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 15

INTRODUCTION

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

RESPONSIBILITIES OF COMMAND

DISCUSS THE RESPONSIBILITIES THAT ARE UNIQUE TO COMMAND.

CONTRAST COMMAND WITH OTHER POSITIONS OF LEADERSHIP.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

WORK IMPROVEMENT METHODS

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

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

Four Work Simplification Guidelines

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Five approaches to Work Simplification

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

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

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

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

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

Six Steps for Simplifying Work

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

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

CREATIVITY

DESCRIBE METHODS USED IN CREATIVE THINKING.

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

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

Four Steps in the Creative Process

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

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

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

Blocks and Obstacles to Creativity

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Overcoming Barriers to Creativity

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

CONFERENCES

IDENTIFY THE PURPOSE OF A CONFERENCE.

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

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

Teaching Conferences

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

Problem-Solving Conferences

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

Negotiating Conferences

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

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

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

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

The Conference Facilitator

DESCRIBE LEADERSHIP TECHNIQUES AND TRAITS IMPORTANT TO CONFERENCE FACILITATORS.

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

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

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

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

Facilitator's Preparation

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

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

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

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

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

Facilitating: Technical Issues

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Facilitating: Human Relations Issues

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Evaluating a Conference

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

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

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

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

CADET COMMANDER AND BEYOND: CONSULTING

DESCRIBE THE ROLE OF A CONSULTANT.

DESCRIBE THE UNIQUE LEADERSHIP CHALLENGES RELATED TO CONSULTING.

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

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

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

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

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

REVIEW QUESTIONS

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

SPECIAL READING

CARL SPAATZ

From *Webster's American Military Biographies.*

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

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

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

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

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

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