
LEADERSHIP: 2000 AND BEYOND

Second Edition | Volume II

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



June 2004

LEADERSHIP: 2000 AND BEYOND

Second Edition

PREFACE

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

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

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

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

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

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

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



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Chapter 11

INTRODUCTION

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

LOGIC IN PROBLEM SOLVING

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

Logic Defined

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

DEFINE LOGIC.

Distinguishing Facts from Opinions

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

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

DISCUSS WAYS TO DISTINGUISH FACT FROM OPINION

Barriers to Logic

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

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

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

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

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

DISCUSS BARRIERS TO LOGICAL THINKING.

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

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

Types of Reasoning

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Example 1

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

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

Example 2

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

Example 3

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

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

Fallacies

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

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

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

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

The major and minor premises refer to different groups.

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

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

“Officers” is not distributed.

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

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

This group does not consist entirely of children.

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

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

Major Premise: No Eskimo food is tasty.

Minor Premise: Broiled squid is not Eskimo food.

Conclusion?

You cannot reach an accurate conclusion because _____?

Both subjects are eliminated.

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

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

Major Premise: Maxwell is an Air Force Base.

Minor Premise: Maxwell is hot in the summer.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

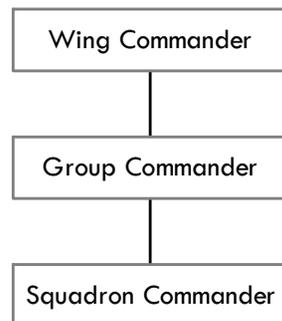
MANAGING PRINCIPLES: COORDINATING

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

Internal and External Coordination

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

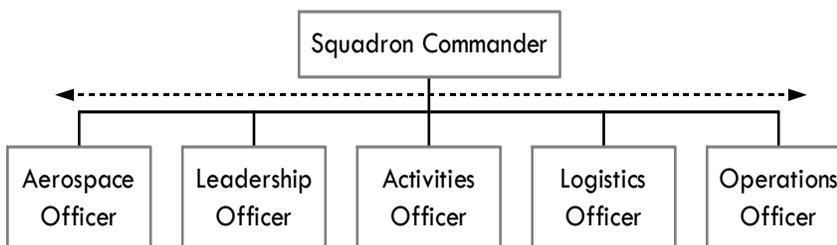
Vertical Flow. This involves the upward and downward movement of communication through the formal structure of your unit. It begins when you issue messages to people further down the chain of command and expect useful feedback from them. The messages may be written or oral, directive or non-directive,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



DESCRIBE THE FORMS OF INTERNAL COORDINATION.

VERTICAL FLOW OF COMMUNICATION

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



LATERAL FLOW OF COMMUNICATION

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

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

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

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

DESCRIBE THE FORMS OF EXTERNAL COORDINATION.

Communication Media for Coordinating

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

EXPLAIN THE ADVANTAGES & DISADVANTAGES OF WRITTEN VERSES VERBAL COORDINATION

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

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

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

EFFECTIVE WRITING

Use Acceptable, Clear English

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

IDENTIFY WAYS TO SIMPLIFY YOUR WRITING

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Basics of Grammar

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

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

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

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

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

IDENTIFY GRAMMATICAL TERMS.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Subject-Verb-Object Word Order

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

The dog bit the man.

The man bit the dog.

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

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

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

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

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

The parachutists sailed down. They shouted to each other.

Down sailed the parachutists, shouting to each other.

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

The parachutists sailed down; they shouted to each other.

The parachutists shouted to each other as they sailed down.

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

Write Effective Paragraphs

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

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

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

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

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

EDITING, RE-WRITING, POLISHING

Technical and Editorial Reviews

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

Technical Review

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

Editorial Review

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

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

Personal and Partner Editing Methods

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

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

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

Readability

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

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

DRILL AND CEREMONIES

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

REVIEW QUESTIONS

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

SPECIAL READING

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Chapter 12

INTRODUCTION

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

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

PROBLEM SOLVING & LEADERSHIP SITUATIONS

Leadership Case Study One

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

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

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

APPLY PROBLEM-SOLVING TO SITUATIONS TYPICAL OF CAP UNITS.

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

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

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

Leadership Case Study Two

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

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

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

COUNSELING TECHNIQUES

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

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

DEFINE COUNSELING.

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

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

Effective Counseling

An effective counselor is:

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

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

Directive Approach

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

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

DESCRIBE THE CHARACTERISTICS OF AN EFFECTIVE COUNSELOR.

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

DESCRIBE THE DIRECTIVE APPROACH TO COUNSELING.

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

Non-Directive Approach

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

DESCRIBE THE NON-DIRECTIVE APPROACH TO COUNSELING.

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

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

Eclectic Approach

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

DESCRIBE HOW TO CHOOSE A COUNSELING APPROACH.

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

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

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

Prepare for Your Session

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

After the Session

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

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

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

MANAGEMENT PRINCIPLES: DIRECTING

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

IDENTIFY AND DESCRIBE ASPECTS OF DIRECTING.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

IDENTIFY AND DESCRIBE THE FOUR TYPES OF DIRECTIONS.

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

THE LECTURE TEACHING TECHNIQUE

Characteristics of a Good Speaker

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

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

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

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

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

DESCRIBE THE CHARACTERISTICS OF A GOOD SPEAKER.

Before Outlining Your Presentation

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

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

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

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

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

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

Gathering Information for the Presentation

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Organizing the Speech

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

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

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

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

DESCRIBE METHODS OF ORGANIZING A SPEECH.

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

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

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

Making the Presentation

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

DESCRIBE PUBLIC SPEAKING DELIVERY TECHNIQUES.

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

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

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

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

Four Common Public Speaking Methods

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

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

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

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

IDENTIFY AND DESCRIBE FOUR COMMON METHODS OF MAKING A SPEECH.

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

CONDUCTING BRIEFINGS

How a Briefing is Different from a Speech

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

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

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

Organization of a Briefing

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

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

EXPLAIN HOW A BRIEFING DIFFERS FROM A SPEECH.

DISCUSS HOW A BRIEFING SHOULD BE ORGANIZED.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

DRILL AND CEREMONIES

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

REVIEW QUESTIONS

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

SPECIAL READINGS

HONOR AND ETHICS

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

GEN. DANIEL "CHAPPY" JAMES JR.

From *Webster's American Military Biographies*

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

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

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



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

Chapter 13

INTRODUCTION

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

PHILOSOPHY OF LEADERSHIP

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

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

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

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

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

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

STATE THE USAF’s DEFINITION OF LEADERSHIP.

DEFINE LEADERSHIP IN YOUR OWN WORDS.

Leadership Roles

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

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

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

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

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

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

Leadership Styles

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

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

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

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

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

IDENTIFY AND DISCUSS LEADERSHIP STYLES.

Eight Common Leadership Personality Traits

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

IDENTIFY PERSONALITY TRAITS THAT CONTRIBUTE TO GOOD LEADERSHIP.

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

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

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

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

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

Leadership Principles

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

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

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

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

DESCRIBE PRINCIPLES OF EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP.

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

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

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

MANAGEMENT PRINCIPLES: CONTROLLING

Introduction

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

DESCRIBE THE MANAGERIAL FUNCTION OF CONTROLLING.

Definition of Controlling

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

The Process of Controlling

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

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

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

IDENTIFY THE STEPS IN THE CONTROLLING PROCESS.

EXPLAIN HOW EACH STEP CONTRIBUTES TO EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

PLACEMENT INTERVIEWS

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

EXPLAIN THE PURPOSE OF A PLACEMENT INTERVIEW.

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

Effective Preparation

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

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

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

Help Applicants Relax

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

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

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

Getting the Most out of an Interview

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

DRILL AND CEREMONIES

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

REVIEW QUESTIONS

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

SPECIAL READING

CHOOSING YOUR CAREER FUTURE

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Chapter 14

INTRODUCTION

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

COMMUNICATION IN COMMAND

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

THE SEMINAR TEACHING TECHNIQUE

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

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

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

DESCRIBE THE FUNCTION AND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SEMINAR METHOD.

DISCUSS METHODS FOR PROMOTING ACTIVE LEARNING DURING SEMINARS.

ADDITIONAL TEACHING TECHNIQUES

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

Case Studies

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

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

DESCRIBE THE FUNCTION AND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE CASE STUDY METHOD.

Teaching Interviews and Panel Discussions

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

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

DESCRIBE THE FUNCTION AND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE TEACHING INTERVIEW METHOD.

DESCRIBE THE FUNCTION AND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PANEL DISCUSSION METHOD.

Practical Exercises

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

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

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

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

DISCUSS THE FUNCTION AND CHARACTERISTICS OF FIELD TRIPS.

DISCUSS THE FUNCTION AND CHARACTERISTICS OF SIMULATIONS.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

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

SPECIAL READING

DUTY, HONOR, COUNTRY by Gen. Douglas MacArthur

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

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

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

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

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

What the Words Teach

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Witness to Fortitude

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

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

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

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

Swift and Sure Attack

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

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

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

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

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

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

The Profession of Arms

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

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

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

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

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

Prays for Peace

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

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

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

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



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

Chapter 15

INTRODUCTION

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

RESPONSIBILITIES OF COMMAND

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

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

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

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

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

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

DISCUSS THE RESPONSIBILITIES THAT ARE UNIQUE TO COMMAND.

CONTRAST COMMAND WITH OTHER POSITIONS OF LEADERSHIP.

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

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

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

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

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

WORK IMPROVEMENT METHODS

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

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

Four Work Simplification Guidelines

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Five approaches to Work Simplification

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

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

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

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

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

Six Steps for Simplifying Work

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

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

CREATIVITY

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

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

Four Steps in the Creative Process

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

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

DESCRIBE METHODS USED IN CREATIVE THINKING.

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

Blocks and Obstacles to Creativity

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Overcoming Barriers to Creativity

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

CONFERENCES

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

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

IDENTIFY THE PURPOSE OF A CONFERENCE.

Teaching Conferences

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

Problem-Solving Conferences

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

Negotiating Conferences

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

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

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

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

The Conference Facilitator

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

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

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

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

DESCRIBE LEADERSHIP TECHNIQUES AND TRAITS IMPORTANT TO CONFERENCE FACILITATORS.

Facilitator's Preparation

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

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

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

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

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

Facilitating: Technical Issues

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Facilitating: Human Relations Issues

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Evaluating a Conference

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

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

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

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

CADET COMMANDER AND BEYOND: CONSULTING

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

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

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

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

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

DESCRIBE THE ROLE OF A CONSULTANT.

DESCRIBE THE UNIQUE LEADERSHIP CHALLENGES RELATED TO CONSULTING.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

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

SPECIAL READING

CARL SPAATZ

From *Webster's American Military Biographies*.

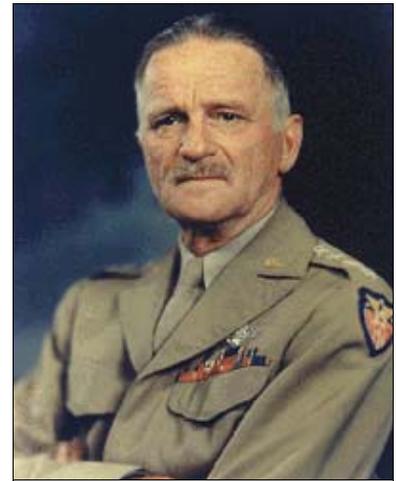
Carl Spaatz was an army and air force officer. Born on June 28, 1891, in Boyertown, Pennsylvania, Spaatz (originally Spatz—he added an “a” in 1937) graduated from West Point in 1914 and was commissioned in the infantry. After a year at Schofield Barracks, Hawaii, he entered aviation training in San Diego,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

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

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

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

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



GEN CARL A "TOOEY" SPAATZ served as the first chairman of the CAP National Board. After helping lead the Allied air campaigns during WWII, Gen. Spaatz was appointed the first chief of staff of the newly-independent U.S. Air Force.