can influence the action by interpreting the information so that his men understand it correctly. If he himself does not understand the message, he should ask for clarification before passing the information to his men. There may be occasions, however, when this is not possible. In such cases, the leader must give his men the message and explain that he is trying to get it clarified.

barriers to Communication



Do not view "grapevine" as harmful. By evaluating the information being carried by the grapevine, you can learn more about what is going on within the unit. You may also use the grapevine to help identify problems within your unit or to determine how new policies are being accepted by your men.

If the information being passed in the grapevine is wrong or is a rumor that can injure the unit, the leader should act at once to bring out the facts concerning the subject of the rumor. As soon as you hear a rumor, determine what facts (if any) it is based on, gather the men concerned, and state: "So and so is a rumor, the facts are _____." If leaders take this action, the damage done by rumors will be curtailed. For example, a common rumor in a combat zone is that the troops will be home for Christmas. Often this type of rumor is based on a newspaper or magazine article which says, "X number of troops will be home for Christmas." The men may interpret the article as referring to their particular unit. In this case, it is up to the leader to explain that although some troops will be released to go home early, he does not know which units will be involved. He should further state that as soon as factual information is available, he will forward it. However,

once a rumor has been accepted, it is difficult to get troops to accept the facts. In some instances they may distort later news to make it coincide with the initial rumor. There seems to be little hope that rumors can ever be completely eliminated.

COMMUNICATION BARRIERS

Merely understanding the various communication systems in your unit will not guarantee that you will have good communication. There are barriers to communicating which can reduce the effectiveness of your unit.

The first of these barriers is distortion. When distorted communications finally come to the leader's attention, they are often complex and confusing. Often when a distorted message finally reaches the leader, it is difficult to separate facts from feelings and emotions. In this case, the leader should realize that he is dealing with the perceptions and prejudices of his men and must take action based on this knowledge. He must prevent his feelings from entering the picture and rely entirely on his awareness of the facts. By being objective, examining the reactions of his troops, and presenting them with the facts, he can replace the distorted communications with those which were originally intended. Furthermore, the leader must point out to his men that in this situation the

barriers to Communication!



message was distorted and that in the future care must be taken to prevent recurrence. The leader must make it clear that if men do not understand messages, they should question them.

Lack of an open exchange of information between the followers and the leader is another barrier to communication. Your men find it difficult to "level" with you, particularly if your actions have resulted in failure or faulty operations. It is difficult for them to tell you that "you goofed" for fear of your reaction.

Lack of trust will also be a barrier to communication. What your men believe you have done with previously reported information will influence what they will report in the future. If reporting bad news previously resulted in a "chewing out" from you, future small failures may not be reported to you. Similarly, if your men sense that nothing they report is acted upon, they will stop communicating with you.

Language or word differences can also create communication barriers. We often fail to understand clearly some words or terms used in conversation. There are different connotations and meanings attached to words in various sections of the country and by different racial, occupational, and other groups. For example, many people use the term "boy" in everyday speech—such as, "Boy, you sure did a good job today." Most people receive this message as it was intended—as a compliment. On the other hand, another man may take the term "boy" as a demeaning or degrading remark. These differences can block understanding.

Personality clashes and power struggles within a unit can reduce communication to zero. If two squad leaders are trying to outdo each other to get the platoon sergeant's job, conditions in that platoon will probably deteriorate so that no communication will exist. Lateral communication between the squad leaders will stop, and each will probably be so interested in making himself look good at the expense of the other that the teamwork within the platoon will disappear. This friction may range from noticeable tension to open conflict. The leader should strive to identify and analyze a stressful situation, determine the cause, and eliminate it. While some conflicts are conscious acts, many may not be recognized as such by the participants.

An additional barrier to communication may be caused by experience levels within a unit. In one case, an experienced leader may view a new

man as not knowing anything, or he may assume that the new man knows everything that he, the leader, knows. In the first instance, the man's intelligence is insulted, and in the second instance he is unable to perform as the leader expected. In another case, a newly commissioned lieutenant and an experienced platoon sergeant may not be able to communicate unless they are aware of this barrier and try to overcome it. The platoon leader must seek advice or ask questions when he does not understand or is uncertain of his actions. The platoon sergeant must recognize the difference in experience and support the platoon leader by, to begin with, clear communications.

A lack of confidence and respect between a leader and a subordinate can block communication. For example, if you give a man guidance on how to perform a task and he has little or no confidence in you as a leader, he may disregard your instructions, change them to what he thinks they should be, or perform at a low standard.

If leaders at all levels pass information as they would like to receive it, problems will be reduced. This also applies to the content of the communication. Voice, tone, volume, emphasis, and body expression are important aspects of communication which cannot be overlooked. Inappropriateness in any of these items can focus attention on something other than the intent of the communication. For example, a leader who, while giving instructions, leans forward, raises the volume of his voice, makes forceful gestures, and looks directly into his listener's eyes, imparts urgency and importance to his message. The same message, delivered by the same leader in a soft voice, body half turned, hands hanging loosely at his sides, and eyes downcast, will not convey the same meaning.

Each communication must be given in a manner which allows no room for misinterpretation by the receiver. For example, a helicopter pilot was given the mission of capturing an enemy soldier who was separated from his unit and running through a field. As the helicopter landed near the fleeing enemy soldier, the pilot ordered his door gunner, "Get him!" What were the door gunner's actions? Did he "get him" by firing with his machinegun or did he "get him" by leaving the helicopter and physically capturing him? The order, "get him" is subject to interpretation by the door gunner, and the door gunner's actions may not be what was intended by the pilot.

COMMUNICATION BREAKDOWNS

Circumstances which completely disrupt the flow of communication are communication breakdowns. Things that compete for a person's attention may breakdown communication.

Competition for attention occurs when a person receiving the communication is trying to do several things at once. When you are interrupted, one solution is to stop what you are doing, clear your mind, then concentrate on the new subject until you understand the situation completely. "A satisfactory way" might be to put off the matter for later consideration, or it may be to do something immediately. Either way, you have taken care of the interruption and can get back to the work you were doing originally. However, if you are on the other side of the fence and are the person doing the interrupting, you must handle the situation differently. Your first step is to recognize that the other person is busy and, if your business will wait, let it. If you must interrupt, limit your interruption to as short a time as possible, making certain that you have the full attention of the other person. This may be hard to judge, especially if you are talking over the telephone. Once you are satisfied that the person is giving you his full attention, explain your problem to him and wait for his reaction. A good way to check how well he has understood you is to ask him what action he is going to take.

A communication breakdown often results from a situation that affects the self-esteem of the parties involved. Situations do occur in which your men feel that their self-esteem is threatened. In such cases, if you are aware that some of your men do not get along with each other, consider this when giving one of them a message that must go to or through the other. A solution is to have them talk out their differences or to transfer one or both of them so they do not interfere with communication.

Uncertainty in what is expected may also lead to a breakdown in communication. When a man does what he thinks he is supposed to do, but actually does not do what his leader expected him to do, there is a lack of communication between them. For example, if a platoon leader tells his platoon sergeant to have the men do a "good" job cleaning up the barracks and if they both understand what the other's standard of "good" is, there will be no problem. If they do not understand each other's standards, however, there will obviously be a breakdown in their communication. The platoon sergeant may have the men scrub the barracks from top

to bottom, although all the platoon leader wanted them to do was sweep the floor. Such communication failures could be avoided if the leader would require feedback from his subordinates. Many subordinates, when given a new task, hesitate to ask questions because they do not want to ask what may seem to be a silly question. They may think the boss does not want them to ask a lot of questions or that the boss wants them to be resourceful enough to decide things for themselves. To overcome these hesitations, the leader must create an atmosphere in which his men can feel free to ask questions. He must be careful to avoid an atmosphere of "Ask when you should, but don't ask when you shouldn't." One way to insure that subordinates understand directives given them is to ask "what" they understand rather than "if" they understand. Such questions as "What are you going to do?" or "How are you going to handle this problem?" put the subordinate on the spot and make him give a concrete answer. On the other hand, a question such as "Do you understand?" tends to make the subordinate say yes, whether he understands or not.

Misunderstandings often occur when a person uses a word to describe an action or event

Communication



rather than describing the action or event. For example, saying there was a fight between Privates Smith and Jones is quite different from saying Private Smith and Private Jones do not like each other and had an argument last night over what they were going to watch on the dayroom television set.

Oftentimes, within a unit or group of men, words will assume special meanings, i.e., they become jargon. Such words may not be understood by new men or men outside the unit. For example, "Give me a Tango Charlie" instead of "Give me a timecheck" will confuse those who have not been associated with the unit.

Jargon should not be used when dealing with men who may not understand exactly what is stated or requested.

We know how personal filters affect communication. Such filters obviously affect communication most when there are many people in the communication chain. It is difficult to commu-

nicate urgency to people who are not directly involved with the outcome of the event. If a message is passed along by several people, the original sense of urgency is often lost, the emphasis may be changed, or details may be dropped out or added.

The leader must decide which is the best way to solve communication breakdowns in his organization. He should be on guard for communication breakdowns if the following warning signs are present: the message has heavy competition because one of the people involved is busy doing something else; the people involved have personality conflicts, are competing for status, or are attempting to discredit each other; the message concerns a policy change which might lead to confusion; or the message has to travel down a long communication chain made up of many people. Any of these situations can break down communication. If the leader is aware of these situations, he can take the steps to guard against or remedy a communication failure.

SUMMARY

Few people will argue with the statement that "Leadership is the key to the success of the Army." Communicating is the very essence of leadership because no leader is effective unless he can communicate.

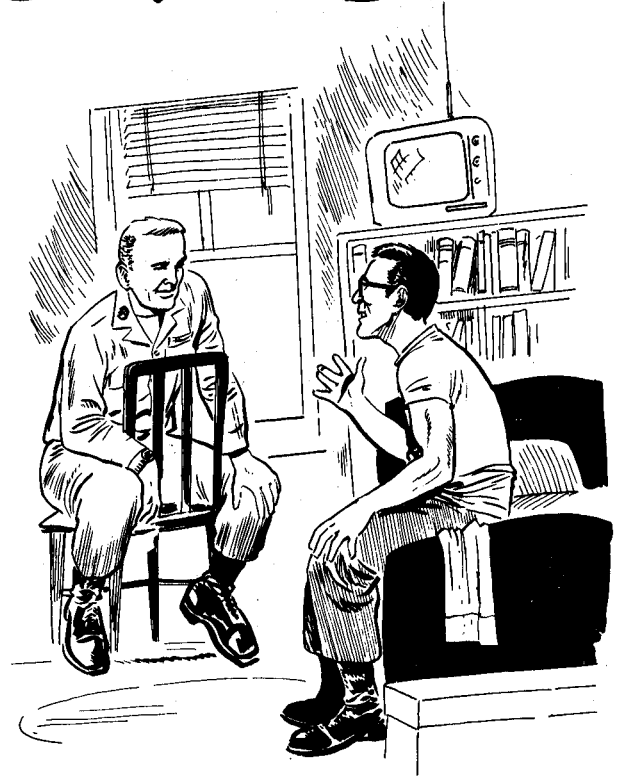
All leaders are aware of the formal communication system; however, the effective communicator will also consider the informal communication systems which exist within his unit: work-relationships system, social-relationships system, and the "grapevine." Each of these systems has its own membership. They can have great influence on the unit and, if used and controlled properly, can be a great asset to a leader.

Through an awareness of the barriers to communicate, the leader can decide which communication system to use, how to reduce the effects of the barriers, and where to look should breakdowns occur. Good communication does not just happen—it must be developed and maintained by each and every leader.

An important facet of the leader's responsibility for developing and maintaining effective communication is that of counseling. In the next chapter, this responsibility for communicating with subordinates on a personal basis and its significance as a means of influencing their behavior will be discussed.

counseling!

CHAPTER 12



Counseling is one of the key elements of leadership. Counseling aims at changing things for the better in the relationship, behavior, and functioning of persons. It is a process for assisting a person to find answers to his problems. It is helping a person to help himself.

Counseling is the art of communicating advice, instruction, or judgment, with the intent of influencing a person's attitude or behavior. It may be conducted either formally or informally. It may range from a "pat on the back" for doing a good job to having a man stand at attention for a "chewing out." It may be conducted in the motor pool, under a tree, or in an office under more formal conditions. No matter how or where counseling is performed, it is an essential and good part of leadership.

THE EFFECTIVE COUNSELOR

In order to be an effective counselor, each leader must first be available to his men. This is demonstrated not merely by having an "open door" policy, but by being available whenever a soldier requires assistance.

Leaders should admit to themselves that they have particular likes, dislikes, biases, and prejudices and that they must be careful not to let these interfere with the relationship between themselves and their men. Recognizing the possibility of intrusion into the life of the counselee, the leader should maintain a reputation for being able to keep a confidence. Additionally, instead of trying to solve every problem himself, he should encourage the counselee to solve his own problems. The approach, "I had a problem just like yours," should be avoided. The counselee is interested in solving his own problems, not the leaders.

A leader as a counselor, does three things:

1. He provides encouragement and support for change in the counselee.
2. He provides information in the form of knowledge and sources of knowledge that will help the counselee improve.
3. He plays a reinforcing role or an evaluative role in that he reinforces the counselee's expressions of feelings or presents ideas that will tend to help him improve performance or

solve his own problems. Ideas that do not help the counselee should not be reinforced. To prevent reinforcement of the ideas that are not related to the problem at hand, guide the discussion away from them.

The leader should be observant, able to communicate, and flexible in his use of a variety of counseling techniques. He must see the man he is counseling as well as listen to him, because observation of the man's actions during the course of the counseling session will tell him whether the man understands what he is being told, whether he accepts what he is being told. This information will help the leader to know what needs elaboration, what requires follow-up, and what points need to be emphasized.

Communication is a two-way flow of information. The leader should be able to communicate clearly, concisely, and without "beating around the bush." He must express himself in terms that can be understood. He must also be a good listener. If the leader is conscious only of what he feels and what he is going to say next, the counselee is not getting the attention and assistance he requires.

GOOD PERFORMANCE COUNSELING

One important aspect of counseling is that it should not, in fact it must not, be used solely to point out and attempt to improve poor performance. As was mentioned in the chapters on needs and motivation, it is most important to satisfy men's need for self-esteem if they are to perform well. Through counseling for good performance the leader can at least partially satisfy this need and motivate his men to continue to perform well.

In counseling for good performance, try to be specific, in order to emphasize and reinforce behavior that is particularly noteworthy. In this way the soldier will be rewarded for good behavior and will, because of the personal satisfaction gained, want to repeat that behavior.

TYPES OF COUNSELING

Leaders must use a type of counseling appropriate to the situation in order to best satisfy the needs of their soldiers. Each type of counseling is aimed at solving a particular type problem by using a specific approach. Four types of counseling are:

- Performance counseling*
- Personal counseling*
- Professional counseling*
- Career counseling*

Limitations of the counselor!

I THINK WE'D BETTER CONSULT THE CHAPLAIN!

RECOGNIZE
YOUR PERSONAL
LIMITATIONS!



The first of these, performance counseling, is to assist in improving the job performance of a man or a unit. It can also be used to maintain a level of performance that already exists. Through performance counseling a soldier can be told of his poor performance and how it can be improved; and of his good performance so that he may continue.

Personal counseling is used to help a man reach a solution to a personal problem which pertains to himself. These problems may involve rank and promotion, job assignment, discrimination, financial problems, family problems or any problem involving his well being.

In many cases, the information or expertise required to help a man solve a problem is not available at unit level. For this reason, the Army has people and agencies which offer professional counseling. Professional counseling is conducted by men who are qualified in specialized fields such as medicine, law, religion, or finance.

When a soldier has a problem beyond the expertise of the leader, he should be willing to refer the soldier to the proper expert or agency. After arranging a meeting for a soldier for professional counseling the leader's work is not fin-

ished. He must question the person to see if he has reached a solution for his problem. He may work with the professional counselor, giving assistance where appropriate.

Career counseling is that which informs men concerning a career in the Army. Leaders should counsel as necessary and appropriate to supplement the work of their unit career counselors. Career counseling is not intended to replace or be combined with any other form of counseling.

APPROACHES TO COUNSELING

Successful counseling calls for the sensitive and flexible use of a variety of interviewing techniques by the leader. It is not enough to use proper English or read a number of points for improvement from a list. The counselor's objective is to influence the course of the interview so as to motivate the counselee to participate in a way most likely to bring about understanding by both parties.

DIRECTIVE APPROACH

There are three approaches which may be used. The first of these is directive counseling. The best way for the leader to decide whether or not to be directive is to determine where the information necessary to solve the person's problems is to be found. If that information is in manuals, SOPs, special materials or if the facts are in the leader's mind, the directive approach is used. In the directive counseling approach, the leader may give advice and make certain decisions such as the type of information that would be meaningful to the counselee. In directive counseling, the leader can take the required action up to the actual decision. The decision is always more satisfactory when the counselee reaches it himself. Leaders may seek out the person who needs counseling in the directive approach. However, they should avoid giving advice and direction in a way that hinders the subordinate in his self-expression and the development of his own self-reliance. Directive counseling should be used for things such as unsatisfactory performance and letters of indebtedness. This approach is used most often in performance counseling.

NONDIRECTIVE APPROACH

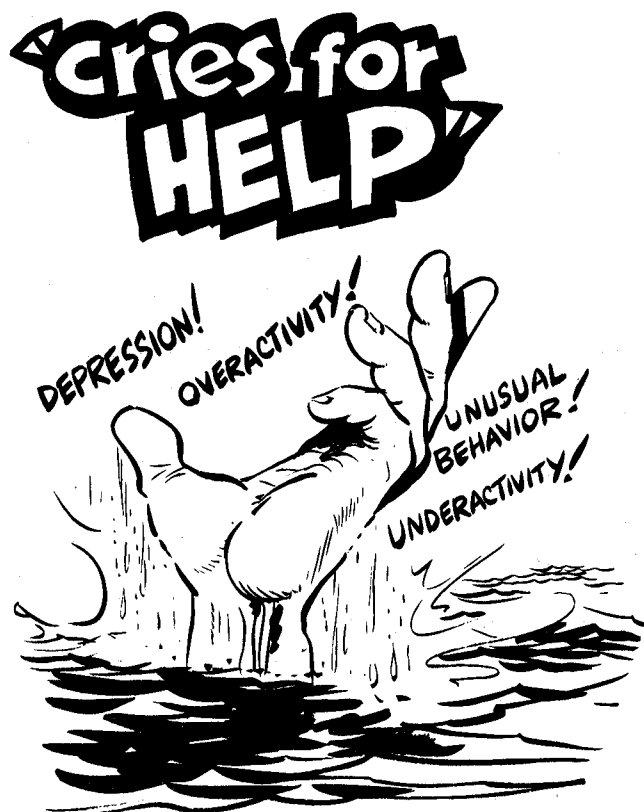
If the information is not in manuals, SOPs, or in the leader's mind, it probably concerns a personal matter. In this instance, the nondirective approach should be used. You should persuade the counselee to solve his own problem with your help and guidance. This can be done

by helping him examine the problem logically and to develop a feasible solution. The non-directive counselor takes the approach that the person with a problem must take full responsibility for solving the problem, and the counselor aids him in its solution only by helping him to remove self-constructed obstacles. With the non-directive approach, the man with the problem initiates the counseling relationship. The counselor listens to his problem, helps him to gain insight, and provides information as he requests it. Throughout the relationship, the counselor gives the counselee the feeling that he has found a fellow human being who is interested in trying to understand him and is concerned with helping him to find a solution to adjust to a troublesome situation.

The nondirective counselor must be a good listener. Nondirective counseling should be used in situations when a man is dissatisfied with his job, request career guidance, or is having financial difficulties.

ELECTIC APPROACH

The last approach, the eclectic approach, combines the directive and nondirective approaches to assist a person to make the proper adjustments or to solve his own problems as efficiently as possible. The counselor may be



more directive initially, until the counselee "opens up." He then could resort to being non-directive and hear the counselee out by being a good listener, commenting and responding where necessary. Just as in the other approaches, the counselor encourages the counselee to make the final decision and take necessary action.

Not all soldiers will ask for help. Therefore, the leader must know his men well enough to recognize their need for assistance. Some indications of silent cries for help that leaders should learn to recognize and answer are—

1. A good performer begins to perform below par consistently.
2. A normally attentive man suddenly displays a lack of attentiveness or concentration.
3. A moderate drinker begins to drink excessively.
4. A man is involved in deliberate acts of misconduct or refuses to follow instructions.
5. A man lingers after a meeting to talk, posing such questions as, "What if a person has a problem?"

Counseling is conducted for many reasons such as: factfinding; informing; and altering opinions, feelings, and behavior. The counseling interview is really nothing more than a communicating process in which a leader interviews a person to find out something from him, to tell him something, or to effect some change in him. It is quite possible—even usual—for an interview to have more than one purpose, but ordinarily, one purpose will predominate.

PREPARATION FOR COUNSELING

Up to this time we have been talking about the leader and what he should be and do during the counseling interview. However, prior to conducting the counseling interview, he will have to make the proper preparation. When preparing for the counseling interview, the leader should consider advance notification, allotment of time, plan of action for conduct of the interview, physical setting, and the general atmosphere. Whenever possible, the counselee should be notified in advance of the time of the interview. This permits him to think about his performance, or his problem, and to be prepared to discuss it. Sufficient time should be allotted for the interview so that neither the counselor nor the counselee will feel rushed. While a large amount of work to be accomplished may place restrictions on the amount of time available, try

to allow sufficient time. No interview can be a success if the participants feel rushed.

A general plan of action for the conduct of the interview should be developed. However, since flexibility is imperative in counseling, a highly detailed plan is not advised. For a general interviewing plan, the leader must have his objective clearly in mind. He should review all background information so that he can develop a general plan for conducting the interview. This will primarily involve deciding upon the sequence of that which he wishes to discuss and the point which he wishes to make about each item.

The place where the interview is to be conducted is also very important. An uncomfortable or disturbing location causes distractions and reduces motivation of the counselee to actively participate in the interview. Privacy is also essential, both to prevent distractions and to maintain a confidential atmosphere.

The leader should endeavor to create an informal atmosphere. This means that the counselee should be allowed to sit, smoke, and freely discuss the items with the leader. High levels of formality are not conducive to good motivation and openness during the interview.

CONDUCTING THE INTERVIEW

Having properly prepared for the interview, the next step is to interview the man in question. The opening few minutes are probably the most critical phase of the interview because in this time the stage is set and the atmosphere created for the entire interview. Accordingly, an objective of the leader during the opening phase should be to establish a relationship with the counselee in which both feel at ease. From the outset, strive to relieve any tension. This can be done by showing acceptance of the counselee, letting him feel his views are important, and that he is not forced to discuss them. The objectives of the interview can be explained at this time and the counselee should be drawn into the discussion quickly.

In the discussion, the leader should guide the interview. This should be done inconspicuously. For example, without being too forceful, he can invite the counselee back from detours, escapes, fruitless conversation, etc., by the use of brief questions.

In almost every instance, the counselee should be given a way to "save face." This means that the leader should not push the counselee into a position from which he cannot retreat without

embarrassment. This point is important because an assault upon the personal integrity of the counselee drastically reduces his motivation. Under no circumstances should the counselor allow himself to be trapped into an argument with the person being counseled.

Sometimes the discussion may slow down; however, momentum can be revived by keeping the purposes of counseling in mind and by asking questions. The questions asked should be adapted to the purpose of the counseling session; so no one set of questions will do for every interview. Certain types of questions can be used to advantage in almost all interviews or counseling sessions. The "W" questions, WHO, WHAT, WHERE, WHEN, WHY are extremely valuable because they fit so many situations. They are especially useful in getting detailed answers and in saving time. Although the "yes-no" question may be used to commit the counselee or to get a better understanding, they should be used sparingly. The "yes-no" question must be followed by another question to get more detailed and useful information.

In trying to motivate the counselee, the leader is striving to influence his behavior. Influence attempts may take many forms and, in the course of an interview, several or all of the forms may be used depending upon the course

taken by the interview and by the behavior of the counselee during the interview. Some of the forms of influence which may be used are: mapping alternatives, recommending, advising, persuading, urging, commanding, and threatening.

When it is apparent that the purpose of the interview has been accomplished, steps should be taken to close the conversation and dismiss the counselee in graceful manner and in a friendly atmosphere. The interview should be closed when all points have been covered, when the counselee has had ample time to understand, and when the conversation is at a natural stopping point. If any action is to be taken by the counselor such as to submit a report, make a record of the session, etc., the counselee should be so informed. If time is critical and the counselee appears to want to continue a general discussion of his situation, it may be suggested that the interview can be continued later at a mutually convenient time. Even though the counseling interview is over, that does not mean that the job is over. Certain follow-up actions must be taken.

The leader must continue to evaluate performance and he must check to insure the personal problems no longer exist. If problems still exist, further counseling is necessary.

SUMMARY

All leaders must be good counselors. Their objectives are to reinforce good behavior or to help men who have problems to help themselves. Accomplishment of this task requires an understanding and the application of the proper techniques and approaches to the various types of counseling.

effective leader

CHAPTER 13



Challenge and opportunity characterize the role of the Army leader. He is challenged by the scope and diversity of his assignments and finds continuing opportunity to assume responsibility and develop resourcefulness. Furthermore, the leader finds an urgent need to use all of his personal resources in perhaps the most demanding of all tasks—the leadership of men.

Previous chapters have discussed the fundamentals of leadership and the personal standards required of the leader. Aspects of individual and group behavior were discussed to make the leader aware of the interaction between himself and his men and between the members of his unit. Also, some of the processes

of leadership were discussed which require direct leader action. The intent of this chapter is to bring the leader into focus and relate his role to all that was previously presented.

COMMAND EFFECTIVENESS

Influence sets leadership apart from other command functions such as management which deals with the use of all available resources. Although the effect upon personnel must be considered regardless of the command function, leadership is the only one that is directly and fundamentally concerned with influencing men and organizations.

The effectiveness of the leadership process can

be judged only in terms of the results obtained. Accordingly, each leadership act, each leadership decision, and each consideration of a leadership problem should have as its primary consideration its effect on performance. The ultimate measurement of effective leadership is the quality of performance demonstrated by the men, singly and as a unit. Performance as a measurement requires every action and decision to be compared to the standard of "good performance." Because a leader is only as good as the results he gets, he is a failure if he cannot influence his troops to perform their duties.

LEADING A UNIT

Full use of men requires the organization of duties and functions so as to get the most productive performance from their human capabilities. It requires recognition of men as a resource having individual abilities, limitations, and characteristics which require the same attention and maintenance as any other resource. It also requires recognition of the human resource as people who have personalities, emotions, legal status, and control over how much and how well they perform. Therefore, men require motivation, satisfaction, rewards, inspiration, and consideration. Failure to recognize these requirements can cause serious problems and an ineffective unit.

LEADING SUBORDINATES

The necessity for recognizing the individuality of subordinates takes nothing away from the leader. He must still provide guidance, make decisions, see that plans are made, see that subordinate performance is satisfactory, and so on. However, he is responsible for seeing that work gets done, rather than doing it himself. He, therefore, often faces the problem of relations between himself and his subordinates. He must create a relationship that will not damage, but will contribute to the main effort of mission accomplishment. This requires recognition of individuality in each of his men and using this knowledge in exercising leadership.

Accomplishment of missions through the actions of others requires a leader to know how to communicate with his men, how to get his men to communicate with him, how to transform information into decisions, and how to convert his decisions into action.

The leader must create good working conditions, not with the sole idea of making his men "feel happy," but so that he can best accomplish the mission. Undoubtedly, creating a good working climate takes time, energy, and pati-

**..not just a body in a
green suit!**



ence. In fact, if the leader does not develop good working conditions and involve his men in accomplishing the unit mission, the costs in terms of wrong decisions, wasted talent, personal frustrations, and inefficiency will be great. The leader will be most effective if he creates conditions whereby his men are motivated and their capabilities exploited.

LEADERSHIP STYLES

Styles of leadership vary depending on the leader's personality, his men, and the situation. Style has long been a topic of discussion and consideration among men and their leaders alike. Although it is an interesting topic for discussion, in the final analysis, the proper style for any leader is that which helps him lead best.

Leaders are not restricted to any one stereotyped style of leadership. In fact, one man may, depending on the situation, use an authoritarian style in one instance and a democratic style in another.

A completely *authoritarian* leader reserves control for himself. A *democratic* leader in-



a leader's style is important!

volves his men in making a decision, but reserves the decision for himself.

The leader can choose the style of leadership which will best assist him in mission accomplishment. Before the selection is made, however, he must realize that he is responsible for everything his unit does or fails to do. He should, therefore, be prepared to adjust his style depending on the results he gets. His style is influenced by the many facets of his personality, value system, confidence in subordinates, knowledge, and leadership inclinations.

His value system will influence his style selection because if he feels that a leader should make all decisions, then he will. If he feels that subordinates should share in making decisions, he will tend to select a style that supports this value. The degree of confidence in his men will also influence his style. If he has no confidence in his men then the leader will probably not involve them in decisions. Closely associated with this idea is whether or not the leader feels he is better qualified, because of his knowledge, to make the decision. Often he will have more faith, justifiably or not, in his own abilities. The leader who is unsure of his ability is more inclined to be authoritarian than participative. Authoritarian leaders often feel that if they

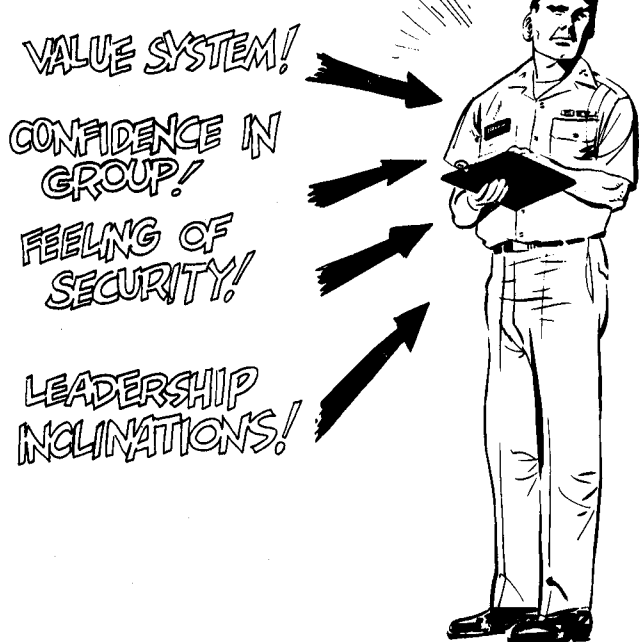
release any control in decisionmaking, they may not be able to predict the outcome, and therefore their security may be threatened.

These are but some of the personal variables that affect the choice of leadership style. If a leader realizes that these forces, either consciously or unconsciously, influence his style, he will be better able to understand his actions and, hopefully, act so as to be a better leader.

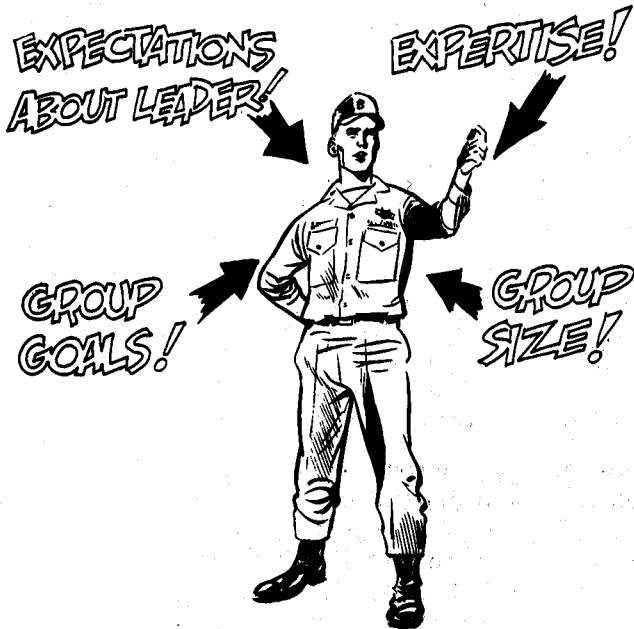
The group or unit also influences the leader's style selection. He must realize that his men, like himself, have many personal variables that affect their behavior. Additionally, the size of the group, the group goals, the group expertise, and the expectations the group has of the leader are a few of the group-related factors that the leader should understand before selecting his style. The better a leader understands these factors, the better will be his style.

How much these factors affect the leader's style selection will depend primarily on the amount of confidence and respect the leader and subordinates have for each other. If this mutual confidence and respect is high, then it matters little what style he selects in a given situation.

forces in the leader influencing his style!



GROUP influencing leader's style!



People usually do not react to variations in a leader's style or behavior if they respect and trust him. Wide variations in behavior and style should, however, be kept to a minimum. If wide variations continue for a period of time, confidence and respect may diminish and unit efficiency will decrease.

In addition to the forces which exist in a leader and in his men, certain characteristics of each situation also affect a leader's behavior. Some of the more critical ones are the Army as a whole, the unit, the nature of the situation, and the time available. Let us examine each of these.

Like individuals, organizations have values and traditions which influence the behavior of the people who are assigned to them. The leader who is newly assigned to a unit quickly finds that certain kinds of behavior are accepted while others are not. For example, a leader who has used a totally authoritarian style of leadership is assigned to an effective company where the prevalent style is democratic leadership. He may re-evaluate his style because of his observations and the perception that, because the company is effective, democratic leadership works.

Before choosing a style of leadership, the leader must consider how well his men work together and the degree of confidence that they have in

their ability to solve problems. Finally, such things as cohesiveness, mutual acceptance, and commonality of purpose will also influence the group's functioning.

The nature of the problem may also influence the style the leader will use. He must determine whether or not his subordinates have the required knowledge before allowing them to make a decision. The key question to ask in any case is, "Have I heard the ideas of everyone who can make a significant contribution to the solution of this problem?"

The pressure of time is perhaps the most clearly felt pressure on the leader. The more he feels the need for an immediate decision, the more difficult it is to involve other people. In units which are in a constant state of "crisis" and "crash projects," one is likely to find leaders using a high degree of authoritarian leadership with little involvement of subordinates. When time pressure is reduced, however, it becomes more feasible to bring subordinates in on the decisionmaking process.

These, then, are the principal forces that influence the leader and determine his behavior in relation to his subordinates. Only after evaluating all of these forces can the leader choose a style of leadership. In those cases where time is not critical and men are knowledgeable and confident of their abilities, the democratic leadership style might be best. In other instances where time is critical and the leader has the knowledge to make the decision, the authoritarian style may be the only choice. Because there is no one style which is best in all instances, the leader's style should ideally be that which attains his immediate goal within the limits facing him.

As he looks ahead, however, he can take a somewhat different outlook. He is not controlled by all of the forces mentioned because he can look at them as variables over which he has some control. He can, for example, gain new skills for himself, train his subordinates, and provide them with experience in making decisions.

In trying to control these variables, however, the leader must decide what he wants to accomplish. When free of the pressure of immediate missions, most leaders desire to—

- improve subordinate motivation.
- increase subordinate willingness to accept change.
- improve quality of subordinate performance.

- develop teamwork and morale.

The accomplishment of these long-range objectives is the leader's goal.

SKILLS OF LEADERSHIP

Sound leadership is not based on guesswork or native ability; its fundamentals can be analyzed and cultivated by most men. In fact, this manual is based on the belief that intuitive leadership alone is not sufficient. The leader can improve his performance through study, analysis of his own leadership behavior, and practice.

Taken alone, however, no amount of knowledge will improve insight and judgment or increase the ability to act wisely under conditions of responsibility. A person may know everything in this manual and still be a poor leader. There are no single clear cut answers to most leadership problems. Each situation should be treated as a new one, requiring imagination, understanding, and skillful action. A leader must be concerned with evaluating events and finding appropriate courses of action. If, a leader exploits the ideas presented in this manual, evaluation of the situation will show him which direction his actions must take.

INDICATORS OF LEADERSHIP

There are four characteristics of a unit which indicate success or failure in the exercise of military leadership—morale, discipline, esprit de corps, and proficiency. These indicators can be used as a gauge for measuring a unit's effectiveness.

Certain factors may have an effect on more than one of the indicators. For example, a low delinquency rate might indicate not only good discipline, but high morale and esprit de corps. Although discipline, esprit de corps, and proficiency are dependent on the degree of morale present, all four are of equal importance. The other three depend on morale because it is the sum total of all the attitudes of the soldier. Morale is the fertile soil in which the seeds of discipline, esprit de corps, and proficiency are sown. Thus, while the leader should strive for increasing morale, his efforts must always be directed toward building all of the indicators of leadership. The absence or reduction of one indicator could adversely affect to destroy the others.

MORALE

Morale is the person's state of mind. It depends on his attitude toward everything that affects him—his fellow soldiers, his leaders, Army life

in general, and other things important to him. Morale is closely related to the satisfying of man's needs. If the training, administering, and fighting of a unit is conducted so that the man's needs are satisfied, a favorable attitude will be developed. High morale is a state of mind which gives the soldier a feeling of confidence and well-being that enables him to face hardship with courage, endurance, and determination.

The state of morale is constantly changing. The morale of a unit is a measurement of the leader's ability.

The leader can measure morale by close observation of his men in their daily activities, by inspections and by talking to his men. Specific items to note are:

- Appearance.
- Personal conduct.
- Standards of military courtesy.
- Personal hygiene.
- Use of recreational facilities.
- Excessive quarreling.
- Harmful or irresponsible rumors.
- Condition of mess and quarters.
- Care of equipment.
- Response to orders and directives.
- Job proficiency.
- Motivation during training.

Evaluation of administrative reports can also aid in measuring morale. Particularly valuable are reports which concern:

- Arrests, military or civil.
- Damage to, or loss of equipment through carelessness.
- Family problems.
- Indebtedness.
- Malingers.
- Men absent without leave and deserters.
- Requests for transfer.
- Self-inflicted wounds.
- Sick call rate.
- Stragglers.
- Reenlistment rates.

ESPRIT DE CORPS

Esprit de corps is the loyalty to, pride in, and enthusiasm for the unit shown by its members. Whereas morale refers to the attitude of the soldier, esprit de corps is the unit spirit. It is the common spirit reflected by all members of a unit and provides group solidarity. It implies

devotion and loyalty to the unit and all for which it stands, and a deep regard for the unit's history, traditions, and honor. Esprit de corps is the unit's personality and expresses the unit's will to fight and win in spite of seemingly insurmountable odds. Esprit de corps depends on the satisfaction the members get from belonging to a unit, their attitudes towards other members of the unit, and confidence in their leaders. Evaluation of esprit de corps concerns:

Expressions from the men showing enthusiasm for and pride in their unit.

A good reputation among other units.

A strong competitive spirit.

Willing participation by the members in unit activities.

Pride in the traditions and history of the unit.

Readiness on the part of the men to help one another.

The belief that their unit is better than any other unit in the Army.

High reenlistment rate in the unit.

DISCIPLINE

Discipline is the individual or group attitude that insures prompt obedience to orders and initiation of appropriate action in the absence of orders. When achieved in a unit, it is an attitude that keeps soldiers doing what they are supposed to do and as they are supposed to do it through strong inner conviction. Good discipline is constant and functions whether or not outside pressure or supervision is present. It is the result of good training and intelligent leadership that helps soldiers withstand the shock of battle and face difficult situations without faltering. Since success in combat frequently depends upon unit's or men's immediate positive response, discipline demanded in the Army is far more exacting than discipline in other walks of life. Before a man can act resourcefully in the absence of orders, he must have an understanding of what is to be done and the role he must play. This requires training. Before he can respond to orders, he needs the same understanding and ability plus confidence in his seniors. This requires leadership.

Evaluation of discipline requires the evaluation of these factors:

Attention to detail.

Harmonious relations between units and soldiers.

Devotion to duty.

Proper senior-subordinate relationships.

Proper conduct on and off duty.

Standards of cleanliness, dress, and military courtesy.

Promptness in responding to commands and directives.

Adherence to the chain of command.

Ability and willingness to perform effectively with little or no supervision.

PROFICIENCY

Proficiency is the technical, tactical, and physical ability of the soldier and the unit to perform the job or mission. Unit proficiency is the sum of the skills of all the men in the unit welded together by the leader into a smooth-functioning team. A unit will attain proficiency when its leader demands high standards of individual and group performance. Proficiency results largely from training. Therefore, much of the leader's time must be spent supervising training.

Some of the factors to be considered in evaluating proficiency are:

Personal appearance and physical condition of the men.

Appearance and condition of weapons, equipment and unit area.

Reaction time of the unit under various situations and conditions.

Professional attitude demonstrated by the unit and its members.

Troop leading ability of junior leaders.

Promptness and accuracy in disseminating orders, instructions, and information.

Degree of skill demonstrated when accomplishing tasks.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE INDICATORS OF LEADERSHIP

The development of the indicators of leadership is a continuous process. If the leader understands the factors and forces that produce desired results, he will be better able to direct his efforts along productive lines.

There are certain actions which will aid in the development of specific indicators. An action designed to improve one of the indicators of leadership may also affect the others. Following are the indicators and some specific steps that will develop each:

Morale—

Teach belief in the cause and mission.

Instill in your men confidence in themselves, their leaders, their training, and their equipment.

Assist in job satisfaction by carefully considering job assignments.

Keep your men aware of your concern for and the Army's interest in their physical, moral, and spiritual welfare, as well as that of their dependents.

Establish an effective awards program.

Make the men feel they are essential to the unit.

Recognize the soldier's desire to retain his individuality and treat him as an individual.

Encourage the strengthening of their ties to home, family, and religious association.

Esprit de Corps—

Start newly assigned men off right by a reception program including an explanation of the unit's history, traditions, and present role.

Develop the feeling that the unit must excel.

Recognize and publicize achievements of the unit and its members.

Make use of ceremonies, symbols, slogans, and military music.

Use competition to develop teamwork.

Make proper use of decorations and awards.

Discipline—

Demonstrate discipline by your own conduct and example.

Institute a fair and impartial system for punishment and an equitable distribution of privileges and rewards.

Strive for mutual confidence and respect through training.

Encourage and foster the development of self-discipline among your men.

Be alert to conditions conducive to breaches of discipline and eliminate them where possible.

Proficiency—

Thoroughly train your men in their duties.

Emphasize teamwork through the chain of command.

Establish a sound physical conditioning program.

Provide for cross-training.

Participate in realistic training exercises.

Provide men with frequent opportunities to perform duties of the next higher echelon.

Insure by inspections and training tests that your command is being developed in accordance with training programs and doctrine prescribed by higher authority.

Set high standards of performance and insist that they be met.

SUMMARY

An effective leader is one who follows the principles of leadership with an awareness of the forces which are influencing both his behavior and that of his men. He understands himself, his men, his job, and the situation. Understanding, however, is not enough. The effective leader is also able to evaluate his unit using the indicators of leadership and act appropriately in light of his awareness. He is one who can assess the forces that influence his actions and then behave in the manner which produces the best results.

Contemporary Human Problems!



Part IV

DRUG ABUSE!

CHAPTER 14



BACKGROUND

It is often said that we are a "drug-oriented society." Drugs of all kinds are readily available by prescription or over-the-counter purchase to anyone who wants them. And, at one time or another, everyone is a drug user, whether the drug be caffeine, alcohol, nicotine, aspirin, or one of the illegal drugs such as LSD or heroin. The use of the drugs listed above, as well as many other stimulants, depressants, and euphorics (such as marijuana) is not new. However, the use of illicit drugs and the excessive use of alcohol has become more prevalent in our society during the last several years and is a problem which concerns leaders. Leaders must recognize the drug abuse problem, and understand that drug usage itself is generally not the underlying problem. It is a symptom of the emotional or physical problems of the user or a reflection of the users environment. However, it is a fact that drug abuse is a problem among our soldiers and today's leaders are faced with the challenge of dealing with drug related problems.

In the past, it was customary for social scientists to "type" drug abusers into groups which seemed to best fit their ethnic or economic backgrounds. Heroin and marijuana were used by the underprivileged and by criminals. Alco-

hol was abused by the residents of "Skidrow" and eccentrics, while the stimulants and depressants were generally abused by the middle-class adult under the guise of medical need. While this stereotyping still exists, it is more incorrect now than before. The heroin abuser may be an executive's son. He may wear levis or Army greens, long or short hair. The alcohol or stimulant abuser might be a student, an athletic hero, or a leader in the Army.

WHY DRUGS?

Some people who rely on drugs to get them through the day believe that their dependence on them is caused by their environment. To them, drugs are the solution to their problems. The decision to become drug abusers was not well thought out, but was based on their attitudes and emotions of the moment. Contrary to what some people believe, this decision is rarely, if ever, made with criminal intent. Therefore, we must keep in mind that it is a very personal situation, and we should not attempt to categorize all drug abusers into any specific groups or types of people. Each case must be considered individually.

The impulse to try something to replace boredom, subdue pain, or reduce frustration is high among all men. Like the prehistoric men who

getting HIGH!! goes back..



got their "highs" from fermented berries, or the people who sucked opium lozenges nearly 6,000 years ago, today's man seeks new ways to make himself feel better.

People who abuse drugs may be classified in three groups: experimenter, user, and drug dependent. The experimenter may be simply trying to find out what effects drugs will have on him. This person may try one or more drugs a few times and never use them again. Or, he may continue and become a member of the next group—the user.

The user is one who takes drugs more often than the experimenter. His abuse of one or more drugs will be of a more lasting nature and probably for deeper and more continuing reasons. The chances of this person becoming dependent increase as he continues to use the drugs.

The user finally reaches the stage where he is physically or mentally dependent on drugs. The drug-dependent person exhibits a behavioral pattern characterized by overwhelming involvement with the procurement and use of drugs.

People use drugs for many reasons: peer group pressure, an escape from the problems of life, curiosity, or a belief that the drug will bring on

a good feeling. Indirect reasons may lie somewhere within these basic reasons.

We have already identified man's impulse to seek new ways to make himself feel better. The desire for a feeling of well-being, either real or chemically induced, runs high in humans. So high, in fact, that it is partially responsible for our changing values. One need only open his newspaper or turn on the television or radio to be told of the virtues of innumerable drugs. This has led to a casual acceptance of drugs as a means with which to cure even the most minor physical disturbances. Some prominent sociologists feel that the drug abuse problem among young people is more an acknowledgment of how influential the older generation has been than a revolt against society.

However, we should not completely discount any theory about revolt, either. It is clear that some, particularly younger people, may use drugs initially to shock the "establishment." Yet drugs can also be the basis of the more profound rebellion against established cultural values. Here, drug use becomes an alternative to the symbols of these established values, such as cocktail parties and martinis at lunch. To some people, our super-technology that mass-produces virtually everything represents a cold and uncaring society where people are secondary to bigger and better machines. Drug abuse

DRUG dependence



to some is a convenient way of experimenting with alternate customs and values when the existing ones are no longer acceptable.

Some drug users claim that boredom caused them to start, and their rebellion created new and varied ways to spend time and money. Social experts suggest that because young people generally mature faster now than in the past, the activities that schools and communities have traditionally provided are no longer demanding enough to keep their attention. This concerns us as leaders because we must provide recreation activities for our men. All too often, instead of recreation or sports, work is created. This "make work" is rarely related to a man's job and may cause frustration. The need for challenging and interesting work should be a primary consideration of any supervisor. The feeling of not working toward some goal leaves an emptiness which needs to be filled; and sometimes it is filled—by drugs.

Another reason why people turn to drug abuse may be a desire to escape from the realities of daily life. Because it is usually manifested by a deeper desire to flee the more difficult problems of character or emotion, this reason may be the most dangerous one. Many psychologists agree that most people who become dependent upon drugs, or who are consistently heavy users, are from this group. The escape-prone personalities are usually depressed and mistrustful of their surroundings. In many cases, they had been seriously troubled long before they started taking drugs. In a highly mobile society where people are constantly confronted with rapidly changing settings and with new sets of values, a disturbed person can become even more confused. The military service requires extensive change in a person's way of life and can, for some, be a powerful stimulus toward further frustration. Depending on the new soldier's background, he meets his new responsibilities and life styles with varying degrees of difficulty. Here again, the leader must identify his soldier's problems and reduce the dissatisfiers, as discussed in chapter 8, which cause them. Many of those in the experimenter and early user stages take drugs simply because they think it is fun. Keep this reason in mind because it offers a useful contrast to the more traditional ideas on the subject. Surely if it weren't fun (that is, if it didn't offer an enjoyable feeling or experience to the user) people would not start using drugs. But, this idea still does not answer the questions as to why drugs are the vehicle of the "fun" generation. The answer is interrelated with some of the ideas

already discussed and in the fact that users are simply bored with existing alternatives. They are no longer "turned-on" by what society has traditionally offered.

All these reasons, along with many others, lead to the conclusion that drug abuse is at least partially caused by conditions within our society. It is no longer sufficient or reasonable to speak of drug abusers in terms of "weak personalities" who are solely at fault for their problem. Before we can begin to reach the problem on an individual basis, it must first be dealt with at the group or community level. From there we may work with ways to prevent people from becoming users. We need to offer new alternatives, to alter existing environmental conditions, and to find new directions in which to motivate our soldiers.

WHAT THE LEADER CAN DO

In order to communicate and deal with his men, the leader must first recognize the highly emotional and personal relationship the user or addict may have with his drug. The leader must accept the fact that he is sometimes competing with drugs for his subordinate's attention. Simply telling him not to use illegal drugs is like



**Showing
concern!**

ordering your son not to smoke cigarettes or drink alcohol when he sees his peers and adults doing it. It may be difficult for him to comprehend any immediate danger by doing so himself. After all, these drugs are both legal and socially acceptable. For the person who already has developed habits of smoking or drinking, the idea of quitting may seem unthinkable; the act of quitting—impossible. Psychological dependence on alcohol and nicotine is all too common. Although these examples may seem “farfetched,” they are essentially the same problems encountered when more dangerous drugs are abused. The difference is that the difficulty in quitting the other drugs may be tenfold that of quitting smoking or drinking.

This “competition” we speak of need not occur in the form of active aggression against drug abuse but should be reflected in the leader's concern for the welfare of his men. The leader who by his actions shows this concern will be more successful in eliminating the dissatisfiers which often are at the root of drug abuse. By “showing concern” we mean simply insuring that when a soldier's problem is identified, the leader participates in solving it. Examples of this are getting pay for a soldier who has not been paid, or giving a man a pass or leave to solve problems at home. By doing these things, the leader has in part altered the environment and is in a better position to influence his soldiers' alternatives to drug usage.

By “alternatives” we mean any activity which substitutes for the essential desire or need to use drugs. These substitutes range from a more thorough involvement in everyday duties on the one hand, to religious or recreational activities on the other. Activities you select or encourage should have some common characteristics. They must be relevant and challenging, and must give the soldier an opportunity to develop favorable and lasting relationships with other persons. In many cases, these requirements can be met by simply making existing activities more available and acceptable to the soldiers. A company commander can do this by making day-room and mess hall facilities more enjoyable and useful. Another way is to organize athletic activities or team projects which benefit all participants. This may be done by squad leaders or platoon sergeants. Activities of this sort may be established by the small-unit leader and offer the opportunities his men need for interesting participation with their peer groups. The result can be more involvement in wholesome activities by the soldier and less need for drugs. There are numerous possibilities open to the concerned and resourceful

leader. After the leader has provided the alternatives, the next step to take in preventing drug abuse is to educate all soldiers in the medical, legal, and moral implications of drug abuse. Toward this end, the leader must first educate himself on the subject so that he can inform his men.

In developing a good drug education program, see that it is characterized by objectivity and integrity, qualified instructors, current information, and a specific target audience. These characteristics will be discussed separately.

By “objectivity and integrity” we mean the use of factual—not emotional—information. The requirement for this is made clear upon examination of some past drug education programs which were characterized by incorrect information, the use of “scare tactics,” and an exaggeration of facts. Programs of this type caused the audiences to realize that the information was incorrect and conclude that the instructors did not know what they were talking about. This lack of integrity contributed to the mistrust the young people had for what appeared to be an untruthful adult society. More critical was the fact that many who did not believe what they were told, abused dangerous drugs as a form of rebellion against adult society.

It is unreasonable to expect all leaders to be qualified to instruct in all subjects; however, there are several agencies that can assist. For example, a doctor is a logical person to teach the medical aspects of drug abuse, while a chaplain is better qualified to discuss the moral implications. By using specialists to assist them, leaders can present all aspects of drug abuse while establishing a high degree of credibility with the audience.

Using instructors like this helps us to make sure that the information being presented is current. This is important because new information on drugs and their effects is constantly being published. Furthermore, the laws pertaining to the use of drugs are subject to change.

If the unit drug education program has these first three characteristics, we can be sure that an environment of mutual trust will develop between the leader and his men. However, because of the value differences between men and between groups, the approach will vary according to the audience. We cannot maintain an atmosphere of free and open discussion in a drug education class if the audience consists of young privates and senior noncommissioned officers. Leaders should recognize the value differences and vary their techniques with each group. The leader may wish to include commis-

sioned and noncommissioned officers in one group and the lower ranking enlisted men in another. This clears the way for more open discussion and insures that each group learns what is most important to them.

Another characteristic of the education program—continuous exposure—means that the educational process must be continued beyond the classroom, in the daily activities of the soldier. This means more than simply placing antidrug posters throughout the unit area. Continuous education includes the frequent, open exchange of information and ideas concerning the problems between leaders and subordinates. The key factor with respect to drug abuse is that the information must be based on factual knowledge of the problems and a mutual respect for the exchange of ideas.

When a solid educational base has been established, it is possible for a leader to implement his programs of enforcement and rehabilitation with a greater probability of success. Knowing the facts of drug abuse well prepares the leader to evaluate and act on the problems in his unit.

The need for up-to-date information pertaining to drugs has been stated throughout this chapter. However, a discussion of specific information has been avoided since the laws, policies, and other pertinent information are changing. As more medical information becomes available and as social attitudes change, there is a constant need to update our knowledge. The leader should keep himself and his men well informed on current aspects of the programs at their disposal. This is the basic ingredient for a leader to implement his own policies and programs.

SUMMARY

This has been a discussion of one of our contemporary human problems. Drug abuse is an indicator of deeper individual and group problems of our time. The nature of these problems requires that each occurrence of drug abuse be handled on an individual basis. There are no standard solutions to drug abuse as a problem, and we can offer no single answer to questions such as, "How do we stop drug abuse?" We can reduce the drug problem by creating an environment of mutual understanding and mutual trust.

Race Relations!

CHAPTER 15



The bridge!

THE CHALLENGE

The problem of race relations is a major issue facing leaders today. Soldiers from all walks of life, various geographical areas, and numerous racial and ethnic backgrounds bring their problems and prejudices with them when they enter the Army. The military leader's challenge is to direct members of this diverse group in a way that will cause them to work as a team. It is not an easy task, but certainly one that can be accomplished through informed, fair, and impartial leadership.

HISTORICAL CONTRIBUTIONS

Each minority group—whether Black, Chicano, Puerto Rican, Indian, or Oriental—has made significant contributions to the development of our country from its earliest days. Our diversified American culture has benefited from the rich historical and cultural backgrounds of each minority group. It is important that leaders know something of the background, contributions, and cultures of these diverse groups in order to apply the leadership principle—“Know your men and look out for their welfare.”



Minority contributions occur in a variety of fields ranging from science and technology to creative work in art, music, and literature. This tends to dispel some common false notions—that minorities are stupid, lazy, and uninterested in education.

Unfortunately, this is often one of society's views of minorities. Occasionally, in the past, when one of these minority persons would excel and become recognized by the public, his success was considered a result of his adoption of the white man's system and life style. This notion has also occurred in recent years whenever black athletes, oriental politicians, and Mexican businessmen, for example, have become public figures. Minority race personalities, however, do not often separate themselves from their heritage. A study of current literature and public media reveals that contributions and accomplishments of minority groups are more readily recorded and appreciated today.

When presented with a historical fact such as, "Matthew Henson, a black explorer and a member of Admiral Peary's famous expedition, was the first man to reach the North Pole, not Admiral Peary himself,"¹ conventional-his-

¹ Bergman, Mort N. and Peter M., *The Chronological History of the Negro in America*. New York: The New American Library, 1969.

tory students tend to disbelieve. This disbelief sometimes even turns into anger and results in the feeling that minorities are attempting to change history. The contributions of minority groups to American history are currently being published for the first time. Historical records have established that minority groups' soldiers have fought bravely in every American conflict—from Bunker Hill in the Revolutionary War to Hamburger Hill in Vietnam.

MINORITY GROUPS CONTRIBUTION TO MILITARY HISTORY!



Specific accounts may be cited of minority group soldiers who fought bravely even though they were subjected to discrimination. For example, during the Civil War, the 54th and 55th Massachusetts Volunteer Infantry Regiments (black units), fought for 18 months without pay because the pay scale offered was unequal to that of white regiments. The 9th and 10th Cavalry Regiments (black units) were instrumental in settling the West. Listed among the accomplishments of these cavalry regiments are the establishment of what is now Fort Bliss, at El Paso, Texas, and the participation in Teddy Roosevelt's "Rough Rider" charge up San Juan Hill. Through the efforts of both black and white regiments, the battle was carried that day.¹ During World War II, Cherokee and Navajo

Indians served as radio-telephone operators and spoke their native language in the clear without concern about enemy intelligence efforts to monitor radio traffic. The enemy did not understand the messages. Among the soldiers who raised the flag at Iwo Jima was an American Indian. Another minority group demanded and received permission to form their own combat unit to prove their loyalty to the United States. This unit, the Japanese-American 442nd Regimental Combat Team, fought heroically during World War II.² These are a few of many examples of how minority groups have stepped forward to take their place within the military ranks, while continuing to suffer varying forms of racial discrimination.

WHY PREJUDICE?

Why is there still discrimination in a country where all people supposedly have equal opportunity? You might ask yourself, "Am I prejudiced?" If we stopped and thought for a moment, probably each of us would admit that we are indeed prejudiced about something. When we think that all Chinese are sneaky, all black people are lazy, or all Italians are gangsters, are we not prejudiced? Prejudice is defined as "an irrational attitude of hostility directed against an individual, a group, a race or their supposed characteristics." With this definition, most people would have to agree that they are prejudiced in some way.

Prejudice can be overcome by learning the facts and applying a sound reasoning process. This means that leaders must know more about their men than just their names and ranks. This knowledge must not be based on general unfounded opinions about the race or ethnic origin of the men, but on facts about each man. Leaders must know their men's values, attitudes, how they came to be the way they are, and what they want to be. Furthermore, leaders must be prepared to detect and evaluate warnings of possible unrest that may stem from racial problems in their units and to take action to eliminate the causes.

SOME REASONS FOR RACIAL TENSION

Racial tension in a unit is often the result of poor leadership. The following items are major reasons for racial tension in a unit.

1. Insensitive leadership.
2. Not understanding the thrust for racial identity in a unit.
3. Racial prejudice and discrimination.

4. Unfair administration of rewards and punishment, promotions, and duties.
5. Racial militancy and reactions to it.
6. Limited recognition and awareness of minorities.
7. The absence of intergroup relations.
8. Failure of the leader to properly investigate and act on complaints of either the majority or minority soldiers.
9. Use of "the accusations of discrimination" by minority groups as a crutch.

Each leader must know the effect that his actions and comments have on his men and must avoid racial prejudice and discrimination. For example, if the leader refers to his black soldiers as "Negro" or "colored," some may be offended. In most cases young black soldiers prefer to be called blacks, while other black soldiers might prefer to be called Negro. Soldiers of other groups are also sensitive to being called by other than their correct names. Using the terms "jap," "wetback," "mex," "spic," "honkie," or "whitey" are expressions of prejudice which should not be allowed.

RACIAL IDENTITY

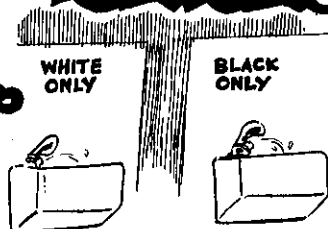
There has been a growing spirit of unrest among many racial groups, including both minority and majority groups. Black power, brown power, and red power are examples of organizational movements that have been misunderstood. Many minority-group soldiers have lived a life of suppression. Therefore, the current attitude of some minority-group members is that they have failed, so they felt that they should turn to more militant efforts. Some actions by minority groups to show racial pride and a new thrust for racial identity have been misinterpreted by members of other groups as threats to their security, and have stimulated adverse reactions. For example, the rebel flag is viewed as a threat by some blacks, and the "power salutes" are viewed as a threat by some whites. Racially oriented militant actions by any group should not be allowed since they can lead to violent confrontations.

The young soldier of today accepts little without proof. This lack of trust carries over to his attitudes toward the chain of command. He may refuse to trust a man merely because that man is superior to him in rank. Leaders must show young soldiers that they are professionally competent, willing, and capable of assisting them in solving their problems. If a problem arises that a leader cannot solve, it should be referred up the chain of command to someone

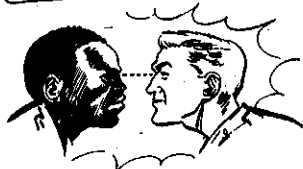
² Hosokawa, Bill, *Nisei: The Quiet Americans*. New York: William Morrow and Co., Inc., 1969.

effects of racial tensions!

Polarization..



increased antagonism..



disciplinary Problems..



who can solve it. In this way, trust and respect can be gained and racial tension prevented.

Some effects of racial tensions are polarization, antagonism, and disciplinary problems. For example, antagonism may be evidenced by name calling or in fights between soldiers of different races. Once racial problems such as these begin in a unit, its leaders are faced with additional disciplinary problems. Racial tension may take the form of violence in one way or another. Effective communication up and down the chain of command will provide warning of potential racial problems.

MOST FREQUENT COMPLAINTS

Most racial problems in the Army are caused by a lack of understanding of the other man's position. On all the Army posts surveyed to determine the reasons for racial problems there was one complaint which stood out above the rest. It concerned a lack of communication between majority and minority group soldiers at the lower levels and between all young soldiers and their leaders. This lack of communication indicates that leaders are not aware that a problem exists. Some other complaints frequently voiced by soldiers are—

1. Leaders are not concerned with the wel-

fare of minority soldiers and do not listen to or investigate their complaints.

2. Minority group efforts to achieve identity in dress, music, and symbolism are not understood.

3. Objectionable racial terms such as "boy," "nigger," "whitey," "wetback," "spic," etc., are used.

4. Minority group soldiers are likely to be punished more severely than whites for similar offenses.

5. Men who speak out for or against equality are harassed, regarded with suspicion, or transferred.

COMMUNICATIONS—A MUST

To promote mutual understanding, the leader must first realize that, under normal conditions, there are problems of communication within the chain of command. The leader should deal with these filters, barriers, and breakdowns. The problems are complicated, however, when minority soldiers lose their trust in their leaders. If lateral and vertical communication is effective in both the formal and informal channels, an understanding can be fostered between soldiers which will reduce racial tension.

The troops must also be convinced that fair and impartial treatment will be given to all soldiers. The leader must see that his men understand what standards are expected of them and what the result will be if they fail to measure up. Rewards and punishment must be applied fairly to produce consistent results for all soldiers. For example, Private Smith, white, and Private Gonzales, a chicano, both go AWOL; Gonzales for the third time and Smith for the first time. Gonzales' punishment is more severe than Smith's. Misinterpretation may result if members of the unit are not made aware of why Gonzales was punished more severely. Holding troop information sessions and posting the actions on the unit bulletin boards will enable members of the unit to see that the punishment was appropriate in each case.

A leader who is alerted by the situations which have been discussed can recognize and solve racial problems at his level. He does this through personal involvement with his command so that prompt action can be initiated when tell-tale signs appear.

INDICATORS OF RACIAL TENSION

What are some indicators of racial tension that you might find in a unit? One may be an

indifferent response of minority soldiers to white leaders or an indifferent response of white soldiers to minority leaders. This is often caused by the misinterpretation of a leader's actions by both minority and majority groups. These misinterpretations may be aggravated by racial incidents occurring on and off post. Whatever the cause, the leader must find out why this indifference has developed and take immediate action to resolve the problem.

FAIR AND IMPARTIAL LEADERSHIP

A keynote of good leadership is fair and equal treatment. The leader's policies and his administering of these policies must be fair and equal for all his soldiers. For example, a leader may have a fairly administered open-door policy for his unit, but the judgment decisions he makes may appear unequal. One case in point is the leader who had announced that no one would be excused during an upcoming field exercise without his personal approval, because of a critical shortage of men. After the unit had been in the field for a week, several black soldiers requested permission to return to garrison to participate in post religious ceremonies commemorating the birth of Martin Luther King. The leader granted the request. Later, several white soldiers, who did not know the reason the black soldiers had been returned to garrison, began to complain of black favoritism on the part of the leader. Because the leader failed to fully inform the members of the unit, the potential for racial unrest developed. The leader could have prevented this misunderstanding if he had explained the facts and reasons for his action. He could have explained to the unit the importance most blacks attach to the legacy of Dr. Martin Luther King. He could also have explained that he would have honored similar requests for other racial or religious groups under similar circumstances.

POLARIZATION

Racial polarization in informal gathering places such as dayrooms, dining areas, and clubs is a frequent occurrence. Soldiers who do not speak English often gather in a group during their off-duty hours. These actions alone are not necessarily indicators of unrest within a unit. There is a natural tendency on the part of every man to seek those with whom he shares something in common, such as race, age, rank, language, or cultural similarities. The leader should recognize these tendencies, but be alert to the fact that in these same areas unrest may develop.

GROUPING

One such case occurred in a unit where most of the minority group soldiers frequented one on-post club. This club eventually became known as a "soul club" and consequently received little patronage from white soldiers. This situation was brought to the attention of the leader, who overreacted by attempting to reverse the situation. In doing so, he caused tempers to flare, and soldiers began to complain about the leader's attempt to deny them the right to socialize in the club of their choice. This problem was not caused by racial grouping, but incorrect analysis of the situation by the leader. Realizing there is a difference in cultural likes and dislikes as previously discussed, the leader should not become alarmed when minority soldiers group together. It is only when one group begins to patronize a place and prevents members of another group from patronizing it that the leader should take action. When the leader observes soldiers grouping in the dining hall, in the dayroom or even in clubs, he should ask himself, "When I see several whites grouping, do I feel the same as I do when I see Puerto Ricans grouping?" The imaginative leader recognizes that grouping is natural, but he tries to minimize it by providing activities that bring all his soldiers together—for example, athletic events and unit parties. These activities help develop communication between soldiers of different races.

LESSON LEARNED

From past successes and failures, these lessons have been learned:

1. A leader who thinks he does not have a potential racial problem is probably making a mistake. After-action reports on those units and installations that have had racial disorders uniformly begin with statements by commanders that there were no racial problems prior to the start of race riots. The potential for racial trouble exists within every unit, and if every leader understands this, he will probably be more aware of what is going on in his unit and be better prepared to handle problems that arise.

2. To stay abreast of racial problems, leaders cannot rely completely on the chain of command and the Inspector General. Some soldiers are skeptical and distrustful of leaders and the formal organization of the Army. Therefore, they doubt their ability to get help with their problems through the chain of command. The leader must get out of his office, go to the troops, and inquire about their

problems. A group useful for this purpose is the unit's Human or Race Relations Council. Councils of this type provide the means for a leader to "rap" with his men about problems that they would normally be reluctant to take to members of the chain of command. The leader should make it clear, however, that these "rap sessions" are not intended to make or change unit policies, but rather to bring to the surface areas for the leader's consideration in determining policy.

3. No grievance should be regarded as just another complaint. An imagined problem produces the same result as a real problem, a disgruntled soldier. Each complaint must be carefully considered and investigated, corrective action taken, and the results publicized if permissible. Regardless of the outcome, the soldier must be kept informed of the status of his grievance so that he can see that the leader truly cares about him and his problem.

4. Rumors and false impressions must be corrected by using every means available to openly and honestly discuss racial problems as they occur in the unit. Senior NCOs must stay in touch with soldiers to learn and discuss potential problems and to keep commanders informed. The achievements and newsworthy activities of minority races should be recognized publicly through local civilian media, minority press, and command publications. Each man should feel that his hard work and achievements will be known and recognized. A man is proud of his unit when his unit also shows pride in him. Programs and literature outlining the history and culture of minority groups should be presented or made available to all soldiers. Education is one of the best means of alleviating racial tensions. A person will not dislike someone or something that he knows and understands as much as someone or something that is foreign or strange to him. There should be an attempt in the presentation of material about culture to promote understanding of all racial-ethnic groups.

5. Unfair administering of justice, both judicial and nonjudicial, is something that leaders at all levels must avoid. No soldier should be subjected to unfair punishment because of his race or any other reason. If a leader believes a member of his command is not being treated fairly, he should bring it to the attention of his superior in the chain of command for review. As with most acts of alleged discrimination, a thorough investigation of the facts is "a must."

6. In dealing with racial tensions, avoid

recreational facilities should appeal to ALL racial groups!



using minority group leaders only. Admittedly, some insight may be gained through consultation with minority leaders. There is, however, no substitute for the leader's personal involvement in the problems that affect his subordinates. The introduction of minority leaders during the periods of extreme racial unrest indicates a desire to solve the immediate problem, not necessarily treat the cause of those problems. Frequently, the minority leader introduced into this situation is regarded as a "yes man" or "Uncle Tom." A favorable environment for good human relations significantly reduces the chance of serious racial incidents.

7. Recreational facilities, to include day-rooms, do no good if they are not used. Leaders should provide recreational facilities for their soldiers and see that the available facilities appeal to all racial groups. Basketball, a popular American sport, might appeal to blacks but not to Mexican-Americans, whereas a golf course may appeal to white soldiers, but not to American Indians. Try to offer some recreational and social activities common to several cultural groups. This is a good way to have soldiers participate in activities with others of

different backgrounds. Leaders should be especially aware of the tendency to provide recreational facilities and services for the family man and his dependents rather than the unmarried soldier. This can erode the objectives of recreational activities designed to promote racial harmony.

8. Be openminded and listen to a soldier's convictions without first thinking he is a troublemaker. Just as there are whites with racially prejudiced attitudes, there are minority group soldiers who are racially prejudiced.

9. Rank is no substitute for leadership. Today's soldiers are more sensitive and complex than those of the past. Soldiers can spot the leader who depends upon his rank to motivate his men. The leader must be concerned and sincere in all of his dealings with subordinates. The American soldier asks only that his leadership is based on sound judgment and impartial application.

10. Noncommissioned officers in charge of

barracks seldom live in the unit area. The lack of supervision by senior noncommissioned officers and officers in the barracks at night sometimes results in racial incidents. Often these incidents starting as heated discussions or arguments turn into racial clashes. As a leader, you can insure that nightly supervision in unit areas is adequate to provide necessary control. There must be an active chain of command and it must stay in contact with the troops.

To apply these techniques, the leader must continue his research to keep his knowledge current. He must be aware of current issues and he must use available resources to broaden his understanding. Formal education is the principal way to broaden understanding; libraries and military and civilian magazines provide a wealth of information on this subject. Since 1964, numerous Army regulations directed at specific discriminatory practices have been published. Army leaders should be familiar with their contents.

SUMMARY

This chapter has touched on the history of some minority groups, prejudice, indicators of racial unrest, racial identity, causes of racial tensions, and lessons learned. There has been no attempt to supply the answers to racial problems. The intent is to present some critical problem areas in race relations. Further reading is encouraged. The leaders' most precious resource is his men. Care must be taken to keep them in good order.

AWOL!

CHAPTER 16 PREVENTION OF



Absence without leave (AWOL) has long been a problem for military commanders. However, AWOL problems can be significantly reduced and even prevented by the application of sincere, positive, and concerned leadership.

Article 86 of the Uniform Code of Military Justice defines the various classifications of AWOL in which a soldier through his own actions is not at the proper place at the prescribed time. This can cover a period of time ranging from being a few minutes late to a formation to being absent from a unit for a number of days.

Article 86 cannot be interpreted literally in all cases. In applying this article, commanders are called upon to employ both discretion and good common sense. They must investigate and weigh each case on its own merits. Additionally the leader's actions should be based on his own judgment and experience.

In discussing AWOL prevention, it is important at the outset to know something about the characteristics of the soldier who goes AWOL. The typical absentee is:

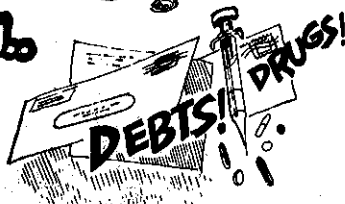
- a. Under 21 years of age.

AWOL! factors

The man.



his situation.



his leaders



- b. A high school dropout.
- c. Immature, with a history of previous personal failure.
- d. Likely to have a civil disciplinary record.
- e. Experimenting with drugs.
- f. Single.
- g. A product of an unstable home.
- h. Not adaptable.

These characteristics reveal a general profile of men who have gone AWOL. While there are many exceptions, they give the military leader a useful tool for the identification of the potential absentee.

Let us now consider why a man goes AWOL. There is seldom only one reason, since AWOL is determined by three factors interacting continuously: the man, his situation, and his leaders.

The Man

The first factor is the man himself. Studies show that the soldier who goes AWOL is unable to cope with stress in both civilian life and in the Army. Soldiers are continually faced with changing situations which require adjustments on their part. Failure to make these adjust-

ments serves to compound their problems to the point where they become the problems of the unit and the unit leader.

Their problems fall into two categories, personal problems and contributing factors. First, let us consider the personal problems—those which could arise whether or not the man is in the Army. They include financial, marital, parental, drug, and emotional problems.

Although the implications of these problems are known, their identification is often difficult. If they can be identified, the leader can offer advice and assistance or refer the soldier to one of the agencies available for professional help. The problems can be identified only if the leader is able to convince his men that he is interested in their welfare and will help eliminate these problems.

The Situation

The second category of problems which may cause a soldier to go AWOL may be termed "contributing factors," or dissatisfiers. They consist of such things as an ineffective chain of command, poor reception and integration into his unit, improper job utilization, meaningless work, racist environment, and inadequate counseling. Let us examine some of these problems and suggest actions which the leader might take to resolve them.

One common problem is the ineffective reception and integration of newly assigned troops. When a soldier arrives at a unit, he is in a period of transition and subject to stress. He often feels very much alone. If no one in the chain of command tries to orient the new arrival properly and make him feel at home, the stage can be set for AWOL.

A critical consideration during reception and integration is the duty assignment for a new soldier. When possible, assign him to the position for which he is trained. If he must be assigned elsewhere, tell him the reason for such an assignment. The reasons for this are twofold. First, the soldier will understand that his assignment is critical to the accomplishment of the unit mission; second, the leaders at all levels in the company will know the soldier's background and the reason for the assignment, and will therefore be able to make special efforts to assist and motivate the soldier in his unfamiliar position.

Meaningful training and work are also necessary in every unit. Soldiers who feel that they are learning, accomplishing tasks, and partici-

The final and most important factor.

The LEADER!



pating as members of the unit team are less likely to go AWOL.

The "situation" as it pertains to this discussion is not limited to those things mentioned, but covers anything that may cause soldier frustration or pressure. Leave policy, availability of supplies and equipment, mess facilities, pay, personnel services, recreation facilities, and billets are only a few of the many things which, if they do not adequately provide for the

soldier's needs, can cause him to feel that his only recourse to escape a bad situation is to go AWOL.

The Leader

The final and most important factor in minimizing the AWOL problem is the leader. Leaders cannot keep their soldiers from having personal problems; however, they can help them solve their problems. Only leaders can prevent their men from being put into a situation where AWOL is seen as the only available course of action. The numerous responsibilities of the leader have been addressed throughout this manual. Communicating, discipline, motivation, decisionmaking, and counseling are some of the many tools which he can use to prevent his men from going AWOL.

Leaders at all levels must prove to their men that they are both capable and willing to help them. Soldiers who do not respect and have confidence in their leaders will not seek their counsel or help. Therefore, each leader must not only be conscious of his own effectiveness, but he must train and counsel subordinate leaders so that they are able to develop the required relationship with their men. Only if each leader in the chain of command actively strives to reach a relationship with his men based on mutual trust can the AWOL problem be minimized.

One of the leader's tasks is the development of a workable AWOL prevention program. Through this, he can establish guidelines which his subordinate leaders can use during the day-to-day activities within the unit. Policies can be established for solving personal problems, identifying and eliminating dissatisfiers, providing meaningful training, and developing leadership actions effective in preventing AWOL.

SUMMARY

Sincere, positive, and concerned leadership is the most important element in the prevention of AWOL. Knowing who may go AWOL and the reasons for which they may go is important, but not sufficient. This knowledge must be the basis for an AWOL prevention program involving all leaders and focusing on all soldiers. The program must be carefully designed, implemented, and monitored to insure that it anticipates and meets the needs of our soldiers.

Situational Studies!



Part V

SITUATIONAL STUDIES

Situational studies are in this manual to give examples of the numerous day to day problems which confront the leader. They have been analyzed to assist him in relating the information in the manual to some of the problems which he faces.

These studies, which are aimed at the junior leader, can apply to all branches of the service and can be related to both combat and non-combat situations. Because it is impossible to present a study which would apply to every situation; these may be adapted to fit the required areas of interest or may be used as examples for the development of specific studies to support particular training.

the assumption of Command!



Lieutenant Nelson had just been assigned to the company. After meeting the first sergeant and the other platoon leaders, he was briefed by the company commander on company policies and SOPs and then introduced to his platoon sergeant, SFC Ferguson. Lieutenant Nelson asked Sergeant Ferguson to "fill him in" on the platoon and said he would like to talk first to the NCOs and then to the men as soon as it was convenient.

Sergeant First Class Ferguson told Lieutenant Nelson that the platoon was in pretty good shape, that the NCOs accepted responsibility if

they were not oversupervised, and that they seemed to work well with the men. He stated that Sergeant Hurley, second squad leader, sometimes drank too much and had a tendency to harass his men. He said the state of training was good, that the platoon usually came in second place on the platoon tests, and that they had taken first place once. He went on to say that the men, however, did need some training with weapons. He further stated that unit morale and discipline were good and that they had not had an AWOL or request for transfer in 4 months. Lieutenant Nelson thanked Sergeant Ferguson for the rundown on the platoon, said that it sounded like Sergeant Ferguson had been doing a fine job, and stated that he was looking forward to working with him. The lieutenant also stated that he didn't want to make any changes until he had observed the platoon for a few days.

Later that day, in a meeting with the platoon's NCOs, Lieutenant Nelson made this speech.

"As you know, I'm your new platoon leader. I've heard some very good things about you, and I'm happy to be working with you. I hope you will cooperate with me, as you did with your former platoon leader.

"One reason I called this meeting is to tell you that I don't plan to make any major changes in platoon policies and routine. I understand you've worked hard and that the unit's in pretty good shape. I'd like to keep it that way. Better still, I think we can make it the best in the company. But, until I know the platoon better, I

want you to continue running your squads as you've done before.

"If you have any discipline or morale problems with your men, or if you have any personal problems, come to see Sergeant Ferguson or me. We'll do everything we can to help you.

"Also, if one of your men has a personal problem and wants to see me, make sure he gets a chance to do so. Some of your men might be afraid to talk about their problems—a big debt for example—because of a fear of having some disciplinary action taken against them. I'd like you and your men to know that this won't be the case so far as I'm concerned. If you or one of your men has a problem and wants my help, then I want to know about it so that something can be done.

"One last thing! As soon as I've had an opportunity to observe the men and get to know the routine, we'll have another meeting. At that time, I hope to make any changes or new policies which I think will improve the platoon. We'll talk them over before we jump in with both feet.

"Well, that's about it, unless someone has questions or suggestions right now on ways of improving the platoon."

With this, Sergeant Hurley said that his squad had been split up in two rooms for several months and recommended that his squad and another trade places for awhile. Lieutenant Nelson handled the situation by saying he would rather consider it later on in the week because he first wanted to observe things as they were.

Later in the day, Lieutenant Nelson met the platoon at a formation. He gave them "AT EASE" and began his introduction.

"I haven't had an opportunity to meet all of you yet, but time will remedy that. As you may have heard, I was recently commissioned from OCS. I had 4½ years of enlisted service prior to OCS. This gives me some experience that may be helpful to us here.

"Although I've only been in the company for 1 day, I've heard some very good things about you. You're to be commended for having a splendid record. I hope you'll continue. I'm sure it will be a pleasure serving with you.

"If we can work together closely, I think we can make this platoon even better than it is now. You probably want this as much as I do. In fact, I'm going to expect this. Just remember to keep a good appearance at all times, be as sharp as

possible and do your job well. If we can do this, I'm sure we can become one of the best platoons in the whole battalion.

"As you might gather from this, I have one basic policy that I'd like every man in the platoon to understand. I believe that men who work hard and do a good job should be rewarded for it. On the other hand, I also believe that those few who don't carry their share of the load should not get the privileges the rest get.

"One last thing, and I'll let you go to chow. If you have any gripes, complaints, or personal problems, go see your squad leaders. They know that if they can't help you, either Sergeant Ferguson or I will do whatever we can. Above all, don't keep problems to yourselves; let us know about them."

DISCUSSION

The manner in which a new platoon leader takes command of a unit is extremely important. His actions will determine whether or not his men see him as a potentially good leader. First impressions are lasting and can seriously affect the men's willingness to cooperate. If these impressions are negative, it is difficult to change them.

This situation was taken from an incident of good platoon leadership and demonstrates how one platoon leader took command of a good unit. His actions were uniformly good.

Upon being assigned to the company, the new lieutenant was given a briefing by the company commander. The narrative does not say specifically what was said at this meeting; but, the company commander did inform the new platoon leader about company policies and SOPs. This orientation was necessary to speed up the platoon leader's integration into the company.

After meeting the other company officers, he was introduced to his platoon sergeant. The platoon leader's first action was to arrange a time to meet the NCOs, and also a time to meet the rest of the men in the platoon. He demonstrated that he felt a need to get Sergeant Ferguson's opinions on the unit's condition and information on the unit's present activities and SOPs. This showed respect for the platoon sergeant's position and a willingness to consider any suggestions he might have.

The lieutenant told the platoon sergeant that he wanted the platoon to continue running as it had done in the past, and that he would observe

it for a few days before making any changes. This was a good approach because it gave him a chance to evaluate the platoon's capabilities and deficiencies before making changes.

This underscores an error made by some leaders upon taking command. They immediately make major changes in policies and SOPs. Except in unusual cases, these changes usually have a bad effect on the performance and morale of the men. They are usually interpreted as a reflection on the former leader, who may have been well liked. If changes are made without careful consideration of the whole system, they may create more problems than they solve.

Knowledge that a new leader is to take command and that he will make wholesale changes in established routes may cause apprehension and insecurity. People, in general, resent sudden change because it tends to confuse them, to "upset the apple cart," and to create the necessity for learning new things. If changes must be made, they should be initiated gradually and tactfully, and with the help and advice of subordinate leaders. If platoon NCOs are made aware of a problem and their help is enlisted in solving it and implementing the solution, the effects of the change are less disruptive.

This leader's actions would undoubtedly make a favorable impression on his new platoon. The platoon leader's statements in regard to gradual change were reassuring. The man could relax with the knowledge that he would not immedi-

ately start thrashing about without knowing what the consequences of his actions would be. The second productive action was his effort to modify, in a favorable way, the atmosphere of apprehension that attend a transfer of leadership. Specific acts in this regard were—

1. He commended the platoon sergeant in terms of the job he had been doing. Praise will almost always evoke gratification in those praised.

2. He said essentially the same things later to the NCOs with probably the same effect.

3. He followed the chain-of-command in the order in which he spoke to platoon members. This is a device for enhancing the prestige of the NCOs with their subordinates and would undoubtedly earn their appreciation.

4. He stated to all that he would make no immediate changes.

5. He stated that he would solicit advice from his NCOs when changes were to be made, thereby indicating that they would have a voice in determining platoon policies and SOPs. This persuasive device rarely fails to elicit the support of one's subordinates.

6. He stated that he was available to help when his men had problems. This willingness to support his men probably evoked to some extent their willingness to support him.

He deftly and tactfully handled Sergeant Hurlley's poorly timed request for a reassignment of barracks space. Dextrous and tactful handling of advice, recommendations, and requests is a valuable ability for a leader to acquire.

the Patrol!



Lieutenant Baits told his platoon sergeant that he had just come from a meeting with the company commander, who had given the platoon a difficult mission. He went on to say the platoon must send out a four-man 48-hour reconnaissance patrol to locate enemy artillery positions. Then he asked his sergeant to recommend a man to lead the patrol.

The platoon sergeant said that Sergeant Wilks was the next man due, but that he didn't have much experience in leading patrols like this one. He said Sergeant Dillon was the best man for the job, but that Dillon had been on more than his share of patrols and was due for rotation in 2 weeks. He went on to say the Sergeant Martz was sick and that Sergeant White had just returned from a patrol; therefore, he would have to recommend Dillon if the patrol was as important as it sounded.

Lieutenant Baits agreed and asked the platoon

sergeant to get Dillon so that he could talk to him. When Dillon reported, LT Baits gave him the mission. Dillon complained that it wasn't his turn to take out a patrol and said he was being picked-on for extra details. Lieutenant Baits interrupted and explained the reasoning behind his decision. Sergeant Dillon, after hearing the reasoning behind the decision, stated that he and the patrol would do the best they could.

DISCUSSION

An important aspect of leadership is the equitable use of the men on assignments. A problem frequently encountered is that of having to decide whether to give important and difficult tasks to the best qualified men in the unit, or to rotate those tasks fairly among all the men in the unit. Either alternative may have certain undesirable effects. The best solution probably lies in a tradeoff, using rotation of tasks except where difficulty or importance of the mission dictates use of the best available men.

To use the best men consistently on these tasks is an unfair distribution of the difficult assignments. This may impair morale. This is especially true in combat where danger and the likelihood of death is increased. Further, if the best men are consistently used for the most difficult missions, they will inevitably become casualties. When this happens, the remaining men will not be sufficiently experienced and able to take the difficult missions. On the other hand, to assign these missions on a rotation basis may cause an increased failure rate and a lower standard of performance on the difficult missions. This, in essence, was the type of dilemma this platoon leader had to face.

When his platoon was required to patrol to get information on enemy artillery positions, the platoon leader had to pick the man who was most likely to succeed. This required a patrol leader who was well trained and experienced in patrolling. The platoon leader picked the most qualified man even though he had already used him excessively. He based his decision on his opinion of the difficulty and importance of the mission. It is impracticable to say more than that the decision appears to be correct. There are, however, two other important features of the platoon leader's behavior which deserve mention.

Before making his decision, he consulted with his platoon sergeant to get his opinion on who should be chosen. This was a wise action. Seeking information and advice from his subordi-

nate leaders before making important decisions improves the quality of a leader's judgment.

After making his decision, the platoon leader had a talk with the sergeant and explained his reasons for choosing him. By giving his sergeant a reasonable, logical explanation of

why he had been chosen, the platoon leader made his actions seem reasonable—that is, Dillon could more easily see that a proper decision had been made. Consequently, he probably was better motivated to accept the assignment without grumbling and to do a good job.

...the sergeant had submitted a written report to the company commander. The company commander told the platoon leader that the sergeant had been in a position to observe the platoon leader's actions and that he had been in a position to observe the platoon leader's actions.

the Transfer!



Private First Class Jones submitted a written request for transfer to his company commander. The company commander told him that he would talk it over with Jones' platoon leader before deciding and would let him know in a couple of days.

Having heard nothing about his request after more than a week, Jones asked his platoon leader if the company commander had discussed the request for transfer with him. The platoon leader said that he had not been consulted but that the company commander had probably signed the request and forwarded it to the personnel section.

When another week passed and still no word was heard about the transfer, Jones asked the company clerk about the status of the request. The clerk said that the company commander had disapproved the request and still had it on his desk.

DISCUSSION

This situation concerns the handling of a request for transfer by a company commander. The decision is not of major concern in this situation. Normally, a recommendation for ap-

proval or disapproval would depend on Private Jones' background, the extent to which the platoon leader needed him, and the administrative problems involved in transferring him. There is not enough information in the situation to permit an evaluation of these factors. However, there were several serious faults in the handling of this situation.

First, the company commander failed to consult with the platoon leader about Jones' transfer. This would have been desirable, first, because the company commander said he would do so and, second, because he could have gotten important information as to the advisability of transferring Private Jones. A leader usually makes a wiser decision if he consults his subordinate leaders. Because of their past experience and close contact with their men, subordinate leaders generally have a wealth of knowledge and information which a company commander can use to improve the quality of his decisions.

Next, the company commander failed to inform Jones that he had decided to disapprove the transfer. This was contrary to his promise to inform Jones in a couple of days and kept Jones in a state of doubt and indecision as to whether he would get the transfer.

But, perhaps more important than this was the company commander's failure to communicate his reasons for disapproving Jones' transfer. If he had legitimate reasons for wanting to keep Jones in the unit, he could have produced better acceptance of the disapproval if he had told Jones what these reasons were. Knowing that there were important reasons for the decision to disapprove the request, Jones would not have felt as bad about the outcome, and he probably would continue to do a good job in his platoon. By failing to state his reasons, the company commander missed a chance to maintain Jones' future work performance at a high level. As a result Jones might decide to do only enough to get by.

Finally, 2 weeks after the request was submitted, the company commander still had not transmitted the disapproved request for transfer up through the chain of command. This was an error because, in this case, the company commander did not have final approval authority. This failure placed him in an undesirable position. If Jones had made a complaint, the company commander would be wide open for reprimand by his superiors for neglect in carrying out his duties.

request for leave!



Specialist Fourth Class Phillips asked his squad leader for a 10-day leave, stating that he had not been home for a year and wanted to see his family. His squad leader asked if that was the only reason for his request, and Phillips stated that it was. The squad leader told Phillips that the squad could not spare him right then because they had a field problem in a few days which required maximum participation since the squad was already undermanned. The squad leader further stated that he could not recommend that Phillips be granted leave until after the field problem.

A few days later, during the field problem, the squad leader noticed that Phillips was not performing in his usual way. While talking to Phillips' fire team about it, he found out Phillips had a personal problem. The fire team leader said that Phillips had gotten a letter from his mother stating that his wife was running around with another man. He said that this was the reason Phillips wanted leave. The squad leader replied that he did not know about Phillips' problem and then talked to Phillips in order to verify the reason he had requested leave. After this, he told Phillips that he would speak to the platoon leader about his leave request.

Several hours later the squad leader told Phillips that he had talked to the platoon leader and to the company commander about his request and that he could start his leave the next day. The squad leader also pointed out to Phillips that if he had problems like this in the future, he should be sure to let him know so that he could help him. He also told him to take it easy and not to get himself in any trouble while on leave.

DISCUSSION

This situation was an incident of good squad leadership and illustrates what one squad leader did to help one of his men with a personal problem. Such problems usually lower performance and morale if they are allowed to go unresolved.

Initially, the squad leader was presented with a request for leave from one of his men. This was a request for some time off to go home to visit his family. On the surface, it appeared to be a routine request, and its disapproval at this time should have caused no problem so far as the man's performance and morale were concerned. But, the need for leave was more urgent than the man led the squad leader to believe.

When Phillips failed to present a more urgent need for immediate leave, the squad leader decided that he could reasonably wait until after the field problem was over. Under the circumstances, this was a sensible decision; the squad leader was more or less compelled to tell the man that he would not recommend to the platoon leader that leave be granted.

Note the manner in which the refusal was given. The squad leader explained his reasons for refusal and he also linked these reasons to Phillips' inability to provide a more compelling reason for getting immediate leave. Under the circumstances it seemed reasonable for the squad leader to refuse, and it was important that Phillips understand this. If he did, his motivation to perform well in the future would not have been affected.

If Phillips' reason for going home had been as superficial as it seemed, the outcome of the situation would have been satisfactory. But Phillips had not given his real reason; he had a serious problem which he had not revealed. Because of this, his performance in the field problem began to suffer. Serious problems will inevitably impair a man's ability to do good work.

While observing the squad training, the squad leader saw that Phillips was not up to par. This

was a "cry for help" by Phillips. The squad leader noted it and immediately found out why. He checked with Phillips' fire team leader, and learned Phillips' real reason for wanting leave. Phillips wanted to go home and straighten things out with his wife, who was "running around" with another man. Apparently he had been unwilling to tell the squad leader about this problem; he probably was embarrassed. Many will not talk about their problems because they are either ashamed or afraid of the consequences if someone else learns about them.

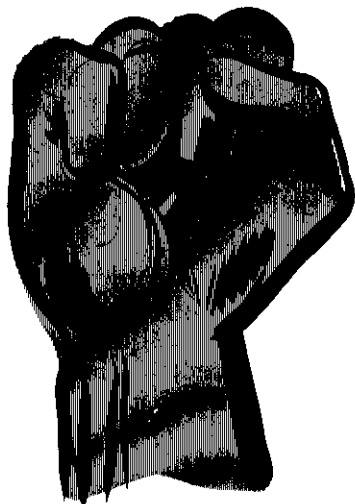
The squad leader's next action was to have another talk with Phillips who confirmed the fire team leader's report. He then talked with the platoon leader and company commander. He decided that Phillips' problem was sufficiently serious to warrant immediate leave. This was a wise decision because Phillips' performance in the field problem very likely would have been substandard had he been forced to

continue. In fact, he could even have been a liability to his squad.

Later, the squad leader told Phillips that his leave had been granted. He also told Phillips to inform him if he had problems like this in the future. This action served to explain why he had not initially approved the request and pointed out that he was interested in his men's problems and would help them if possible. At the same time, he cautioned Phillips against getting into trouble when he went home. Under the circumstances, this was appropriate.

The effect of the squad leader's actions on Phillips, and on the rest of the squad as well, can be predicted. He will appear to be both interested in maintaining high squad performance and willing to help his men out if they have trouble. Such conditions generally result in a high degree of cooperation between a leader and his men.

black Power Salute!



Captain Snow was the Commander of a rifle company. In an effort to foster good communication between the soldiers of his company and the chain of command, he frequently returned to the company area after duty hours to talk informally with his troops and keep abreast of what they were doing. One night, Captain Snow attended the post theater. The National anthem was played prior to the movie, and all stood at attention. At the conclusion of the Anthem, a group of blacks gave the black power salute and shouted, "We shall overcome!"

The next morning the first sergeant asked to talk to Captain Snow concerning rumors that were spreading throughout the company. The first sergeant stated that some of the white soldiers were voicing resentment over the use of the black power salute. They felt threatened when blacks displayed the clenched fist accompanied with remarks such as "We shall overcome."

Captain Snow decided to talk to the company at

the noon formation. In addressing the company, he stated that he viewed the black power salute as a gesture of solidarity and recognition among black people. He further stated that these symbols of racial pride often caused problems because many consider them as threatening gestures.

The clenched fist gesture, the normal hand salute, "Gary Owen," and "Airborne—all the way" are technically all symbols of brotherhood. The clenched fist can be compared to the peace sign used by many whites. When used, it normally implies, "I understand" or "I am with you." Captain Snow stressed, however, that none of the gestures should be used instead of the hand salute and never as a part of an official function or ceremony. He added that he understood the black's thrust for racial identity but thought that blacks should also consider the potential effect such symbols might have on the other members of the company.

DISCUSSION

In this situation, Captain Snow was faced with a potential racial problem brought about by the use of racial symbols and reactions to them. He realized that the use of the black power salute was causing resentment and misunderstanding between black and white soldiers. This resentment, if left unnoticed, could erupt into racial violence. Captain Snow realized that although a clenched fist can represent violence, it can also represent unity. The company commander also realized that any attempt to ban or prohibit the use of the black power salute would probably result in an even more serious problem. Therefore, his actions in openly addressing the subject to all parties concerned accomplished several things: Communication between black and white soldiers was reestablished; white soldiers were informed that outward manifestations of racial pride should not be looked upon as threats to their security; and blacks were told that they should feel proud of their heritage, but that their allegiance to the unit and to its members should also be considered. Racial pride is desirable, but it should not be demonstrated to the extent that it causes friction within the unit.

DRUGS! in the barracks!



Lieutenant Morgan had recently graduated from his officer basic course and was assigned as a platoon leader in "B" Company. At first, LT Morgan was apprehensive about his first leadership position, but during the next 2 months he steadily gained confidence in himself and his abilities.

Lieutenant Morgan had encountered no serious problems with the platoon until his platoon sergeant, Sergeant Wood, reported that he suspected PFC Wintergreen of possessing and using illegal drugs. Sergeant Wood stated that he could not prove Wintergreen was using drugs, but he felt certain that he was. Lieutenant Morgan knew that Sergeant Wood was an excellent noncommissioned officer with many years of experience in the Army. Therefore, based on Sergeant Wood's recommendation, Lieutenant Morgan decided to conduct a shake-down inspection of his platoon in an attempt to catch Wintergreen in the possession of illegal drugs.

On the day of the inspection, LT Morgan started with PFC Wintergreen's squad. He rapidly inspected the first three men in the squad, inspecting only their field equipment and their persons. When he came to Wintergreen, however, LT Morgan slowly and thoroughly inspected his field gear, his personal possessions, and his person. He even searched under Wintergreen's bed. It was there he found four packets of heroin and the implements to inject the drug.

Upon finding the drugs, LT Morgan stopped the inspection and dismissed the rest of the platoon. He accosted Wintergreen and demanded to know where he had purchased the heroin. Under this questioning, Wintergreen admitted to using heroin and selling it to other members of the company. Morgan then placed Wintergreen under arrest and called the military police.

Later, during PFC Wintergreen's court-martial, when the court learned of the facts, they granted Wintergreen's defense counsel's motion to suppress the drugs and paraphernalia as evidence, to strike Wintergreen's confession, and to dismiss the case. Wintergreen was released.

DISCUSSION

This situation is an example of what can happen if an officer or NCO attempts to act in a law enforcement capacity without proper knowledge of the law. If LT Morgan had more knowledge of the legal aspects of search, seizure, and interrogation procedures, the case would not have been mishandled.

First, Lieutenant Morgan did not have "probable cause" to search PFC Wintergreen for drugs. Mere suspicion alone, unsupported by concrete facts, is not enough to legalize a search. Sergeant Wood only suspected Wintergreen of being a drug abuser. He could not cite facts with which to substantiate his belief.

Morgan's second mistake was in not conducting a proper search. His excuse for searching Wintergreen was the "shakedown" inspection. This is usually the most thorough of all Army inspections and is a good device for detecting contraband. However, such an inspection must be thorough and complete and not a pretext to search a particular person. It must also be of broad scope, covering all aspects of unit readiness, health, and safety. Lieutenant Morgan divulged the true intent of this inspection by searching the first three men superficially and then conducting a long and detailed search of Wintergreen and his equipment. He further revealed his plan by curtailing the inspection and dismissing his men after finding heroin belonging to Wintergreen. This, plus the fact that the inspection was based on a "tip-off," would make it extremely easy for a defense counsel to convince the court of the illegality of the search.

Morgan's final and most obvious mistake was in not informing Wintergreen of his rights under article 31 of the UCMJ prior to questioning him. Article 31 states—

No person subject to this code may interrogate, or request any statement from, an accused or a person suspected of an offense without first informing him of the nature of the accusation and advising him that he does not have to make any statement regarding the offense of which he is accused or suspected and that any statement made by him may be used as evidence against him in a trial by court-martial.

The law further states that, if a confession is obtained without informing the accused of his rights in the matter, the confession may not be used as evidence against him in court. Thus, Win-

tergreen's confession was invalid and could not be used against him.

We can see how Morgan's ignorance of the law allowed Wintergreen to gain freedom. Had LT Morgan better understood the law, he would have helped himself by making a proper search and seizure, helped the Army by apprehending another drug trafficker, and—perhaps most important of all—helped Wintergreen to free himself of heroin addiction.

We don't all speak the same language!



Privates Gomez and Sanchez were speaking quietly over a cup of coffee in the snack bar. Gomez was telling Sanchez that he has trouble understanding what the drill sergeants were saying in class. He also expressed concern about his ability to do well on the end-of-cycle proficiency test the following week. Sanchez said that he lacked confidence and suggested they ask some of the other soldiers to help them after duty hours. Looking around the room, Gomez noticed Privates Jones and Jackson watching them with suspicious frowns. Turning to Sanchez, he continued their discussion in Spanish. During this conversation Jones and Jackson moved to the table and wanted to know what they were saying. Jackson wanted to know why the two Mexican-Americans were not speaking English and why they were talking about

him. As Gomez stood up to explain what they were talking about, Jones struck him in the face.

DISCUSSION

In this situation, Privates Jones and Jackson assumed that Privates Gomez and Sanchez were talking about and belittling them; this misunderstanding led to the fight.

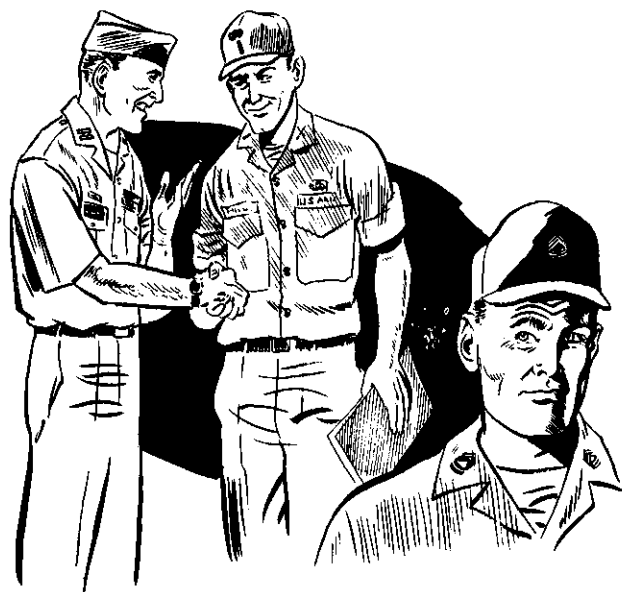
Gomez and Sanchez were speaking Spanish because bilingual people usually feel more comfortable using their native language—they find it easier to understand and it serves as a common bond between them. Many soldiers enter the Army unable to speak or understand English very well. This often presents problems such as the incident that occurred above. Most people are suspicious of those things they do not understand, or with which they are not familiar.

The leader should encourage his soldiers that have difficulty in speaking or understanding English to attend on- or off-duty courses or in order to improve their ability to speak English. Many units assign sponsors to soldiers who have difficulty speaking or understanding English. This improves the man's ability to communicate and also enhances the morale and esprit of the unit. Social and athletic events that bring soldiers in contact with each other in other than duty-related activities will provide the basis for everyone to get to know his fellow soldiers.

Leaders must recognize language-barrier problems and deal with them in a direct manner. A leader can deal with them through involvement and close supervision during and after duty hours. Additionally, the leader must make all this men aware of the following:

- Soldiers who speak different languages are not less intelligent.
- Soldiers should not become offended when they hear others speaking another language. Bilingual men are an asset to the unit.
- Nobody should assume that, because he cannot understand a conversation, it is about him.

a change in training!



Sergeant West recommended to his platoon leader, Lieutenant Hill, that the next day's training schedule be changed from care and cleaning of equipment to platoon tactical training since the platoon had just completed a detailed inspection of equipment and everything was found to be in good shape. Lieutenant Hill, in turn, made the recommendation to the company commander, who granted permission to make the change.

The following day at training, the company commander commended Lieutenant Hill, in the presence of Sergeant West, for his initiative in making the recommendation. Lieutenant Hill accepted the praise as if the recommendation had been his idea.

DISCUSSION

A factor which affects soldiers' satisfaction with

their jobs is the extent to which they feel that they are valued as members of the unit. The leader can foster this situation, by seeing that they are given recognition for good work. The platoon leader should inform the commander about the contributions and accomplishments of his men.

In this situation, the platoon leader failed to do this. He gave the company commander his platoon sergeant's suggestion for a change in training as though it was his own. This was a serious error. Soldiers who do outstanding work and are valuable members of their units earn rewards and prestige. Examples of these rewards are consideration for promotion, consideration for advancement to more important jobs, etc. Also, the value of the man to the unit counts heavily in determining the extent to which his unit will support him if he ever gets into trouble. The belief that his good performance and contributions to the unit's effort are recognized and valued by his superiors has both a satisfying and a motivating effect on a soldier. In this situation, the platoon leader's appropriating the platoon sergeant's suggestion prevented the sergeant from getting the recognition that he should have had.

The platoon leader had a chance to rectify his error when the company commander complimented him on the quality of the idea. His failure to do so at this time was especially critical because it was obvious to his platoon sergeant, and perhaps to the other NCOs, that the platoon leader was getting credit for an idea that was not his own. This is one quick way to earn the distrust of one's subordinate leaders and to cut off the upward flow of ideas and suggestions they can provide.

In summary, a platoon leader should give credit to the soldier responsible for ideas when these ideas work out favorably. He also must take the responsibility for others' ideas if he adapts them and they have poor results. Unfair as this may appear, it is vitally necessary for efficient platoon functioning.

Missing a Morning Formation!



This situation occurred when a company commander was talking to his platoon leaders after a morning formation. It concerns the actions of the company commander in maintaining discipline in his unit.

Captain Giles asked Lieutenant Burns, "What happened to Sergeant Murphy this morning? He didn't make formation!" Lieutenant Burns replied, "I don't know, sir, I haven't talked to him yet." To this, Captain Giles emphatically said, "Well, this has got to stop. It's the second time this month an NCO has missed formation." Burns indicated that Murphy was a good NCO and that he probably had a reason for missing formation. At this, Giles exploded, "Good record or not, the NCOs must accept certain responsibilities. You certainly can't expect a man to be a good leader if he's lacking in discipline himself! Send Murphy to see me as soon as he gets in."

A short time later, Sergeant Murphy reported to the company commander as directed and started to explain why he was late for formation. Captain Giles interrupted, "What did I tell you NCOs when I took command, Murphy?" Sergeant Murphy replied, "Sir, you said if we goofed up, you'd throw the book at us." "It looks like that didn't make much of an impression on you," replied Giles. "Sergeant, it's high time you learned a sense of responsibility. I'm going to recommend to the battalion commander that he give you an article 15 and reduce you one grade. We'll let this be an example to the rest of

the company." Sergeant Murphy said, "But, sir! That's not fair!" Captain Giles interrupted again, "That's all, sergeant; dismissed."

Several days later the battalion commander, Lieutenant Colonel Dunn, had Sergeant Murphy report to him and advised him of his rights under article 31, UCMJ. Lieutenant Colonel Dunn told Sergeant Murphy that his company commander had recommended he be reduced for being AWOL, and then asked why he missed the formation. Sergeant Murphy explained that his wife was sick; he had to take her to the hospital, and he didn't get a chance to call the company to explain his absence. The battalion commander asked how his wife was now, and Murphy said that she was all right and would be getting out of the hospital in a few days.

Lieutenant Colonel Dunn asked, "Did you tell Captain Giles all this?" "I tried, sir, but he wouldn't listen. He wants to make an example out of this," Murphy replied. Lieutenant Colonel Dunn informed the sergeant that missing a formation was a serious offense, but that in this case he had a legitimate reason for being late. He cautioned the sergeant to be sure to call the company if he were delayed in the future. He went on to say, "I'm not going to give you an article 15. You're doing a good job in the company and have a clean record! This is in your favor. Usually I go along with my company commanders' decisions, but I'm going to make an exception in your case. I am giving you a verbal reprimand. You were absent from formation and you didn't call the company to explain why. This was wrong and you know it. Don't let an incident of this nature happen again. I'll talk to Captain Giles about this, and I am sure he will want to talk to you later. That's all."

Later, while Lieutenant Colonel Dunn was discussing Murphy's case with the company commander, Captain Giles indicated that he was unaware of the reason Murphy had missed formation, and that the reason was unimportant. He stated that he had stressed the importance of being at formation numerous times and the men knew they were supposed to call in if they were going to be late. Lieutenant Colonel Dunn replied, "That's true, captain, he should have called in, but I won't go along with a demotion. It's a pretty harsh punishment for something like not calling in. I have given Murphy a verbal reprimand because it seemed the reasonable thing to do in this case." "But, sir, this is going to mean that I won't have any control over my

men at all!" Giles injected. Lieutenant Colonel Dunn continued, "I don't think so, captain. Murphy has a clean record, and he's a good man. He knows his case is an exception. Making him an example might even make your men less cooperative. I want you to understand that I'll support you when you're right, but you did mishandle this. In the future, try getting the facts first; then be a little more reasonable."

DISCUSSION

A company commander must administer appropriate disciplinary actions for performance failures of his men. To determine which disciplinary action is appropriate, he must first determine why a performance failure occurred. Unsatisfactory performance is the result of a lack of ability, inadequate motivation, or a combination of both. Although in practice this distinction may be difficult, it must be attempted. In short, the leader must check on reasons for failure, including related or mitigating circumstances, and either take or recommend, as the situation requires, the appropriate corrective action. The company commander in this situation failed in this important function.

The first thing to note is the company commander's attempt to maintain discipline by using fear as the motivating force for good performance.

For example, when he assumed command of the unit, he told the men he would throw the book at them if they goofed up. Action of this type generally creates fear, resentment, and a lack of respect for the leader. These reactions also restrict the men's initiative, thereby making them less able to perform successfully without close supervision. That is, they will exercise little initiative because they fear the consequences of failure too much to risk doing anything except exactly what they are told.

The company commander's next mistake was the use of inappropriate and excessive punishment. As stated before, performance failures result when men lack motivation or lack the ability to perform well. Punishment is appropriate for motivational failures but not for the ability failures. Ability failures should be dealt with either by giving the soldier additional training or by moving him to a position for which he does have the ability to perform well.

In this situation, the company commander recommended a severe punishment for a failure which was not caused by inadequate motivation. The failure to find out why the sergeant missed formation typifies a leadership weak-

ness commonly referred to as "going off half-cocked." It almost always results in embarrassment for the leaders.

The failure to check the sergeant's reason was not the company commander's only error. He also ignored the man's past record when recommending punishment. This should always be one of the first and most important considerations when disciplinary action is being taken. This information is a necessary aid in determining whether this performance failure should be attributed to inadequate motivation or to a lack of ability. In this case, the sergeant's good record indicates his failure is not to be attributed either to motivation or to ability but rather to an unusual situation. Once he is past this situation, his performance will in all probability revert to its previous high level. In this case, punishment cannot be expected to better the man's future performance.

One factor contributing to the company commander's excessively severe action was his expressed intention to make an example of the sergeant. He was probably trying to make the punishment so severe that no other company member would dare miss a formation in the future without first calling in. However, as so often happens when "an example is made of a man," the punishment is too severe for the offense. This does more harm than good.

One final point should be mentioned. The company commander did not have the authority to demote the sergeant himself. Reductions in rank can be made only through courts-martial or other administrative action instigated by the company commander, based on his own personal investigation. Such action requires the presentation of evidence. However, the company commander had completely neglected to collect any evidence that might be considered favorable for Sergeant Murphy. This was a serious oversight because the battalion commander was sure to inquire into this aspect of the case before deciding what was to be done. In this case, he found evidence of extenuating circumstances. Consequently, the company commander had put himself in a bad spot. He was almost certain to be criticized for not getting the facts in the case, and he ran the chance that the battalion commander might not support his recommendation.

There were several things the battalion commander could have done. One would have been to court-martial the man. However, for reasons already given, this would have been inappropriate. A second possible action would have

been to dismiss the charges against the sergeant entirely. This was not the most desirable alternative because it would have constituted a complete rejection of the company commander's recommendation for disciplinary action. This in turn, would have undermined to some extent the position of the company commander with respect to his men.

The battalion commander's decision was a sound compromise. The sergeant was disciplined reasonably, and, as a consequence, the company commander was supported to an adequate extent. Most important, neither the sergeant nor the other men in the company got the impression that the company commander's future disciplinary recommendations would not be supported by the battalion commander. Thus, in a difficult situation, the battalion commander took these proper actions:

1. He heard both the sergeant's and the company commander's stories. This enabled him to determine what discipline was necessary, based on more complete information. Had he not done this, he would have made the same error as the company commander.

2. He considered the sergeant's record in deciding on the appropriate discipline. By relating his leniency to the sergeant's good record, he made a good record a worthwhile objective for both the sergeant and the rest of the company. In effect, this made good performance a kind of insurance against the type of mistake the sergeant made.

3. He rejected the company commander's recommendations to take action against the sergeant which might have resulted in demotion. Demotion obviously was inappropriate. It would have amounted to punishing the sergeant because his wife became ill. Both the Army and the man would have suffered.

4. He disciplined the sergeant appropriately for not calling the company. Minor discipline was warranted because the sergeant knew he was supposed to call in when he was going to be late but nonetheless failed to do so. This was mild pressure to make him think of calling in the next time a similar situation arose.

5. He emphasized the fact that the sergeant was an exception because of his good excuse and good past record. By so doing, he both maintained the sergeant's motivation to do good work and indicated that his policy was to support the company commander's recommendations.

6. He counseled the company commander about his incorrect handling of the problem after first determining whether or not the company commander had checked into the sergeant's reasons for failure. His critiquing action followed his determination of the company commander's ideas about the reasons for failure. In the critique, he explained his reasons for rejecting the company commander's recommendations and his reasons for the action he did take. These actions were taken so the company commander would know what he did wrong and why.

The Promotion!



Sergeant First Class Roberts returned from emergency leave and found out that during his absence, Private First Class Jones had been promoted to specialist fourth class. At his first opportunity, he told Lieutenant Taylor, his platoon leader, that he was disappointed because Private First Class Smith did not get the promotion. He said that Smith had worked hard for promotion and deserved it more than Jones. Sergeant First Class Roberts further stated that Smith was mad because he had not been promoted and requested that Lieutenant Taylor talk to him about it. Lieutenant Taylor responded, "No, sergeant, I don't think that'll be necessary. If he feels that bad about it, give him a 3-day pass and tell him he'll be on the next promotion list."

DISCUSSION

A soldier's performance indicates his ability to do the work and his motivation to do it well. If either ability or motivation is low, performance is likely to suffer. A soldier's motivation to perform depends primarily on: his conviction that he can succeed if he tries; his belief that his leader will reward him for good work; the value he places on the reward; and his estimate of the probability that he will be punished if he does not try to perform.

To the leader, this means that his men's motivation to perform is based on the relationship of his system of rewards and punishment to their performance. If the leader does not base rewards and punishment on performance, his

men's motivation will be low. This is so because good performance will not be seen by the men as the key to getting things they want and to avoiding things they do not want.

The platoon leader in this situation committed two errors. First, he did not reward Smith's good work performance appropriately, and, second, he failed to anticipate the consequences this failure might have on Smith's future efficiency and upon the platoon's confidence in his own leadership.

It is not clear whether the platoon had an established promotion policy based on performance. If not, this was a flaw in the leader's procedure. Such a policy, announced and well understood, would let each man in the platoon know the standards by which he is judged so he can predict where he stands in terms of those standards.

Lieutenant Taylor's knowledge of his men was faulty. He should have had up-to-date information on all the men in his platoon, based on systematic evaluation of their efforts derived from close personal observation supplemented by reports from his NCOs.

Whatever the reason for Lieutenant Taylor's failure, it curtailed Smith's motivation to perform well on future assignments. Furthermore, it was a blow to the platoon's confidence in Lieutenant Taylor's leadership.

If Lieutenant Taylor had understood how and why Smith was likely to be affected, he could have recovered Smith's usefulness to the platoon. He should have let Smith know that performance was still the basis for reward and punishment, that he was not responsible for his own failure to get promoted, and that he was still a valued member of the platoon. One way to do this would be to talk privately with Smith, commend him for his past performance, and promise Smith that he would be put in for promotion next time.

The platoon leader did not utilize his NCOs in making an important decision. Decisions can be made more intelligently by the leader if he consults with them to fill gaps in his own knowledge. Furthermore, the support he gives his noncommissioned officers by consulting with them on decisions is a determinant of the amount of control they have over their own subordinates. If squad members see that their squad leader has influence with the platoon leader, they will respect and obey him more readily.

This situation also entails an occurrence of failure to use good advice from subordinate leaders. As soon as the platoon sergeant saw the platoon leader, he commented that Smith was "mad" about being left off the promotion list and suggested that it might make Smith feel better if the platoon leader would talk with him about it. This suggestion might have saved the situation, had the platoon leader accepted it.

The platoon leader's reaction to the knowledge

that the incident had upset Smith was too casual. The knowledge that one of his men is badly upset about something should cause a leader to act at once to learn the circumstances and to attempt corrective measures. Giving Smith a 3-day pass was a poor solution. Smith could not have interpreted this as a reward for his good past performance. He must, instead, have resented it as an attempt by the platoon leader to "smooth things over."

The new replacement



The company commander informed LT Watson that he was getting a replacement for his platoon. He further stated that the man had been in trouble in "C" Company for fighting and was being reassigned within the battalion. LT Watson told the company commander that as long as the new man did his job and stayed out of trouble, he would get along fine.

An hour later when the replacement arrived, LT Watson met him, welcomed him to the unit, but indicated he was too busy to interview or orient

him personally. He told his platoon sergeant, SFC Jones, to take the man to the barracks, assign him to a squad, and give him some time to get squared away.

Early the following day, SGT Brown rushed up to LT Watson and said, "Sir, we're having trouble with Smith, that new man SGT Jones put in my squad! He started a fight with one of my men, and, when I broke it up, he mouthed off to me! I didn't want to hit him, so I sent him over to the orderly room. You had better go talk to him."

DISCUSSION

The manner in which a leader handles new members of his unit determines to a large extent their future performance in his unit. If they do not know what is required of them or have problems which interfere with their work, they cannot reasonably be expected to perform well. Further, if they are not properly oriented, they may, under some circumstances, impair the efficiency of a smoothly functioning unit.

A leader's orientation of new men generally consists, in part, of: getting background information on them, their experiences, and their past training; explaining unit policies and SOP; and making them feel welcome as members of the unit. An interview and orientation of this type should be conducted by the leaders at all levels of the new men's chain of command (i.e., platoon leaders, squad leaders, and fire team leaders). This will integrate new men into the unit's activities quickly and minimize adjustment problems that might otherwise occur.



Sergeant Payne was drilling his squad in preparation for the company drill competition that was to take place on Friday afternoon when he angrily shouted, "All right, Harvey, what's wrong this time? Don't you know your left foot from your right? Show me your right hand—now your left. OK! At least you know your left from your right! If you men would listen to the cadence and stop looking at each other's heels, you wouldn't have any trouble staying in step! You look like a bunch of recruits!" One of the men inquired, "Sergeant, you aren't supposed to give a facing movement when we're at present arms? You did . . ." The sergeant responded, "At ease, back there! I'm in charge here, and I give the orders. Now, let's try it again. You might as well decide to do it right; you'll be out here until you do!"

DISCUSSION

An important aspect of leadership is proper critiquing. This is informing a unit about past performance in such a manner that it improves future performance. Critiquing must be conducted in an unemotional, objective, and non-punitive atmosphere. The degree of motivation and the capability of a squad is determined, to a great extent, by the *quality* of critiquing.

In this situation, which illustrates a poor method of critiquing, the squad leader made several serious leadership errors while critiquing his squad's drill.

First, in an emotional and degrading manner he berated a man who made errors. Instead of trying to find the source of the man's trouble, he

humiliated the man by making him demonstrate, with the squad looking on, that he knew his left hand from his right. This was a bad technique for two reasons: If Private Harvey actually was confused and unable to do better, this treatment could have made the situation worse by upsetting him further. The humiliation would have made him feel as if he had lost status with respect to the other members of the squad. This will inevitably produce resentment and loss of motivation in the man critiqued and in others present because the same might happen to them at some future time.

The squad leader also spoke in a derogatory manner to his entire squad comparing them with "recruits." For the same reasons as those given above, such action can hardly be expected to have good results.

When one of the men tactlessly pointed out that he had given an incorrect order during the drill, the squad leader "pulled rank" rather than accepting the suggestion. Although this suggestion could have been made more tactfully, negative reactions of the type illustrated are never appropriate. The men generally believe them to be characteristic of leaders who are insecure in their positions of leadership. Negative reactions tend to be highly resented by everyone. Willingness to admit errors, especially when they are apparent to one's men, is an important attribute of good leadership.

He also told the squad in a caustic manner that they would drill until the performance was "right." This, in essence, was using prolonged but needed training as a threat rather than as a way to correct a weakness. The men would soon regard the needed training as a form of punishment.

In general, a well-calculated burst of anger is appropriate only if it is clearly evident that the men are performing badly because of a lack of motivation to do better. This rarely is the case. In this situation, the men have everything to gain from doing a good job, and little to lose. Unless antagonized by the supervision they are getting, they probably are as interested in doing a good job as their leaders are. When this is the case, anger and threats are inappropriate and improper.

The squad leader in this situation evidently wanted his unit to win the squad competition. Since they did not measure up to his standards when he thought they could, he reacted emotionally and belligerently. This would not improve the men's performance. It would only undermine their trust and respect for their leader.

The Weapons Inspection!



In midafternoon Captain Swartz announced that he was holding a weapons inspection the following morning. Sergeant First Class Parker, the acting weapons platoon leader, told his men that he would like their platoon to be the best in the company. He told them that he had coordinated with the company commander and that if they were in top-notch shape for the inspection, the platoon would get a 3-day pass.

The next morning Captain Swartz inspected a few weapons and told Sergeant Parker that, from what he had seen, the weapons were in good shape and that he could dismiss the men. When the captain departed, Sergeant Parker continued the inspection.

After the inspection, Sergeant Parker told his men that it was the best showing the platoon had made for an inspection and that he was proud of their performance. He stated that there were a few discrepancies, but since they had worked so hard the night before getting things ready, they could wait until Monday to correct them. After telling his men that he had cleared the 3-day pass with the company commander, he dismissed the platoon for the long weekend.

DISCUSSION

A leader must provide rewards appropriate to the work performance of his men. This may involve verbal praise or concrete rewards or both. Rewards should be proportional to the amount of effort his men expend to earn the reward. They serve to maintain the platoon's

motivation to perform and define in some measure the standards by which the leader judges performance.

The leader's actions in this situation were uniformly good. He set high performance standards for his men, promised a tangible reward for meeting these standards, and provided the reward.

Everyone likes to belong to a crack unit. The platoon leader evidently was trying to build his platoon into such a unit, as he said to the men, "I'd like our platoon to be the best in the company this time."

Realizing that the job ahead would require a special effort, the leader promised an appropriate reward for good performance. In general, the effectiveness of such promises depends on the extent to which the men think the reward is worth the effort required, and on the confidence which they have to meet the standards and thus earn the reward.

During the inspection itself, the company commander inspected only a part of the weapons and equipment, complimented the men on a job well done, and left. Although men would rather not have inspections, it is frustrating for them to work hard getting ready for one and then not be inspected thoroughly. If they have done a good job, they want recognition for it, based on careful inspection. They want the inspecting officer to know they're good. They want him to look hard and find everything right.

The company commander's action led to the acting platoon leader's next action, that of completing the inspection himself. This was a good substitute in that it provided a factual basis for recognition of good work the platoon had done. It was not a completely equal substitute for the commander's inspection, of course, but it was the best thing the platoon leader could do under the circumstances.

The acting platoon leader's actions ended with two different kinds of rewards, and something "a little extra." After the inspection, he praised the platoon for its good work. This, when based realistically on performance, provides the men the needed recognition by superiors for work well done. It is part of the informal contract. The platoon members lived up to their part of the performance bargain, and in turn the platoon leader took care of their needs. After praising them for their good performance, he provided the "extra" reward. Although he told his men of the discrepancies noted during the

inspection, it was with instructions that the discrepancies need not be corrected until the following Monday. Finally, although it required coordination with his company commander, he provided the pass he had promised, again relating this second reward to the platoon's good performance. This action probably had two

effects. First, it demonstrated to the men that their leader was willing "to go to bat" for them when they did a good job. Second, his ability to get the pass for them demonstrated that their leader's judgment was respected by the company commander. It is vital that men of a unit have these convictions about their leaders.

the RUNNING Incident!



Drill Sergeant Norton was moving his basic training platoon to a bleacher site about 3 miles from the company area for a class in target detection. The morning was bitter cold, and Drill Sergeant Norton checked his men before leaving to insure they all were wearing their jacket and trouser liners. After moving out, he decided to double-time the men to the training area to get them warmed up in the last half mile of the run, the men began to straggle, and the drill sergeant noted that he had sweated through his trousers. He gave the men a break and then put them in the bleachers for training. He then borrowed the instructor's jeep in order to return to the company to put on dry clothes.

DISCUSSION

This situation shows how a poor decision, coupled with a subsequent poor choice of action, will jeopardize morale and the respect the men have for their leader.

The incident occurred in a typical training situation during the winter months. The weather was extremely cold, and the class for that morning was to be held in outdoor bleachers. The platoon members were dressed in heavy winter clothing which was necessary for protec-

tion against chilling during the long periods of their "sit-down" instruction.

Men dressed this way must avoid overheating. If a person so dressed engages in strenuous activity, he will sweat profusely. Once jacket and trouser liners are wet with perspiration, they will stay wet for a long time. If worn during a period of subsequent inactivity they will chill the wearer as much as or more than he would have been chilled without them. This is what happened in this situation.

The drill sergeant's bad decision was to double-time his men to the training area. Dressed as they were, they were undoubtedly as soaked with perspiration as he was when they arrived at the training area. It could be predicted that as soon as they stopped moving, they would cool off and subsequently become miserable.

Note the drill sergeant's actions at the training site. After double-timing to the training area with his men, he should, by then, have realized that he had made a poor decision. He should have marched his men, not run them. He also should have realized that their consequent discomfort would have an adverse effect on the morning's training. If he had considered the condition of his men as he should have, there would have been at least two good actions he could have taken.

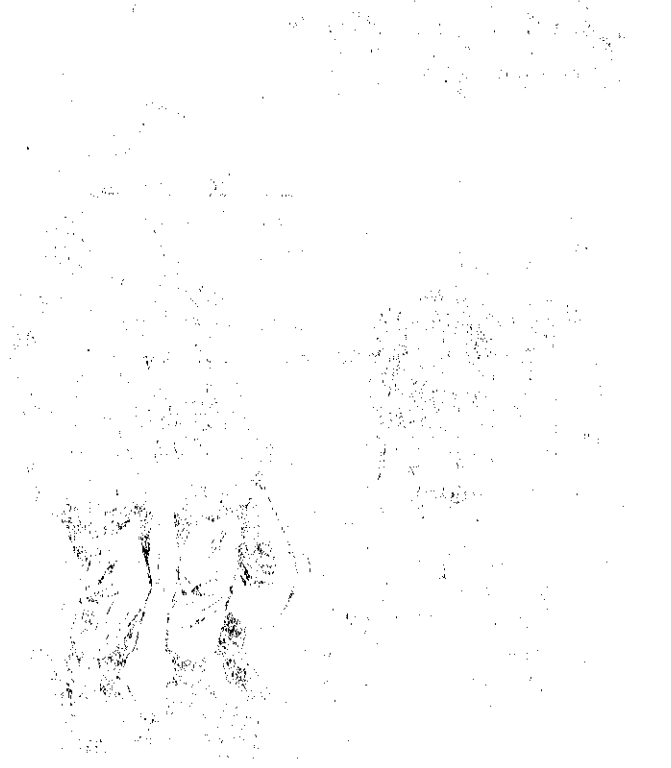
He could have requested, through the company commander, that this training be suspended for the morning and that some other training be substituted in its place. Although this might have forced him to admit a poor decision to the company commander, it would have been a better action to take because it would have prevented the morning from becoming a complete loss. As it was, his platoon, after sweating through their jacket and trouser liners, was very cold and very likely, learned little from the class.

In the event that suspending this training was not feasible or that he did not wish to recommend this, the drill sergeant could have either had hot coffee sent out or brought it out in the jeep himself. The coffee would have served as a stimulant and replaced to some small degree the body heat the men were losing due to their wet clothing. Along the same line, he could have instructed the men to build a fire and then given them frequent breaks in which to move around and get warm.

As it was, he did neither. Instead of trying to help the platoon, he borrowed the jeep and left.

The results of this action are easy to predict. There is a good chance that his men thought he was unwilling to stay and share their discomforts with them—that he had "copped out."

They probably considered this an abuse of rank privileges. As a result, their morale and their respect for this leader probably suffered.



The results of this action are easy to predict. There is a good chance that his men thought he was unwilling to stay and share their discomforts with them—that he had "copped out." They probably considered this an abuse of rank privileges. As a result, their morale and their respect for this leader probably suffered.

The results of this action are easy to predict. There is a good chance that his men thought he was unwilling to stay and share their discomforts with them—that he had "copped out." They probably considered this an abuse of rank privileges. As a result, their morale and their respect for this leader probably suffered.

The results of this action are easy to predict. There is a good chance that his men thought he was unwilling to stay and share their discomforts with them—that he had "copped out." They probably considered this an abuse of rank privileges. As a result, their morale and their respect for this leader probably suffered.

BIBLIOGRAPHY/READING LIST

- Aldridge, John W. *In the Country of the Young*. New York: Harper and Row, Inc., 1970.
- Argyris, Chris. *Integrating the Organization and the Individual*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1964.
- , *Personality and Organization*. New York: Harper and Row, Inc., 1957.
- Baier, Kurt and Nicholas Rescher, (eds). *Value and the Future*. New York: Free Press, 1969.
- Banner, William A. *Ethics, An Introduction to Moral Philosophy*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1968.
- Barbour, Floyd B., (ed). *The Black Power Revolt*. Boston: Porter-Sargeant Publishing Co., 1968.
- Bass, Bernard M. *Leadership, Psychology and Organization Behavior*. New York: Harper and Row, Inc., 1960.
- , *Organizational Psychology*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1965.
- Bennis, Warren G., Kenneth D. Benne and Robert Chin. *The Planning of Change*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1969.
- , and Phillip G. Slater. *The Temporary Society*. New York: Harper and Row, Inc., 1968.
- Berelson, Bernard and Gary A. Steiner. *Human Behavior*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1964.
- Bergman, Mort N. and Peter M. *The Chronological History of the Negro in America*. New York: New American Library, 1969.
- Blau, Peter. *Exchange and Power in Social Life*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1964.
- , "The Hierarchy of Authority in Organization," *American Journal of Sociology*. Vol. 73, 1968.
- Blum, R. H. "Drugs and Violence," *Crimes of Violence*. (Staff Report to the National Commission on the Causes and Prevention of Violence. Prepared by D. J. Mulvihill and M. M. Tumin) Washington: Superintendent of Documents, US Government Printing Office, 1970.
- and Assoc. *Society and Drugs*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1969.
- , *Students and Drugs*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1969.
- Blumer, H. *The World of Youthful Drug Use*. Berkeley: School of Criminology, University of California Press, 1967.
- Brenner, J., R. Coles and D. Meagher. *Drugs and Youth*. New York: Liveright Publishing Corporation, 1970.
- Breth, Robert D. *Dynamic Management Communications*. Reading: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1969.
- Brown, Claude. *Manchild in the Promised Land*. New York: Signet Books, 1965.
- Brown, David S., (ed). *Looking into Leadership*. Washington: Leadership Resources, Inc., 1969.
- Brown, Dee. *Bury My Heart at Wounded Knee*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1971.
- Brown, H. Rap. *Die Nigger Die*. New York: The Dial Press, Inc., 1969.
- Browne and Thomas S. Cohen, (eds). *The Study of Leadership*. Danville: Interstate, 1958.
- Bureau of Narcotics and Dangerous Drugs. *Drug Abuse Prevention: A Community Program Guide*. Washington: Superintendent of Documents, US Government Printing Office, 1970.
- , *Drugs of Abuse*. Washington: Superintendent of Documents, US Government Printing Office, 1970.
- , *Fact Sheets*. Washington: Superintendent of Documents, US Government Printing Office, 1969.
- Burnette, Robert. *The Tortured Americans*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1971.
- Carey, J. T. *The College Drug Scene*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968.
- Carmichael, Stokely and Charles Hamilton. *Black Power*. New York: Alfred Knopf, Inc., 1967.
- Churchman, C. W. *The Systems Approach*. New York: Dell Publishing Co., Inc., 1968.

- Cleaver, Eldridge. *Soul on Ice*. New York: Dell Publishing Co., Inc., 1968.
- Clendenen, Clarence C. *Blood on the Border*. New York: Macmillan Company, 1969.
- Cohen, S. *The Drug Dilemma*. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1969.
- Coleman, James C. *Psychology and Human Behavior*. New York: Scott, Foresman, 1969.
- Common Sense Lives Here*. National Coordinating Council on Drug Abuse Education and Information. Washington: US Government Printing Office, 1970.
- Cone, James. *Black Theology and Black Power*. New York: The Seabury Press, 1969.
- Cyert, Richard M. and James C. March. *A Behavioral Theory of the Firm*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1961.
- Daniels, Rober. *The Politics of Prejudice: The Anti-Japanese Movement in California and The Struggle for Japanese Exclusion*. New York: Atheneum Publishers, 1968.
- Deloria, Vine, Jr. *We Talk, You Listen*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1970.
- Drucker, Peter F. *Age of Discontinuity*. New York: Harper and Row, Inc., 1968.
- , *The Effective Executive*. New York: Harper and Row, Inc., 1961.
- , *Managing for Results*. New York: Harper and Row, Inc., 1964.
- Drug Abuse: Escape to Nowhere*. Philadelphia: Smith Kline and French Laboratories. (Available from the National Education Association, Washington, D.C. 20036), 1967.
- Dushken, David A. *Psychology Today, An Introduction*. Del Mar; Communications Research Machines, Inc., 1970.
- Einstein, S. *The Use and Misuse of Drugs: A Social Dilemma*. Belmont: Wadsworth Publishing, 1970.
- Etzioni, Amitai. *A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organization*. New York: Glencoe Free Press, 1962.
- , *Complex Organization*. New York: Glencoe Free Press, 1961.
- , *Modern Organizations*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964.
- Festinger, Leon and Daniel Katz. *Research Methods in the Behavioral Sciences*. New York: The Dryden Press, 1953.
- Fiedler, Fred E. *A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness*. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1967.
- , "The Contingency Model: A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness." in Harold Probanky and Bernard Seidenbert, (eds). *Basic Studies in Social Psychology*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1965.
- Fletcher, Joseph F. *Moral Responsibility; Situation Ethics at Work*. Philadelphia: Westminster Press, 1967.
- Fort, J. *Pleasure Seekers—The Drug Crisis, Youth and Society*. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1969.
- Frankena, William K. *Ethics*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963.
- Frykman, John. *A New Connection*. San Francisco: Scrimshaw Press, 1971.
- Galarza, Ernesto, Herman Callegos and Julian Samora (eds). *Mexican-Americans in the Southwest*. Chicago: McNally and Loftin Publishers, 1970.
- Gardner, John W. *The Antileadership Vaccine*. New York: Carnegie Corporation of New York, 1965.
- Gellerman, Saul W. *Motivation and Productivity*. New York: American Management Assn., 1963.
- Gerzon, Mark. *The Whole World is Watching; A Young Man Looks at Youth's Dissent*. New York: The Viking Press, 1970.
- Givertz, Harry K. (ed). *Contemporary Moral Issues*. Belmont: Wadsworth Pub. Co., 1969.
- Glasser, William. *Reality Therapy*. New York: Harper and Row, Inc., 1965.
- Goddard, D. "Social Factors Associated with Coca Use in the Andean Region," *International Journal of the Addictions*. New York: Institute for the Study of Drug Addiction, 1969.
- Goldstein, J. W., J. H. Korn, W. H. Abel and R. N. Morgan. *The Social Psychology and Epidemiology of Student Drug Usage: Report on Phase One*. Pittsburgh: Carnegie-Mellon University, 1970.
- Grassroots*. Washington: National Coordinating Council on Drug Abuse Education and Information, 1971.
- Guetzkow, Harold (ed). *Groups, Leadership and Man*. Pittsburgh: Carnegie Press, 1951.
- Haas, Harold J. *Pastoral Counseling with People in Distress*. St. Louis: Concordia, 1970.
- Haine, Mason (ed). *Modern Organization Theory*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 195-.
- Hall, Edward F. *The Silent Language*. New York: Doubleday and Co., 1970.
- Harris, Richard. *Justice; The Crisis of Law, Order and Freedom in America*. New York: E. P. Dutton, 1970.

- Harris, Thomas A. *Counseling The Serviceman and His Family*. Philadelphia: Fortress Press, 1966.
- , *I'm O.K., You're O.K.* New York: Harper and Row, Inc., 1969.
- Hart, H. L. A. *Law, Liberty, and Morality*. California: Stanford University Press, 1963.
- Havron, Dean M. and Joseph McGrath. "The Contribution of the Leader to the Effectiveness of Small Military Groups," in Luigi Petralla and Bernard M. Bass (eds). *Leadership and Interpersonal Behavior*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1961.
- Hays, Samuel H. and William N. Thomas. *Taking Command*. Harrisburg: Stackpole Co., 1967.
- Herzberg, Frederick. *Work and the Nature of Man*. Cleveland: World Press, 1966.
- , Bernard Mausner and Barbara Snyderman. *The Motivation to Work*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1960.
- Hickman, Martin B. *The Military and American Society*. Beverly Hills: Glencoe Press, 1971.
- Hollander, C., (ed). *Background Papers on Student Drug Involvement*. Washington: US National Student Association, 1967.
- Holmes, Fred R. *Prejudice and Discrimination; Can We Eliminate Them*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1970.
- Homans, George C. *The Human Group*. New York: Harcourt Brace and Co., 1950.
- Horman, R. and A. Fox. *Drug Awareness*. New York: Avon Books, 1970.
- Hosokawa, Bill. *Nisei: The Quiet Americans*. New York: William Morrow and Co., Inc., 1969.
- Huntington, Samuel P. *The Soldier and The State*. Cambridge: The Belknap Press of Harvard University Press, 1957.
- Hutchinson, C. Alan. *Frontier Settlement in Mexican California: The Hajar-Padras Colony and Its Origins*. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1969.
- Issaacs, Harold. *The New World of Negro Americans*. New York: The Viking Press, 1963.
- Jacobs, T. O. *Leadership and Exchange in Formal Organizations*. Alexandria: Human Resources Research Organization (HumRRO), 1971.
- Janowitz, Morris, (ed). *The New Military*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1964.
- , *The Professional Soldier*. New York: The Free Press, 1960.
- Johnson, Dewey E. *Concepts of Air Force Leadership*. Maxwell Air Force Base: Air Force ROTC, Air University, 1970.
- Jones, K. L., L. W. Shainberg and C. O. Byer. *Drugs and Alcohol*. New York: Harper and Row, Inc., 1969.
- Josephy, Alvin M. Jr. *Red Power*. New York: American Heritage Press, 1970.
- Kahn, Robert. *Organizational Stress*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc. 1964.
- Kalish, Richard A. *The Psychology of Human Behavior*. (2nd Edition) Belmont: Brooks/Cole Publishing Co., 1970.
- Kaplan, Abraham. *Conduct of Inquiry*. San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1964.
- Katz, Daniel and Robert Kahn. *The Social Psychology of Organizations*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1966.
- Kern, Richard P. *A Conceptual Model of Behavior Under Stress With Implications For Combat Training*. (Technical Report 66-12) Alexandria: Human Resources Research Office (HumRRO), The George Washington University, 1966.
- Kerner, Otto, (Chmn). *Report of the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders*. New York: Bantam Books, 1968.
- Killian, Lewis M. *The Impossible Revolution*. New York: Random House, 1968.
- Kitane, Harry L. *Japanese-Americans: The Evolution of a Subculture*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1969.
- Knowles, Louis L. and Kenneth Prewitt, (eds). *Institutional Racism in America*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1969.
- Kozol, Jonathan. *Death at an Early Age*. New York: Bantam Press, 1967.
- Leckie, William H. *The Buffalo Soldiers*. Norman, Okla: University of Oklahoma Press, 1967.
- Likert, Rensis. *New Patterns of Management*. New York: McGraw-Hill Publishing Co., 1961.
- , *The Human Organization: Its Management and Value*. New York, McGraw-Hill Publishing Co., 1967.
- Lambert, William W. and Wallace E. Lambert. *Social Psychology*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964.
- Lomax, Louis. *The Negro Revolt*. New York: Harper and Row, Inc., 1963.
- Louria, D. *The Drug Scene*. New York: McGraw-Hill Publishing Co., 1970.
- Malcolm X. *The Autobiography of Malcom X*. New York: Grove Press, 1964.

- March, James, (ed). *Handbook of Organizations*. Chicago: Rand-McNally, 1965.
- and Herbert A. Simon. *Organizations*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1958.
- Marine, Gene. *The Black Panthers*. New York: Signet Books, 1969.
- Marshall, S. L. A. *Men Against Fire*. New York: William Morrow and Co., 1947.
- Marvin, P. and A. Cohen. *Understanding Drug Use*. New York: Harper and Row, Inc., 1971.
- Maslow, Abraham H. *Motivation and Personality*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1954.
- , *Toward A Psychology of Being*. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold Co., 1962.
- Massie, Joseph L. *Essentials of Management*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1971.
- McClelland, D. C. *The Achievement Motive*. Princeton: Van Nostrand Reinhold Co., 1961.
- McGregor, Douglas. *The Human Side of Enterprise*. New York: McGraw-Hill, Pub. Co., 1960.
- , *The Professional Manager*. New York: McGraw-Hill Pub. Co., 1967.
- McGrath, Joseph E. *Social Psychology*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964.
- Menditto, J. *Drugs of Addiction and Non-addiction: Their Use and Abuse. A Comprehensive Bibliography*. Troy: Whitson Publishing Co., 1970.
- Modell, W. *Drugs in Current Use and New Drugs 1970*. New York: Springer Publishing Co., 1970.
- Moquin, Wayne, (ed). *Documentary History of the Mexican Americans*. New York: Praeger Publishers, 1971.
- Moskos, Charles C. Jr. *The American Enlisted Men*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1970.
- Myrdal, Gunnar. *An American Dilemma*. New York: Harper and Row, Inc., 1962.
- Nabokov, Peter. *Tijerina and the Courthouse Raid*. Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 1969.
- National Clearinghouse for Drug Abuse Information. *A Federal Source Book: Answers to the Most Frequently Asked Questions About Drug Abuse*. Washington: Superintendent of Documents, US Government Printing Office, 1970.
- , *Selected Drug Abuse Education Films*. Washington: Superintendent of Documents, US Government Printing Office, 1970.
- National Institute of Mental Health. *Resource Book for Drug Abuse Education*. Wash-
- ington: Superintendent of Documents, US Government Printing Office, 1970.
- New York Chamber of Commerce. *Drug Abuse as a Business Problem*. New York: Chamber of Commerce, 1970.
- Nobile, Philip (ed). *The Con III Controversy: The Critics Look At The Greening of America*. New York: Pocket Books, 1971.
- Nowlis, H. G. *Drugs on the College Campus*. Garden City: Anchor Books, Doubleday, 1968.
- Odiorne, George S. *Management Decisions by Objectives*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1969.
- Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development, Social and Rehabilitation Service, Brotman, R. and F. Suffett. *Youthful Drug Use*. Washington: Superintendent of Documents, US Government Printing Office, 1970.
- Olmstead, Joseph A. *Instructor's Guide To Performance Counseling*. Alexandria: Human Resources Research Organization (humRRO), The George Washington University, 1968.
- Olstead, Michael S. *The Small Group*. New York: Random House, Inc., 1959.
- Pearlman, S (ed). "Drugs on the Campus. Annotated Guide to the Literature," *International Journal of the Addictions*. New York: Institute for the Study of Drug Addiction, 1969.
- Petrullo, L. and B. H. Bass. *Leadership and Interpersonal Behavior*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961.
- Polsky, N. *Hustlers, Beats and Others*. Chicago: Aldin Pub. Co., 1967.
- Porter, Lyman and Edward Lawler. *Managerial Attitudes and Performance*. Homewood: Irwin Pub. Co., 1968.
- Preble, E. "Social and Cultural Factors Related to Narcotic Use Among Puerto Ricans in New York City," *International Journal of the Addictions*. New York: Institute for the Study of Drug Addiction, 1966.
- Presthus, Robert. *The Organizational Society*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf Pub. Co., 1962.
- Probansky, Harold and Bernard Seidenbert (eds). *Basic Studies in Social Psychology*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965.
- Ramsey, Paul. *Deeds and Rules in Christian Ethics*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1967.
- , *The Just War: Force and Political Responsibility*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1968.

- Reich, Charles A. *The Greening of America*. New York: Random House, 1970.
- Rivers, Feliciano. *A Mexican-American Sourcebook*. Duneller: Educational Counseling Associates, 1970.
- Rogers, Carl A. *Counseling and Psychotherapy*. New York: Houghton Mifflin, Inc., 1942.
- , *On Becoming A Person*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, Inc., 1961.
- Rose, Peter. *The Study of Society*. New York: Random House, 1967.
- Rozytko, V. V. *Initial Steps Toward Evaluation of the Mendocino State Hospital Drug Abuse Program*. Mendocino: Mendocino California State Hospital, 1970.
- Sawrey, J. D. *Frustration and Conflict*. DuBuque: William C. Brow Pub. Co., 1969.
- Schein, Edgar H. *Organizational Psychology*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965.
- Schwartz, Barry N. and Robert Disch (eds). *White Racism*. New York: Dell Publishing Co., 1970.
- Senior, Clarence. *The Puerto Ricans: Strangers Then Neighbors*. Chicago: Quadrangle Books, 1965.
- Sherif, Carolyn and Muzaffer. *An Outline of Social Psychology*. New York: Harper and Row, Inc., 1956.
- Shostrom, Everett L. *Man, The Manipulator*. New York: Bantam Books, 1968.
- Snyder, Ross. *Young People and Their Culture*. Nashville: Abingdon Press, 1969.
- Simon, Herbert A. *Administrative Behavior*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1957.
- Smith, Kline and French. *Drug Abuse Products Reference Chart*. Washington: Pharmaceutical Manufacturers Association, 1968.
- Someone Close to You is on Drugs*. New York: Human Resources Administration, 1969.
- STASH Book List*. Beloit: STASH Press, 1969.
- Stewart, W. (ed). *Drug Abuse in Industry*. Miami: Halos Pub. Co., 1970.
- Stouffer, S. A. et al. *The American Soldier*. (Vol II) *Combat and Its Aftermath*. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1949.
- Steiner, Stan. *La Raza: The Mexican Americans*. New York: Harper and Row, Inc., 1969.
- , *The New Indians*. New York: Harper and Row, Inc., 1968.
- Steinmetz, Lawrence L. *Managing The Marginal and Unsatisfactory Performer*. Reading: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1969.
- Sterling, Dorothy. *Tear Down The Walls*. New York: Signet Books, 1968.
- Tannenbaum, Arnold (ed). *Control in Organizations*. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1968.
- Taylor, Frederick W. *Scientific Management*. New York: Harper and Row, Inc. 1967.
- Terry, Robert W. *For Whites Only*. Grand Rapids: William B. Erdmans Publishing Co., 1970.
- Thomas, George F. *Christian Ethics and Moral Philosophy*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1955.
- Thompson, Victor A. *Modern Organizations*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf Pub. Co., 1961.
- Tiffin, Joseph and Ernest J. McCormick. *Industrial Psychology*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965.
- Titus, Harold H. *Ethics For Today*. New York: American Book Co., 1957.
- Toffler, Alvin. *Future Shock*. New York: Random House, 1970.
- Townsend, Robert. *Up The Organization: How To Stop The Corporation From Stifling People and Strangling Profits*. Greenwich: Fawcett Publications, Inc., 1971.
- Turax, Charles B. and Robert R. Clarkhuff. *Toward Effective Counseling and Psychotherapy: Training and Practice*. Chicago: Aldin Publishing Co., 1967.
- Vroom, Victor. *Work and Motivation*. New York: John Wiley and Son, 1964.
- Wagenheim, Kal. *Puerto Rico: A Profile*. New York: Praeger Publishers, 1971.
- Wassmer, Thomas A. *Christian Ethics For Today*. Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Co., 1969.
- Webber, Ross A. *Culture and Management*. Homewood: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1969.
- Weber, Max. *The Theory of Social Economic Organization*. New York: Glencoe Free Press, 1947. (Trans. by Henderson and Parsons.)
- Weick, Karl E. *The Social Psychology of Organizing*. Reading: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1969.
- Whyte, William F. *Men At Work*. Homewood: Richard D. Irwin, Inc. 1961.
- , *Money and Motivation*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1955.
- Whyte, W. H. Jr. *The Organization Man*. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1956.
- Williams, Robin M. Jr. *American Society*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf Pub Co., 1970.
- Wood, Robert S. M. *Principles and Problems of Ethics*. New York: R. Herder Co., 1962.

Wool, Harold. *Military Specialist*. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1968.
Zahn, Gordon C. *War, Conscience and Dissent*. New York: Hawthorn Books, 1967.

Zumbardo, Phillip and Ebbe B. Ebbesen. *Influencing Attitudes and Changing Behavior*. Reading: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1969.

By Order of the Secretary of the Army:

CREIGHTON W. ABRAMS
General, United States Army
Chief of Staff

Official:

VERNE L. BOWERS
Major General, United States Army
The Adjutant General

Distribution:

To be distributed in accordance with DA Form 12-11A requirements for Military Leadership (Qty rqr block no. 180).