
LEADERSHIP: 2000 AND BEYOND

Second Edition | Volume I

FOLLOWERSHIP ♦ COMMUNICATIONS ♦ DRILL + CEREMONIES
ROLE OF THE NON-COMMISSIONED OFFICER ♦ LEADERSHIP TRAITS



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.



Headquarters Civil Air Patrol

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THE CADET OATH

I PLEDGE that I will serve faithfully in the Civil Air Patrol cadet program, and that I will attend meetings regularly, participate actively in unit activities, obey my officers, wear my uniform properly, and advance my education and training rapidly to prepare myself to be of service to my community, state and nation.”

An oath is a custom, dating back to the Romans, of publicly committing yourself to do a task. It makes you and others know you are really serious about doing what the oath says you will do.

THE CIVIL AIR PATROL MOTTO

“Semper Vigilans”

The CAP Motto, “Semper Vigilans - Always Vigilant” reflects the ever-ready status of Civil Air Patrol. It means every member, cadet and senior, must be prepared to respond effectively to any situation.

Chapter 7

INTRODUCTION

You are no longer a beginner in CAP. Soon you will start one of the most challenging and rewarding aspects of the Cadet Program—becoming a cadet officer. As a NCO, you have proven your knowledge and abilities as a leader as well as a follower. Now you are ready to learn more about the principles of management, including such activities as planning, organizing, coordinating, directing and controlling. In this chapter, you will learn how to deal with cadets as a cadet officer and learn about barriers to communication.

DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

As a senior-grade NCO, you have been working primarily through your flight sergeants as you carry out the orders of cadet officers. You are helping supervise, manage, and administer your unit. You are participating in inspections, ensuring follow-up corrective actions are taken, preparing duty rosters and doing other duties as assigned.

But now you must expand your motivation, discipline and leadership skills. These are difficult tasks. To motivate others, you need a purpose, a plan to accomplish that purpose, and people who have the confidence to follow your lead. This will require that you have confidence in yourself, are a self-starter, and can learn to become good at judging the character of yourself and others. A difficult part of the transition is that you learn how to discipline others. This requires more self-discipline and self-control than you have ever exercised before.

As a teenager, you want to control your life, to be a responsible adult, and to do what you want. So do your parents and your CAP seniors! They also want you to succeed, taking many small steps at a time, each step being something you can handle. It does not mean taking giant leaps that constantly frustrate and discourage you with a string of failures. Remember, it will require patience, persistence, and dedication to excellence. So give yourself a break, and take your time.

WORKING WITH CADETS

The Nature of the Group

Like individuals, groups are all different. A group is a collection of people having some common objective and purpose. It has goals that channel its behavior. In very loose and temporary groups, such as social gatherings, the goal might merely be the momentary enjoyment of an evening. A slightly more formal group, with a somewhat more definite goal, might consist of persons attending a graduation reception. Finally, a formal group such as a military or commercial organization, is highly organized and has definite goals. As a goal becomes more definite and absorbing to a group, the group becomes stronger, more dynamic, and formal.

DISCUSS HOW THE SCOPE OF LEADERSHIP CHANGES AS NCOs BECOME CADET OFFICERS.

The transition from NCO to officer means expanding your scope from supervising a small group or single activity to managing many groups or activities.

DEFINE THE NATURE OF A GROUP.

DEFINE THE SITUATIONAL APPROACH TO LEADERSHIP.

DESCRIBE THE FUNCTIONS OF LEADERSHIP.

As your group develops, its leadership advances toward a common, mutually accepted goal. At the same time, it advances your personal goals. A group accepts most readily and gives its best responses to a leader who successfully blends group and individual goals. Small groups tend to have leaders centered in the communication network. Despite organizational charts, informal communication networks often structure the unit.

If you can successfully guide and orient the group, the group itself can do much to satisfy your needs. The needs that the group can satisfy might be classified as the physiological and psychological needs. These two broad classifications include all of the needs discussed in Chapter 6.

Situational Approach to Leadership

Now, we will examine the interrelationship between the group and you. The situational approach is based on the idea that you must analyze each different situation and choose the appropriate action to accomplish the group mission. You must consider two things: Your leadership effectiveness is determined by what your followers expect. Second, if your leadership is effective you will readily gain the respect, trust, loyalty, and willing obedience of your followers. People follow leaders who act the way the followers expect a good leader to act.

Your leadership role is determined not only by the job description but by what your followers expect. Your ability to adapt, to regulate your behavior according to the demands of the situation, is essential to good leadership.

Summary on Leadership

As a leader, you must first ensure your unit accomplishes its mission, and secondly, ensure your followers fulfill their needs. There are six specific things you can do to accomplish these two general functions: Set goals and standards, provide technical competence, adopt an appropriate leadership style, keep communication channels open, motivate, and control disruptive influences.

If you try to satisfy your safety needs above all else, you are really not the most desirable type of leader. If you are motivated by esteem needs you often make an effective leader. However, the most desirable leadership comes from stimulating followers based on their self-actualizing needs.

Because of the authority you have as a leader, you have tremendous influence on the morale, habits, actions, and attitudes of your cadets. Good or bad, you create the atmosphere. Whenever you are assigned a position of authority, cadets watch with interest to see what kind of person you are. In time, the unit will reflect, consciously and unconsciously, your attitudes and actions. If you reveal a deep concern for the cadets, noncommissioned officers and officers will, also. If you are indifferent to the civilian community, public relations will deteriorate. If you are ethically lax, you can expect a general ethical indifference within your command. If you have integrity, are as strict with yourself as you are with others, and measure yourself by the same standards you expect of your command, your sense of moral responsibility will pervade your unit.

The character of a group is the blend of the personalities of all its members.

Remember how circumstances influenced leadership styles? Common sense is also important.

Balance is important. Emphasizing any one area while neglecting others can produce confusion and undesirable emotional responses.

EVALUATING A CADET

Why are cadets evaluated? For promotion, duty assignment, selection to a special summer activity, nomination of CAP scholarships, and to point out your strengths and areas to improve upon. Use the following criteria as a guide to evaluate cadets. Include notes of strengths, weaknesses, and how to correct deficiencies. For more on cadet evaluations, see CAPR 52-16.

Personal Appearance. Exhibits correct posture and bearing; keeps hair cut and shoes shined; is neat, clean, and well-groomed; wears uniform properly.

Courtesy. Is courteous, tactful, and considerate; executes military courtesies proudly and smartly; respects and follows CAP customs and traditions.

Professional Competence. Understands leadership laboratory job, keeps knowledge current, makes efforts toward self-improvement, exercises resourcefulness and ingenuity in performing duties, and is adaptable to new situations.

Attitude Toward Training. Takes duties seriously; is attentive; strives to improve; is energetic, hard working, and eagerly anticipates positions of increased responsibility. Attitude is shown by cooperation, respect for authority, obedience to orders, willingness to accept rules and regulations, pride being a CAP cadet, a desire to learn more about CAP and a desire to learn and accomplish more than the minimum requirements.

Effectiveness in Working with Others. Commands respect and cooperation of subordinates; leads instead of drives; has a sense of humor; motivates others to want to do a good job; uses common sense and solves problems justly, correctly and promptly; is equitable, impartial, and consistent in dealing with others; is looked to for advice; generates diligence, perseverance, and initiative in others; causes others to become interested in and willing to accept the task at hand; mixes well with groups; friendly.

Effectiveness in Communicating. Makes ideas clear to the listeners; presents personal viewpoints in a logical, persuasive, and composed manner.

Integrity of Character. Keeps high moral standards; is honest, trustworthy, loyal, and courageous; keeps promises; can be relied upon to do assigned duty; enforces orders both in fact and in spirit.

Sense of Responsibility. Recognizes and fulfills responsibilities to superiors and subordinates; accepts assignments willingly; recognizes and does what must be done; uses good judgment and common sense; bases decisions on all available information; is dependable, prompt, accurate, and thorough; can be counted on to do a good job; stays with a task until it is completed, with or without supervision.

Enthusiasm. Is dedicated to accomplishing the mission; has a positive zeal and intense interest in the task at hand; is sincerely interested in CAP activities; has a firm faith in the value of the CAP cause; has self-assurance and confidence in fellow workers; is cheerful, optimistic, and willing to do a job; thinks positively.

Humaneness. Understands human behavior and is considerate of others; is fair, honest, and just in dealing with others; is tactful, cheerful, and friendly; maintains the proper balance between humaneness and responsibility for accomplishing a mission.

Self-Confidence. Has self-confidence based on genuine knowledge and ability; has pride and poise, exemplified through proper appearance, dress, and deportment; has good bearing in keeping with the responsibilities of the position; makes decisions promptly and correctly.

DISCUSS CRITERIA USED IN EVALUATING A CADET'S PERFORMANCE.

As your experience increases so should your proficiency.

Do you feel these items are too vague or too specific? What items would you add?

Initiative. Exercises initiative and carries through proper and necessary thoughts or acts without supervision; does duties with little instruction; has drive ingenuity, and resourcefulness; thinks independently.

BECOMING A CADET OFFICER

Ethics and Integrity

Professional ethics are important to each of us as individuals. Try to live by the highest ethical standards if you are to stay effective and trustworthy. In daily activities, the basic code of behavior you learned from your family, friends, and peers, helps you act ethically. Ethics are more than a rigid set of guidelines for behavior. Personal judgment is required to decide complex ethical issues.

Integrity is the keystone of military service. Do not compromise your integrity—your truthfulness. False reporting is a clear example of a failure of integrity. You can order integrity, but you can only achieve it by encouragement and example.

Beyond referring to rules, you can check to see if your decisions and actions are ethical by asking, “What is good?” or, “What goal should I seek?” The criteria for deciding right and wrong not only depend on historical standards but also future consequences. Your decision is good based on how well it can meet your ethical goal. Generally, this goal is “the greatest good for the greatest number.”

The public good and personal happiness make up goal-oriented desires. Specifically, this goal is accomplishing the mission. This may range from training cadets and maintaining communications systems to delivering personnel and supplies.

In situational ethics, you rely on the particular circumstances of a situation to provide the criteria for finding right and wrong. Here, each situation is unique, without precedent. The circumstances decide what actions you will take.

Your duty is to conduct person-oriented leadership — leadership consistent with the fundamental commitments of our country. Person-oriented leadership respects the whole person of each cadet in your command; it establishes I-You (rather than I-It) relationships. People are ends in themselves, never a means to an end. You will never go wrong by treating your cadets as people and respecting them as such.

Integrity, like person-oriented leadership, is a whole-person idea. A former chief of Air Force chaplains reminds us, “Integrity is not just truth-telling, or kindness, or justice, or reliability. Integrity is the state of my whole life, the total quality of my character, and it is witnessed by the moral soundness of my responses in every life situation.”

Integrity reflects your value system.

Officership

Officership cannot be defined precisely; it is not a thing or a commodity. Although in many ways it could be labeled an intangible, it is very real. It is the blood, breath, soul, and muscle of a living institution, CAP. The best way to try to analyze it would be to list some of its known qualities and discuss a few of its characteristics.

One extremely important element of officership is loyalty, aptly described as the military touchstone. Loyalty has many faces. First, it is a “two-way-street,”

EXPLAIN WHY INTEGRITY IS REGARDED AS THE KEystone TO MILITARY SERVICE.

Ethics can be a problem, and even a burden. But it is a burden of civilized humans.

Sometimes ethical behavior results in a hardship for someone. Cadet Sharp’s roommate, Cadet Poor, has to work to pay for tuition and remains in school. He is normally an excellent student and gets good grades. On Friday he was assigned to do a paper for Monday. His work supervisor has demanded he work overtime on a project or lose his job. If he loses his job he cannot remain in school. If he does not turn in the paper, a third of his grade will be at risk. He asks for the paper that Cadet Sharp wrote for the same class in the previous term with a different instructor. What should Cadet Sharp do?

EXPLAIN WHAT IS MEANT BY “SITUATIONAL ETHICS.”

DISCUSS THE CONCEPT OF OFFICERSHIP.

Do you feel loyalty can be ordered? Where do you think loyalty comes from?

which you expect from your superiors and, in turn, are obligated to extend to your cadets. A second, equally important face of loyalty is loyalty to yourself—to your moral, ethical, and professional ideals, infused with courage to defend a position to all proper limits.

Another definite component of officership is commitment. In CAP you have committed yourself to bettering yourself, your unit, aerospace, and to save lives, even if it means great inconvenience and sacrifice, if necessary, in the service of humanity.

There is another element integral to the leader-subordinate relationship: your sensitivity to your cadets' needs. Only by becoming knowledgeable about their problems, and about them as individuals, can you become involved sufficiently to help them. This will create a climate where loyalty and discipline can thrive. In CAP, personal involvement and understanding has become especially urgent.

True officership has many other facets, among them is the unique collective character of the officer corps, pride in service. Our task is to keep a spirit of moral integrity in America. You can lead the way. You can become the catalysts who initiate throughout society a reawakening of integrity and moral awareness. Reshaping the moral climate within the military and the nation needs only a few dedicated professionals to make a beginning. Beyond the level of individual example is unit example—a squadron, a group, or a wing. To that noble end, studies of ethics in the CAP are committed.

EXPLAIN WHY LOYALTY IS A “TWO-WAY STREET.”

ADDITIONAL BARRIERS TO COMMUNICATION

Here, you build on what you learned in Chapter 3. The first step in learning to communicate effectively is to find out what barriers stand in your way. When you can identify and understand the organizational barriers that exist in your unit you will find it easier to lower those barriers. Besides linguistic barriers, there are psychological barriers between the communicator and the receiver. These fall into four main categories: organizational, linguistic, psychological, and managerial.

DESCRIBE BARRIERS TO COMMUNICATION.

IDENTIFY AT LEAST ONE WAY TO OVERCOME EACH.

Organizational Barriers

Most organizations have well-defined channels for moving messages downward in the status hierarchy. Communication between equal but separate sub-units (like flights) helps integrate and coordinate work. Upward communication (from flight to squadron, for example) or “feedback” is often the only way to decide if communication was effective.

Vague responsibilities and vague lines of authority build organizational barriers. No one would want to do away with status in their unit. Status is a functional necessity in any formal organization, but overemphasis on status often blocks effective communication. The only reason for status in an organization is that it helps to get the job done. The different grades and positions in a unit should coincide with the different levels of responsibility and authority to get the job done. Everyone should understand their particular status within the unit and be able to identify themselves and their roles in getting the unit's job done. Frustrated attempts to establish individual status sometimes cause psychological barriers to effective communication.

Because communication must pass through many levels of command, the communication is delayed and often distorted. If you fail to recognize and encourage the flow of communication upward, downward, and laterally, communication may break down.

Linguistic Barriers

Words, at best, are clumsy communication tools and using language is one of the most difficult things to do. Language problems are in both oral and written communication. Choose the right words in terms of audience experience, standard usage, and understandability. It is easy to recognize a new word and look it up, but it is more difficult to recognize different meanings of words you already know.

Be precise. Use words with the least possibility of being misunderstood.

Psychological Barriers

The most complex barriers to communication are the psychological barriers. Each person in your unit has four basic psychological needs: safety, belonging, self-esteem, and a self-actualization—a sense of doing something personally useful and important. When these needs are not satisfied in your unit, cadets try to satisfy them in some other way. This results in withholding information and forming cliques.

Why might a leader withhold information from their followers? How valid are these reasons? How would you feel about leaders withholding information from you?

Everyone withholds information. The commander, the staff, and other subordinates withhold information for different reasons. Subordinates observe their commanders and hesitate to tell them about things that are upsetting. Commanders may not spend much time in explaining things to their subordinates. By withholding information, the commander creates a vacuum. By natural gravitation, rumors, which can ruin any organization, fill the vacuum.

What is the source of rumors? *Wrong* information or *no* information. There are two communication networks in all units. First, is the formal network that follows the organizational; Chart. Second, there is the unofficial network—the grapevine—that springs up when there is an informational vacuum. The commander cannot destroy the grapevine. To minimize the difficulties arising from rumors, commanders should give subordinates as much information as possible. Similarly, subordinates have an obligation to provide commanders with facts they need to know.

The first piece of information is generally the part best remembered, whether it is truth or rumor. Retractions are rarely front page news.

Group interest is healthful in any unit; it is good for morale. But when the clique becomes more important than the unit's mission, the unit suffers. Cliques thrive in an information vacuum. They are made up of people having trouble identifying their status in the unit. Cliques often form in an atmosphere of isolation. Unless the unit members are constantly aware of the unit's mission, cliques will form.

Managerial Barriers

To get things done, those inside the unit are reached by being contacted directly. Those outside the unit are contacted indirectly through coordinating the contact with a go-between (liaison) between your unit and those outside it. In both cases, managerial ideas must be transmitted and accepted. This is the job of communications; it is essential because mutual understanding is essential. The way both good and bad communication is received often decides the effectiveness of teamwork. Fears, prejudices, and jealousies among individuals tend to disappear when you listen and take a progressive and understanding attitude toward all information and suggestions. If you merely criticize or discipline when things go wrong, or if you are insincere or inaccessible, fail to keep promises, or do not take appropriate actions, you build communication barriers.

Be proactive, not reactive. Prevent problems before they start.

Overcoming Barriers to Communication

Why overcome these barriers? It helps officers and NCO's get along, cadets understand senior members, and youth and parents build a better understanding of each other. A first step is developing effective communication in command. Making a formal communication policy in the unit is vital. This policy should define lines of responsibility and authority, establish communication channels, provide a climate for effective communication, and *keep everyone informed*.

Another step is to increase writing and speaking skills. The basic principle in both is to develop sound ideas before trying to communicate them. Ideas for communication must help the unit efficiently accomplish its job. When you relay an idea to a cadet, it should stimulate action that will help accomplish the mission.

Communication is often a give-and-take matter; it is more than just an oral or written process. You should be as concerned with the ideas you communicate as you are with the ideas others communicate to you. The four common communicative skills are listening, reading, speaking, and writing. Unless you develop these skills, you cannot effectively communicate. Knowing the communication techniques should give you a sense of direction. It is up to you to study your own specific situation so that you can set and achieve the goal of effective communication up, down, and across the chain of command.

List some barriers to communication you have encountered. How would you have acted to get around them? Did you feel any were unavoidable?

NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

Communication through means other than words is non-verbal communication. The non-verbal communication process is so different from verbal communication in its variety, speed, and ease of reading that you are seldom aware you are seeing it happen.

DEFINE PERSONAL AND NON-PERSONAL SYMBOLS OF NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION.

Non-personal Symbols

Space. This is a major barrier to good communication; this is especially true in the placement of office furniture. For example, you can create a great barrier when you ask a guest to sit in a chair at the side of your desk, then place a stacked in/out basket or potted plant between you and the chair.

Time. Technical time, measured with precise instruments, is used when time itself is important, as in sporting events or safety drills. Time is measured in labeled units (hours, days, etc.). You use *formal time* to focus attention on the topic, task, or individual and not on the time itself. You characterize *informal time* with vague references, such as "after a while" or "when you get a chance" to show that neither the time nor the content is important. When you put unreasonable limits on your appointment with someone, or keep working on another task during an interview, your message is clear—the task is more important than they are. By resorting to informal time while the other person functions on formal time, you show you do not recognize the importance of the other person's time.

You can intimidate someone through actions or articles. Intimidation creates psychological barriers to understanding and cooperation.

Materials. You communicate by the appropriateness and neatness of your uniform and your grooming. The values you place on material things, and the care you give your possessions communicate messages to others.

Personal Symbols

Voice. Meaning can be attached to all variables of the human voice. The simple statement, "I love you.", can be expressed in many ways with many meanings. Variations of voice rate, pitch, loudness, and quality cause this. Using these variables can identify fear, hesitation, confidence, and other qualities.

Eyes. The eyes have many expressive abilities, some which are unique. Eye contact is the momentary union of two individuals' visual zones. The degree of eye contact projects a wide array of non-verbal messages. A lack of it makes you feel isolated and invisible, while too much of it quickly makes you feel threatened or embarrassed. Eye contact is powerful; for example, how would you feel if you started to talk about something with a group of friends only to see everyone looking the other way?

Facial expressions. The human face is a made-to-order communications transmitter! Besides creating many facial expressions, you can project these expressions at any speed. They also may be either honest or false expressions.

Body language. Together with the face, the movements of the rest of the body combine to create body language. Like words in a sentence, body movements express meaning in context. However, single motions are seldom definable. For example, scratching can mean most anything; itching or nervousness. If the person is fidgeting, complains of feeling sick, and is in a cold sweat, the scratching, then, could be concluded to be nervousness. If none of these other signs are seen, and the person seems calm, the scratching could then mean itching, not nervousness. The key to assessing body language is context. Since body language is a total message, there may be a relationship between body language and verbal language.

Zones of interaction. People associate what you do with how much distance they see between you and the person you are talking to. These zones are culturally defined.

The first zone in the **intimate** zone, ranging from 0 to 18 inches. This zone is for lovers, very close friends, and children. When someone enters your intimate zone without your permission, you can get nervous, uneasy, and even hostile.

The second zone is the **personal** zone, ranging from 1½ to 4 feet. This zone is for friends and companions during conversation. Like the intimate zone, this zone is also subject to hostile protection from intruders. Conversely, if you wish someone to be in your intimate zone and they move to your personal zone, you could often feel rejected.

The third, or **social**, zone ranges from 4 to 12 feet. This zone is for public interactions when you are willing to accept the existence of two-way communication. This distance includes the normal depth of your supervisor's desk, the area between neighboring work stations, and between others you are willing to talk to.

The fourth zone is the **public** zone. Ranging from 12 feet onward. This zone is for public appearances where you do not want two-way verbal interaction such as in classroom lectures, political speeches, and public appearances of heads of state.

Knowledge of non-verbal communication helps you in two ways. First, it enhances your ability to discover the meaning behind words. Second, it focuses your attention on the non-verbal as well as verbal messages you send. When your verbal meanings do not coincide with your non-verbal ones, your listeners get a mixed message. Of the two messages they get, they usually act on your non-verbal message.

What is "sarcasm?" Can tone of voice change the meaning of words?

Speaking closely and directly in someone's face is particularly threatening.

STUDY AIDS

1. Discuss how the scope of leadership changes as cadet NCOs become officers.
2. Define “group” as it relates to leadership. Describe the characteristics of formal and informal groups.
3. Describe the situational approach to leadership. What is it based upon?
4. Identify five criteria used in evaluating cadets, as outlined in the text. Explain the significance of each in your own words.
5. Explain why “integrity is regarded as the keystone to military service.”
6. Explain what is meant by “situational ethics.” What criteria is used to make moral decisions when using situational ethics?
7. Discuss the concept of officership.
8. Explain why loyalty is a “two-way street.” Can loyalty be ordered? Why?
9. Identify the four barriers to communication discussed in this chapter. Give an example of each.
10. Identify and describe at least three types of non-verbal communication. Describe how each can help or hurt the communication process.
11. Identify the four zones of interaction and describe each.

SPECIAL READINGS

SOME THOUGHTS ON LEADERSHIP by Richard Lester

Management and leadership are often considered the same activities, but the concepts differ in the sense that leaders focus on *people* and managers deal with *things*. Field Marshall Sir William Slim, a soldier's general who commanded British forces in one of the epic campaigns of World War II, recognized this distinction when he said, "...managers are necessary; leaders are essential." The distinction between leadership and management has been a recurring but muted theme among educators and practitioners for the past 25 years. During this period, professional military institutions have generally placed more emphasis on management than leadership.

A familiar sign of the times in both the military and civilian communities is the outcry for compelling and creative leadership. Some observers believe that the average American would be unable to respond if Martians landed on American shores and demanded, "Take me to your leader." People understand the management concept, but they have problems in the study of leadership because conceptually it is more difficult to comprehend. In fact, leadership in both a practical and theoretical sense is one of the most discussed and least understood subjects in our nation. Military and civilian people alike tend to view leadership in much the same perspective as their health: They understand it best when they do not have it and feel a need for it.

The military generally recognizes leadership as the art of influencing and directing people in a manner that wins their obedience, confidence, respect, and enthusiastic cooperation in achieving a common objective. Professional educators and practitioners usually define a leader as a person who applies principles and techniques that ensure motivation, discipline, productivity, esprit, and effectiveness in dealing with people, tasks, and situations in order to accomplish the mission.

People exercise leadership any time they attempt to change or modify the behavior of an individual or group of individuals. To understand the nature of leadership, one must first understand the nature of power, for leadership is a special form of power involving relationships with people. To develop these relationships, leaders must successfully fuse organizational and personal needs in a way that permits people and organizations to reach peaks of mutual achievement and satisfaction. Thus leaders get things done and make things work. Trained in this context, leaders are facilitators who help to pave the way toward the achievement of goals.

Although effective leaders are goal-oriented, they have other basic responsibilities. The key word is focus. The leader's primary task is to focus the attention of people he or she hopes to lead. This critical task in the leadership matrix requires clear understanding of the goal or mission to ensure a logical sequence of actions for getting their job done.

Some people believe that leadership can be taught, but others contend that an individual can only be taught *about* leadership. If one perceives education as a change in behavior through experience and effective leadership as a set of behaviors applicable to given situations, then leadership can indeed be taught. Despite the complexity of the leadership role, it can be learned when there is a definite willingness to expend the required time and resources. Much the same as lawyers, writers, test pilots, or engineers, leaders are made, not born. People can develop and learn leadership just as they learn any other complex skill, but the learning process requires intensive effort, study, and continuing application.

DR. ROBERT H. GODDARD

From *Isaac Asimov's Biographical Encyclopedia of Science and Technology*

Robert H. Goddard, the son of a machine shop owner, was raised in Boston. His family returned to Worcester when he was sixteen and he went to the Polytechnic Institute there, graduating in 1908. He received his Ph.D. in physics at Clark University in Worcester in 1911. He taught at Princeton but returned to Clark in 1914 and remained there for nearly thirty years.

He had a mind daring enough for a science fiction writer, and he was firmly grounded in science, to boot. While still an undergraduate, he described a railway line between Boston and New York in which the trains traveled in a vacuum under the pull of an electromagnetic field and completed their trip in ten minutes.

He also grew interested in rocketry as a teenager thanks to his reading of H.G. Wells. Already in 1914 he had obtained two patents involved in rocket apparatus and by 1919 all this had ripened to the point where he published a small book entitled *A method of Reaching Extreme Altitudes*.

In 1923 Goddard tested the first of a new type of rocket engine, one using gasoline, and liquid oxygen as the motive force. This was his first revolutionary advance over previous solid-fuel rockets.

Goddard managed to get a few thousand dollars from the Smithsonian Institution, and in July 1929 sent up a larger rocket near Worcester, Massachusetts. It went faster and higher than the first. More important, it carried a barometer, a thermometer, and a small camera to photograph the proceedings. It was the first instrument-carrying rocket.

Unfortunately Goddard already had a small reputation as a crackpot and, like Langley before him, had earned an editorial in the good, gray New York Times, berating him for his scientific folly. The noise of his second rocket brought calls to the police. Officials ordered him to conduct no more rocket experiments in Massachusetts.

Fortunately, Lindbergh interested himself in Goddard's work. He visited Goddard and was sufficiently impressed to persuade Daniel Guggenheim, a philanthropist, to award Goddard a grant of \$50,000. With this, Goddard set up an experiment station in a lonely spot near Roswell, New Mexico. Here he built larger rockets and developed many of the ideas that are now standard in rocketry. He designed combustion chambers of the appropriate shape, and burned gasoline with oxygen in such a way that the rapid combustion could be used to cool the chamber walls.

From 1930 to 1935 he launched rockets that attained speeds of up to 550 miles an hour and heights of a mile and a half. He developed systems for steering a rocket in flight by using a rudder-like device to deflect the gaseous exhaust, with gyroscopes to keep the rocket headed in the proper direction. He patented the device of a multistage rocket. He accumulated a total of 214 patents, in fact.

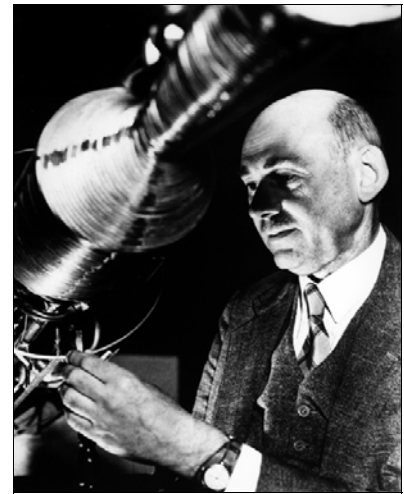
But the United States Government never really became interested. This lack of interest was made easier by the fact that Goddard was a rather withdrawn and suspicious person who preferred to work in isolation.

Only during World War II did the government finance him, and then only to have him design small rockets to help navy planes take off from carriers. One of Goddard's early inventions was also perfected as the World War II weapon known as the bazooka.

When German rocket experts were brought to America after the war and were questioned about rocketry, they stared in amazement and asked why American officials did not inquire of Goddard, from whom they had learned virtually all they knew.

American officials could not do so because Goddard had been neglected during his lifetime and died of throat cancer before that neglect could be made up for. He lived long enough to learn of the German rockets, and even to see one, but did not live to see the United States step into the space age. However, if the space age could be said to have been manufactured by any one man, that man was Goddard.

In 1960 the United States Government issued a grant of one million dollars for the use of his patents-half to Goddard's estate and half to the Guggenheim Foundation. The Goddard Space Center in Maryland is named in his honor.



DR. ROBERT H. GODDARD, ridiculed at first, is now known as the “Father of Modern Rocketry.”

BRIG. GEN. BILLY MITCHELL

From *Webster's American Military Biographies*

Born of American parents in Nice, France, on December 28, 1879, Billy Mitchell grew up in Milwaukee. He was educated at Racine College and at Columbian University (now George Washington University in Washington, DC); he left Columbian in 1898 before graduating to enlist in the 1st Wisconsin Infantry for service in the Spanish-American War.

He served in Cuba and the Philippines, and in 1901 was attached to the Signal Corps. He served in various duties, attended the School of the Line and the Staff College, Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, in 1907-1909. After duty on the Mexican border, he was attached in 1912 to the General Staff. In 1915 he was assigned to the aviation section of the Signal Corps. He learned to fly the following year, and began his twenty-year's advocacy of the use of military air power.

He was already in Europe as an observer when the United States entered World War I, and as the war progressed, he advanced rapidly in rank and responsibility as he proved a highly effective air commander. In June 1917 he was named air officer of the American Expeditionary Forces, and air officer of I Corps, a combat post more to his liking. He was the first American airman to fly over enemy lines, and throughout the war he was regularly in the air. In September 1918 he successfully attempted a mass bombing attack with nearly 1500 planes as part of the attack on the St. Mihiel salient.

As commander of the combined air service of the army group engaged in the Meuse-Argonne offensive, he led a large bombing force in a behind-the-lines air strike. His plans for strategic bombing of the German homeland and for massive parachute invasions were cut short by the armistice, and in March 1919 he returned home to become assistant chief of the Air Service under Gen. Charles T. Menoher.

He outspokenly advocated the creation of a separate air force and continued working on improvements in aircraft and their use. He claimed that the airplane had rendered the battleship obsolete and, over the vociferous protests of the Navy Department, carried his point in 1921 and 1923 by sinking several captured and overage battleships from the air.

He was persistently critical of the low state of preparedness of the tiny Air Service and of the poor quality of its equipment. His harrying of his superiors and of upper military echelons won him only a transfer to the minor post of air officer of the VIII Corps area at San Antonio, Texas, and reversion to the rank of colonel in April 1935. He used the press to fight his case. When, in September 1925, the navy's dirigible *Shenandoah* was lost in a storm, he made a statement to the press charging "incompetency, criminal negligence, and almost treasonable administration of the national defense by the War and Navy Departments. "He was, as he expected, immediately court-martialed. He made the trial a platform for his views, was convicted in December of insubordination and sentenced to five years' suspension from rank and pay. (Note: The conviction vote was not unanimous. A single dissenting vote was cast by Col. Douglas MacArthur.)

On February 1, 1926, he resigned from the army and retired to a farm near Middleburg, Virginia. He continued to promote air power and to warn against the danger of being outstripped by other nations, particularly Japan. He hypothesized a possible attack by Japanese aircraft launched from great carrier ships and directed at the Hawaiian Islands.

He died in New York City on February 19, 1936. Mitchell's plea for an independent air force was met to a degree in the creation of GHQ Air Force in March 1935. Subsequent events, including the Japanese air attack on Pearl Harbor in December 1941, proved the validity of many of his prophesies, and many of his ideas were adopted by the Army Air Forces in World War II. The utter decisiveness that he claimed for air power never materialized, however. In 1946, Congress authorized a special medal in his honor that was presented to his son two years later by Gen. Carl Spaatz, chief of staff of the newly established independent air force.

Among Mitchell's published works were *Our Air Force, the Keystone of National Defense*, 1921; *Winged Defense*, 1925; and *Skyways, a Book of Modern Aeronautics*, 1930.



BILLY MITCHELL advocated for an independent air force. Moreover, he realized that the general public must understand why aviation is important to America.