LEADERSHIP: 2000 AND BEYOND

Second Edition | Volume II

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

CIVIL AIR PATROL USAF Auxiliary

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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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Chapters 1-7 are contained in Volume I.

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

DEFINE LOGIC.

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.

Distinguishing Facts from Opinions

DISCUSS WAYS TO DISTINGUISH FACT FROM OPINION

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?"

Barriers to Logic

DISCUSS BARRIERS TO LOGICAL THINKING.

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.

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.

IDENTIFY AND EXPLAIN TWO TYPES OF REASONING

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 make 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.

The major and minor premises refer to different groups.

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 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.

"Officers" is not distributed.

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 _____?

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

This group does not consist entirely of children.

Major Premise: All children are innocent beings.
Minor Premise: No adults are children.
Conclusion: Therefore, adults are not innocent.
The conclusion states more than the premises imply. The major term ("innocent beings") is undistributed because _____?

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.

Both subjects are eliminated.

Major Premise: No Eskimo food is tasty.

Minor Premise: Broiled squid is not Eskimo food.

Conclusion?

You cannot reach an accurate conclusion because _____?

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 rixe 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 noncitizens 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.

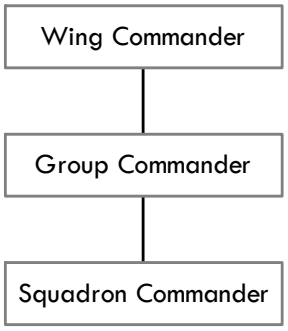
Internal and External Coordination

DESCRIBE THE FORMS OF INTERNAL 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.

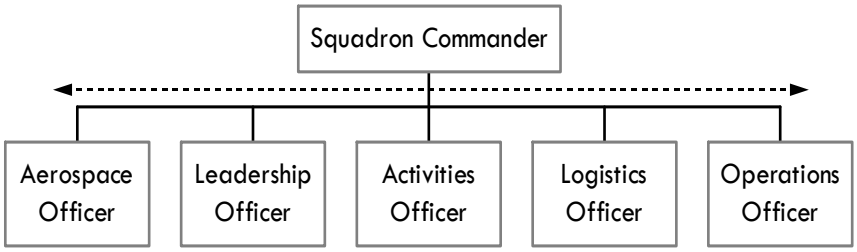
Vertical Flow. This involves the upward and downward movement of communication through the formal structure of your unit. It begins when you issue messages to people further down the chain of command and expect useful feedback from them. The messages may be written or oral, directive or non-directive,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

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 too 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.

DESCRIBE THE FORMS OF EXTERNAL COORDINATION.

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.

Communication Media for Coordinating

EXPLAIN THE ADVANTAGES & DISADVANTAGES OF WRITTEN VERSES VERBAL COORDINATION

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.

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

IDENTIFY WAYS TO SIMPLIFY YOUR WRITING

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..")

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

IDENTIFY GRAMMATICAL TERMS.

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.

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 on 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 an 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 balances?
- 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 noncommissioned 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 too 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 out 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 out 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.