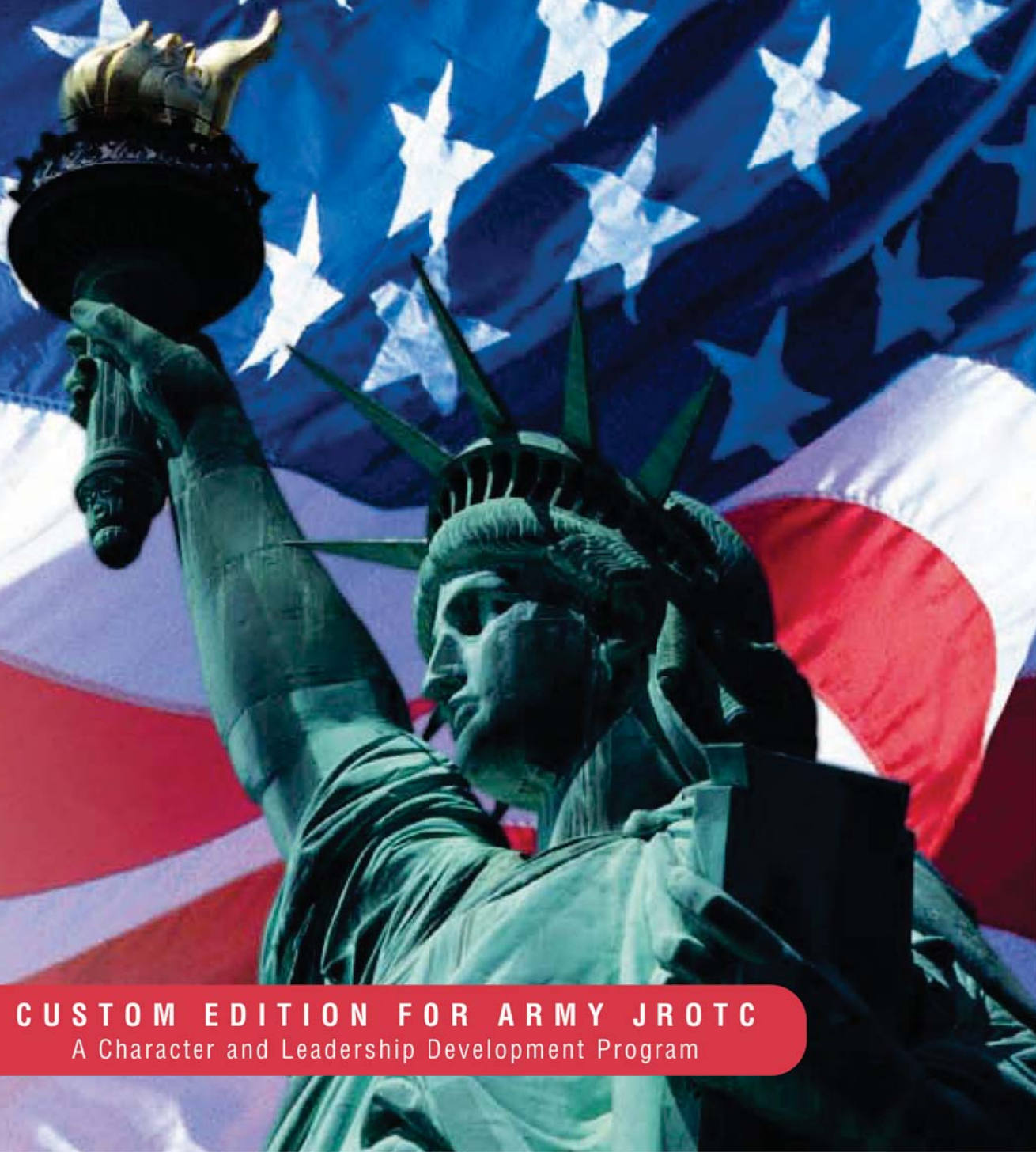


LEADERSHIP EDUCATION AND TRAINING (LET 3)



CUSTOM EDITION FOR ARMY JROTC
A Character and Leadership Development Program



LEADERSHIP EDUCATION AND TRAINING (LET 3)

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by Diane Sukiennik, William Bendat and Lisa Raufman

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by Carol Carter, Joyce Bishop and Sarah Lyman Kravits, with Lesa Hadley

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Citizenship in Action

Unit 1

Chapter 1

Foundations of Army JROTC and Getting Involved

Lesson 9

Basic Command and Staff Principles



Key Terms

coordinating staff
course of action
echelon
personal staff
special staff

What You Will Learn to Do

- Demonstrate command and staff principles while performing the duties of an earned leadership position within your cadet battalion

Linked Core Abilities

- Communicate using verbal, non-verbal, visual, and written techniques
- Apply critical thinking techniques

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain along the Way

- Describe staff responsibilities and three common procedures used to coordinate staff actions
- Compare the three types of staffs and their relationship to the commander
- List the nine-step sequence of command and staff actions in the correct order
- Clarify the scope and purpose of the commander's estimate
- Define key words contained in this lesson

Chapter 1

Introduction

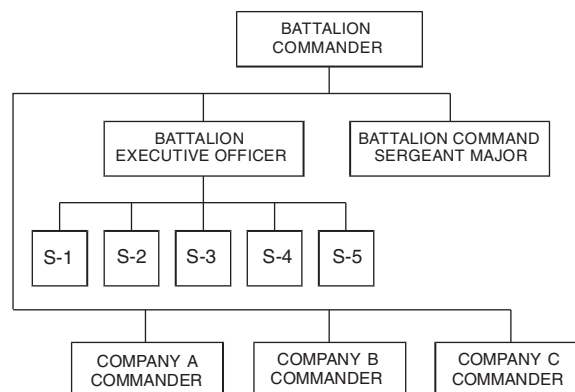
As commanders or staff officers in your cadet battalion, being prepared to meet the challenges of your position is a major responsibility. Your success or failure may not only depend upon your abilities as a leader, but on how well you execute command and staff actions and can work with the subordinate commanders and staff officers of the battalion.

Upon completion of this lesson, you will have a better understanding of command and staff procedures and how they relate to your duties in your cadet battalion. This lesson explains command and staff authority and responsibilities, and the principles underlying delegation of authority, command and staff actions, staff organization and operations, and the sequence of actions in making and executing decisions.

Model Cadet Battalion Organization

Now that you are in a principal leadership position in your cadet battalion, your job may require you to coordinate activities or work in conjunction with the personnel assigned to those positions. To be an effective leader, therefore, you should know all of these positions and their related duties. Studying them will also reinforce your knowledge of the chain of command. These positions are shown in Figure 1.9.1.

Figure 1.9.1: Battalion organization.



Your cadet battalion may contain additional positions or list different duties for them; however, the information provided outlines a model cadet battalion organizational structure and its associated chain of command.

Command Authority and Responsibilities

Command is the authority that a commander lawfully exercises over subordinates by virtue of rank or assignment. With authority comes responsibility.

Command Responsibility

Command responsibility is a moral and legal accountability. Commanders alone are responsible for all that their unit does or fails to do. Through a chain of command, commanders hold each subordinate commander and staff officer responsible for all that their unit or section does or fails to do. If it becomes necessary to bypass the normal chain of command, both the commander issuing and the one receiving the order must notify any intermediate supervisors of the situation as soon as possible.

Note:

Battalions are the lowest level at which the U.S. Army authorizes a staff.

Importance of a Staff

Commanders must effectively use available resources for planning, organizing, directing, coordinating, and controlling people and units to accomplish their missions. No one individual can personally direct, coordinate, and supervise the operation of a battalion-size unit or larger. Regardless of how capable, educated, experienced, or energetic commanders may be, they must have assistance. A group of officers and senior noncommissioned officers provide this assistance. They reduce their commander's burden by assuming responsibility for and accomplishing as many of the routine matters of command as possible. This leaves commanders to serve in leadership roles as intended.

Delegation of Authority

To be totally effective, commanders and their staffs must work as a cohesive team. Staffs achieve this by having a thorough understanding of the policies of their commander. Staff authority varies with the degree of authority delegated to it by the commander. Commanders can delegate as much authority to subordinates as considered necessary, but under no circumstances can they delegate any part of their responsibility. Additionally, the following command functions should remain with commanders:

- **Developing concepts for estimates and plans**
- **Processing and disseminating their guidance and concepts**
- **Ensuring coordination of the effort of the command**
- **Supervising the execution of decisions**

The normal delegation is for staffs to take final action on matters of command policy within their section's jurisdiction. This frees commanders to focus their attention on the essential aspects of command. Authority delegated to staff officers varies with the mission(s) of the unit, the immediacy of the task(s), and the relationship of the staff section's area of interest to the unit's primary mission.

Command and Staff Actions

Command and staff actions must be accurate and timely. That is, the staff must identify promptly and define accurately the decisive elements of each problem. To this end, commanders organize their staffs to:

- **Be immediately responsive to the needs of the command**
- **Remain abreast of the situation and to ensure that they consider all pertinent factors**
- **Reduce the time needed for control, integration, and coordination of tasks**
- **Minimize the possibilities of error**
- **Minimize their requirements for detailed supervision of routine matters**

Staff Authority and Responsibilities

Staffs do not have command authority and are not in the chain of command. The only authority they exercise is over the members of their own section and what their commander delegates to them.

Commanders assign staff officers certain specific functional areas of responsibility. To carry out these command responsibilities effectively, commanders then give each staff section specific duties. When commanders have chosen a **course of action**, it is the duty of the staffs to prepare and issue the necessary orders and to supervise their execution. Staff officers should always issue orders for, or in the name of, their commander; however, responsibility for those orders still remains with the commander. Other staff responsibilities include:

- **Securing information and furnishing advice as the commander may require. Staff officers also provide information to other staffs and to other agencies and units.**
- **Analyzing information as a basis for making recommendations to the commander and other agencies.**
- **Preparing the details of the commander's plans and orders. Each staff section prepares its appropriate part of the plan or order.**
- **Translating decisions and plans into orders and transmitting the orders to each command element.**
- **Supervising (to the extent authorized by the commander) the execution of the plans and/or orders. Staff officers accomplish supervision by way of conducting visits or inspections and preparing reports.**
- **Taking other actions as necessary to carry out the commander's intentions.**

The effectiveness of a staff depends on the professional qualifications of its members. Staff officers must possess the qualities of leadership and the ability to apply them in a staff role. They must have a thorough understanding of the organization,

Key Note Term

course of action – a decision on how to proceed; a plan.

capabilities, limitations, and operating techniques of the command. As a rule, experience in a position that is of equal or lesser responsibility to the current or proposed staff position is a prerequisite to the assignment of a staff officer.

Staff Organization

Good staff organization assists a commander by decreasing the number of routine items requiring decision. Through effective staff procedures, staffs can speed up the processing of information into material useful to the commander and can improve the quality of the product that they develop. Efficient staff techniques minimize possible delays in preparing and transmitting plans and instructions to subordinates.

Note:

The U.S. Army General Staff established in 1903 forms the basis for the Army's present staff system.

Regardless of its organization, a staff must apply the principles of unity of command and direction, span of control, delegation of authority, and the grouping of compatible and related activities. Consequently, staff organization depends upon the following factors:

- **The unit's mission(s).** This is the primary consideration for everything that the commander does, and for the operation of the unit.
- **Activities conducted by the unit.** The unit's mission(s) and its activities go hand-in-hand. For example, all of the duties and responsibilities that make up the unit's activities — especially those required to accomplish the unit's mission(s) — are fundamental to the organization and functioning of a staff.
- **Emphasis on broad fields of interest.** Regardless of the mission, we can divide command interests into five broad fields: personnel (S-1), intelligence (S-2), operations and training (S-3), logistics (S-4), and civil-military operations (S-5). The emphasis placed on each of these broad fields of interest, and the specialized activities required for each, vary according to the mission and the activities required to accomplish the mission. For example, within your JROTC battalion, the S-2 may also handle public affairs matters while the S-5 could be assigned as the special project's officer. Although military staffs may vary in organization and specific titles of its staff members, they do possess certain common characteristics. Functional responsibilities are the basis for all military staff organizations.
- **Laws and regulations.** Army regulations, the Uniform Code of Military Justice, and other directives require special relationships between certain staff officers and the commander.

To be successful, the staff must work together. No staff officer can work alone and expect to get the job done. Each staff officer must actively pursue every scrap of information that will help the commander operate. Staff officers continually exchange information with staff officers from higher headquarters, subordinate unit leaders, and among themselves.

Key Note Term

coordinating staff – principal staff assistants to the commander.

special staff – assist the commander in professional, technical, and other areas of interest in the command.

personal staff – officers who work under the immediate control of the commander.

Types of Staffs

Each type of staff consists of three groups of staff officers plus liaison officers. These three groups are the **coordinating staff** officers, **special staff** officers, and the commander's **personal staff** officers.

Coordinating staff officers are the principal staff assistants to the commander. Each staff officer specializes in one (or a combination) of the broad fields of interest mentioned above for S-1 through S-5.

Special staff officers assist the commander in professional, technical, and other functional areas of interest in the command. The specific number and duties of special staff officers vary at each level of command, and they may also be unit commanders. Special staffs may include the following personnel:

- **Signal Officer**
- **Maintenance Officer**
- **Logistics Readiness Officer**
- **Aviation Officer**
- **Chemical Officer**
- **Provost Marshal**
- **Public Affairs Officer**
- **Chaplain**
- **Surgeon**

Personal staff officers work under the immediate control of the commander. Typical personal staff members include the command sergeant major and, at higher levels, the inspector general and staff judge advocate.

Executive Officer

An executive officer (XO) directs, coordinates, and supervises the efforts of the coordinating and special staffs. The XO's other duties include:

- **Formulating, recommending, and announcing staff operating policies**
- **Keeping the commander informed**
- **Assuming command in the absence of the commander**
- **Reviewing plans, orders, and staff actions**
- **Approving staff actions**
- **Supervising the execution of orders**

Common Staff Procedures

Staff officers use certain common procedures to coordinate staff action. In addition to staff coordination, these include visits and inspections, conferences, briefings, and reports.

Staff coordination is the process of making certain that all pieces of a staff action fit together. The responsible, or action, officer and all other interested staff officers examine and make adjustments to any sub-actions of the project. Staff officers then determine the proper action within their section's area of interest. Finally, the action officer has the added responsibility to complete the coordination with other commanders and staff sections, as appropriate.

Staff officers make staff visits to obtain information for the commander, observe the execution of orders, and assist subordinate unit commanders. Concerning the first two points, the information that staff officers obtain can indicate to their commander how effectively or efficiently subordinate units are executing command decisions. Concerning the last item, a vital part of the staff officer's job is to discover and help subordinate elements to resolve internal problems. On occasion, staffs may combine staff visits with command-directed inspections.

Commanders and/or staffs conduct inspections to ascertain the condition of the command. Using checklists prepared by the various staff sections, commanders and staffs conduct inspections to collect positive and negative information from which the commander can determine the readiness of the unit to accomplish its mission(s).

Commanders and staff officers frequently participate in conferences. Conferences often replace the need for staff visits and certain types of correspondence. Commanders and staffs call conferences to accomplish the following objectives:

- **Determine and evaluate facts by exchanging information and ideas**
- **Solve problems (particularly new ones)**
- **Coordinate actions, including arriving at the best possible decision or reaching agreement in a particular area**
- **Formulate policy**
- **Instruct, counsel, or advise**

Staff briefings ensure a coordinated or unified effort by the entire staff. The executive officer usually presides over these briefings. The XO calls upon each staff section representative to exchange information or guidance, present matters of interest to the command, or present matters that require staff coordination and decision.

Two of the channels through which orders, instructions, and information flow within a command are the command and staff channels.

Command channels transmit all orders and instructions to subordinate units. These channels are commander-to-commander, and all orders transmitted are in the name of the commander.

Staff channels coordinate and transmit information and operating instructions to comparable staff elements and to subordinate commanders. Both in planning and conducting operations, staff officers of a higher headquarters frequently need to contact comparable staff elements of subordinate headquarters. However, a staff officer of a higher headquarters has no authority over the staff of the subordinate headquarters.

Sequence of Command and Staff Actions

Commanders and their staffs often initiate planning an action before they receive a mission. After receipt of the mission, they continue to plan for contingencies that require a command decision. The tools used to assist commanders and staffs in making these decisions are the problem-solving/decision-making processes. Completing actions in a uniform sequence assures commanders that they are making decisions based on all available information and are using staff assistance to the maximum.

Additionally, a uniform sequence makes it possible for staff officers to anticipate the needs of each step. This results in faster and better prepared staff actions. Making and executing decisions involve a series of separate actions.

The following nine steps are those used by commanders and their staffs to arrive at decisions:

Step 1: Mission

Command and staff actions begin upon the receipt of a mission from a higher headquarters and/or the development of a mission by the unit commander. The commander then analyzes the mission to identify the specific tasks the unit must accomplish.

Step 2: Information Available

The staff provides any available information to the commander, who also attempts to obtain additional information from the next higher commander as early as possible. After analyzing the mission and reviewing the available information, the commander issues the planning guidance (Step 3).

Step 3: Planning Guidance

The planning guidance is the commander's assistance to a staff in preparing or revising their estimates. This guidance spans more than one step. The amount of planning guidance varies with each mission, the volume and validity of the information available, the situation, and the experience of the commander and staff. The commander does not select a course of action at this time because doing so would prevent objective and unbiased staff estimates.

Step 4: Staff Estimates

Based on the mission and planning guidance, the coordinating staff sections prepare their staff estimates. The special staff, who may also prepare their own estimates, assists them. Coordinated staff estimates result in recommendations as to what specific actions the commander may take to accomplish the mission.

Step 5: Commander's Estimate and Decision

In this step, the commander considers the recommendations of the staff, completes his or her own estimate, and announces a decision. Following the decision (the last step of the estimate), the commander provides the staff with an overall concept of how the commander wants the operation conducted (known as the commander's concept, which is the basis for the preparation of orders).

Step 6: Preparation of Plans or Orders

After staff members completely understand the mission, they carefully analyze the decision and commander's concept to determine what actions the unit must take to conduct a successful operation. From this analysis comes the development of plans or orders.

Step 7: Approval

Staffs normally submit the plans or orders to the commander for approval before submitting them for publication; however, the staff may omit this step based on the urgency of the situation and/or if the commander previously delegated that authority.

Step 8: Publication of Plans or Orders

See Step 7.

Step 9: Command and Staff Supervision

Supervision of the orders must be continuous if the mission is to be successful. This could very well be the most important step. Without proper supervision, the best plan may fail. Proper supervision also allows the commander and staff to be constantly abreast of the situation and able to make changes as necessary.

The Estimate of the Situation in the Sequence of Command and Staff Actions

The estimate of the situation is a vital part of the decision-making process. Estimates have been an integral part of military procedures ever since man fought his first war. The intellectual and perceptive reasoning that must go into the estimate form the basis for sound recommendations by staff officers and sound decisions by

commanders. History tells us that great military leaders invariably adopted a logical sequence of thought in their planning processes — similar to those used in the modern estimate of the situation.

Learning from History

Frederick the Great, in secret instructions to his generals, wrote: “It is sometimes unquestionably necessary to take chances in war, but you avoid these hazards all that you can by prudence / so experience and history of all wars tell us. It is a stupendous game of chance wherein he who estimates best wins in the end.”

Napoleon always made careful estimates and usually reduced them to writing. “Military science consists of estimating all eventualities first, then estimating exactly, almost mathematically, the degree of chance. I work constantly; I estimate continually . . . if I appear to be always ready to respond to anything, prepared to face anything, it is because before undertaking anything, I have meditated a long time. I have foreseen all that could happen.”

Commanders develop the ability to make sound decisions by habitually applying logic to each of the many problems that confront them during their careers. If this were not so, eventually commanders would become the victims of their own emotional decisions.

Purpose of the Estimate

The estimate of the situation is an analysis of all factors affecting accomplishment of the mission. It helps commanders to determine the most suitable course of action. Commanders and staffs need only to develop courses of action in sufficient detail to be readily distinguishable for analysis and comparison purposes with other courses of action.

Scope and Nature of the Estimate

The estimate of the situation is a logical and orderly examination of all factors affecting the accomplishment of the mission in order to reach a sound decision. The amount and nature of detail considered in the estimate varies with the level and type of command, the functions of the preparing agency, and other circumstances.

The basic approach used in the estimate of the situation is applicable to any situation, **echelon**, or type of command. Any individual may use it to arrive at a decision. Commanders use it to choose the course of action they want their command to follow. Staffs use it to determine the influence of factors within their particular field of interest on the courses of action under consideration. They also use it to arrive at recommendations for their commander.

The estimate of the situation is a continuing mental process. With each change in the situation, commanders and staffs must revise the estimate and modify the course of action as appropriate. The estimate is as thorough as time and circumstances will permit. It may vary from a short, almost instantaneous process when the requirement for a decision is urgent to a long, complex, and complete process requiring the effort of the entire staff.

Key Note Term

echelon – an arrangement of a body of troops in the form of steps; a section of a military group; an organizational level of importance.

Conducting a Meeting

When members of an organization, such as the student government at your school, assemble to transact business, they are conducting a meeting. Within JROTC, your instructors or the chain of command may call on you to organize and conduct a meeting using the proper rules of order.

The two types of meetings that you will conduct most often are the regular and special meetings. Hold regular meetings at set time intervals, such as weekly, monthly, or quarterly to discuss matters of routine business. You can convene a special meeting when important matters arise between the regular meetings that urgently require action before the next regular meeting.

The minimum essential officers for the conduct of business are a presiding officer (chairperson or president) and a secretary. The presiding officer conducts the meeting and sees that members observe the rules. The secretary makes a written record of the proceedings — called the minutes.

The Procedures of Order

When the time for the meeting arrives and sufficient members are present, the presiding officer opens it. An organization may adopt its own order of business (known as a program or agenda) or it may follow one addressed in its bylaws. Most organizations consider the following order as standard for their meetings:

- **Reading and approval of the minutes**
- **Reports of officers and special committees**
- **Unfinished business**
- **New business**

Normally, any member can introduce a legitimate issue at any time when there is no other business for consideration. Members do this through the use of motions. After a member makes a motion and another member seconds it, the presiding officer places it before the assembly for debate. Every member has the right to speak to every debatable motion before the membership votes on it. In most situations, the basic requirement for approval of an action is a majority vote. All members in good standing (not under a disciplinary suspension) have the right to vote. The regular methods of voting are by:

- **Voice:** Normal method of voting on a motion
- **Rising:** Verifies a non-conclusive voice vote
- **Show of hands:** Alternative to the rising vote

An organization may use other methods of voting when prescribed by the bylaws. They are voting by ballot (used when there is a need for secrecy of each member's

vote) and roll call vote (which has the opposite effect of a ballot vote because it places on record how each member votes).

To close a meeting, either a member can motion for adjournment or, under certain conditions, the presiding officer can declare the meeting adjourned.

Framework

Every organization should specify in its bylaws what officers it requires, how they will be elected or appointed, their terms of office, and any qualifications for holding those offices. The officers that most organizations require for a smooth running assembly are the presiding officer (chairperson or president), vice president, secretary, and treasurer. Other key, non-elected personnel are the sergeant-at arms and the historian/librarian. Refer to the book *Robert's Rules of Order* for an explanation of the duties and responsibilities of these officers and for other key personnel not listed.

Note:

To learn more about Robert's Rules of Order, check out www.robertsrules.com.

The basic reports essential for and during the conduct of a meeting are the minutes (or the report of the proceedings) and the reports by the various officers.

Conclusion

From past military history, the relationship between command and staff actions; staff organization, duties, and responsibilities; and the manner in which a unit successfully accomplishes its missions are very apparent. If you pursued this lesson with the intention of learning the “how” of command and staff procedures, you should have become better qualified to assume the top leadership positions in your cadet battalion.

Lesson Review

1. Why is it important to know how to work with subordinate commanders and staff officers?
2. What tasks might you delegate to subordinates?
3. Name the three groups of staff. Choose one and discuss it.
4. Define the term “echelon.” How does it relate to this lesson?

Leadership Theory and Application

Unit 2

Chapter 4

Leadership Strategies

Lesson 1

Celebrating Differences— Culture and Individual Diversity



Key Terms

culture
discrimination
ethnic
inclusionary
impartial
minority
stereotypes
synergy

What You Will Learn to Do

- Employ strategies for neutralizing the impact of personal prejudices and stereotypes on your relationships with others

Linked Core Abilities

- Take responsibility for your actions and choices
- Treat self and others with respect

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain along the Way

- Identify how people display prejudice toward others
- Identify reasons for discrimination and stereotyping
- Describe ways a leader can guide diverse groups to work together as a team
- Define key words contained in this lesson

Chapter 4

Introduction

Captain Kirk, Lieutenant Uhura, Lieutenant Sulu, Ensign Chekhov, Mr. Spock, Worf, Data, and Geordi La Forge—what a cast of characters! The crew members were international, interplanetary, half-human and half-vulcan, and humanoid and blind with a visor for seeing. Yes, *Star Trek* and *Star Trek: The Next Generation* raised some issues about diversity.

Key Note Term

synergy – a joint action or force.

Synergy is when you and your team members cooperate together and create better results than they could get working alone. Each individual is unique and you must value that uniqueness, just like Captain Kirk and his crew did. Real synergy is celebrating differences, teamwork, open-mindedness, and finding new and better ways of doing things.

Key Note Term

minority – a racial, religious, ethnic, and so on group different from the dominant group.

On July 26, 1948, President Harry S. Truman signed Executive Order 9981. This order called for the integration of the armed forces and an end to discrimination against soldiers because of race, color, or creed. Although the Army completed its desegregation in the 1950s, the assignment of whites and members of **minority** groups to the same units did not ensure total equality, racial harmony, or a fully integrated Army. The Army, similar to society at large, began to address the questions and challenges of the race issue seriously in the 1960s. Today, every Army element is expected to have an active race relations and equal opportunity program. Laws and regulations provide guidelines to ensure the execution of these programs.

Key Note Term

ethnic – of, pertaining to, or characteristic of the basic groups of people with a common history, language, culture, and so on.

Employees of private organizations as well as members of the military come from all walks of life, different geographical areas, and numerous racial and **ethnic** backgrounds. They bring with them their own challenges and prejudices. The leader's challenge is to direct members of these diverse groups in a way that will cause them to work together as a team. It is not an easy task, but is one that can be accomplished through informed, fair, and impartial leadership and educational awareness.

Values and Attitudes

Values and attitudes are important to the daily functioning of our lives. They help to form the basis of how you see yourself and those around you as individuals, how you see others, and how you interpret the world in general. As a leader, you will often be involved with individuals who have different values and attitudes from your own — you have probably already experienced many of these differences. Some may have been due to religious or cultural backgrounds; others may have stemmed from racial or ethnic backgrounds.

In your role as a leader, you will also be a counselor and a helper. To communicate well with others, it is necessary for you to understand the dynamics involved with the value and attitude differences that occur within each human being and that can come between people.

- **Values affect daily interaction of individuals.** A clear understanding of one's own value system will help in understanding others.

There are cultural differences and similarities in assigning levels of importance to values. In a study that evaluated the levels of importance in five cultures, of 29 values, none of them were shared by all five cultures as *primary values* (values that are most important to an individual and worth dying for, such as one's country, patriotism, freedom, religion, and so on) or *secondary values* (values that are important but not worth dying for, such as money). Other values evaluated by the study were respect for youth, human dignity, hierarchy, authoritarianism, education, and frankness.

- **As a member of society, you are involved daily with attitudes and behavior and must understand how one affects the other.** As you can see in the following, there is a continuous chain relationship between them:

My attitudes affect my behavior.

My behavior affects your attitudes.

Your attitudes affect your behavior.

Your behavior affects my attitudes.

Attitudes can have positive or negative implications. Although they can help make sense out of life experiences, individuals cannot change them easily. Furthermore, you may not always be aware of the extensive influences that your attitudes have on other people, jobs, and situations, or how they can affect a person's learning, personality, prejudices, and productivity.

Self-image/Self-concept

As a leader, you will constantly be dealing with people. It will make your job a lot easier if you know and have an idea of who you are and how you relate to others. You need to know how you are perceived by others.

The most important single factor affecting people's communication with others is their self-concept—how they see themselves and their situations. Although situations may change from moment-to-moment or place-to-place, people's beliefs about themselves are always determining factors in their communicative behavior. People have literally thousands of concepts about themselves: who they are, what they stand for, where they live, what they do and do not do, what they value, and what they believe.

Self-concept is the picture you have of yourself as seen through your own thoughts, development, perceptions, and feelings.

- ***Development*** is the way you feel about yourself, which has a direct relationship to your upbringing; it includes values and attitudes.
- ***Perception*** refers to the interpretation and the amount of "emotional charge" attributed to past events and present situations.
- ***Feelings*** refer to the positive or negative, good or bad, indifference or intensity, of emotions or interpretation of oneself.

Contrary to what you would like, you cannot buy self-concept/personality attributes from a store. Your personality is a combination of heredity and life experiences. To gain a better understanding of self-concept, where it comes from, and how it develops, look at the main ingredients—heritage and needs fulfillment/emotional development.

Heritage

As soon as you came into this world, society classified you in terms of the following:

- **Gender**, such as male, female
- **Race**, such as White, Black, Hispanic, Asian
- **Nationality**, such as American, German, Irish, Swedish
- **Religion**, such as Catholic, Jewish, Muslim
- **Family status**, such as lower, middle, upper class
- **Legal status**, such as legitimate, illegitimate
- **Environment**, such as from country, suburbs, inner city
- **Physical status**, such as a cute or ugly baby
- **Parentage**, such as married, single, divorced

Needs Fulfillment/Emotional Development

Your personal, psychological, emotional, and physical needs define your self-concept. As you grow older, you define your own needs (what is important to you). How you feel about yourself has a direct relationship on others around you. Examine Table 4.1.1. If you do not have a positive self-image, how will you project yourself, especially if you are a leader?

Remember, how you view yourself impacts not only how you view others, but how they view you. Some differences exist because each person places different importance on different needs. People would like to be better than they are. You can change if you want. The most important thing to consider is that no one else can make you change. You have the right to fight to remove inappropriate or incorrect perceptions, prejudices, and discriminatory attitudes and behavior.

Prejudice and Discrimination

You live in America—the most democratic (and free) country in the world! Why, then, is there still prejudice and discrimination in this land of opportunity?

You might ask yourself, “Am I prejudiced?” It has often been said that everyone is prejudiced to a certain degree. Everyone operates on pre-judgments and makes discriminating distinctions every day. For example, if you had good luck with one

Table 4.1.1: Positive vs. Negative Self-image

Positive Self-image	Negative Self-image
Love of self/others	Hate of self and others
Be excited about reaching out for the adventure of life	Hide from life and its miseries
Experience serenity, joy, hope, and trust	Experience anxiety, despair, distrust, and anger
Develop your intelligence	Be blind to your potential
Decisive, assertive	Indecisive, defensive, aggressive
Enjoy your physical abilities	Deny or exaggerate physical abilities
Create	Destroy
Be tolerant, accepting	Bigoted, prejudiced
Self-actualize	Suicidal/homicidal
Open	Closed
Trusting	Hidden agendas
Assertive	Defensive

type of car, you can be expected to be prejudiced in favor of that model; when voting, many people discriminate between Republican, Democrat, or another party's candidates.

These examples illustrate the frequency in everyday life that people make decisions based on their prejudices or discriminatory practices. Instead, it is the negative forms of prejudice and discrimination that can have adverse impacts on leadership and unit cohesion.

Prejudice

Prejudice is defined as a feeling — favorable or unfavorable — toward a person, object, or group that may or may not be based on actual experience(s). It is generally agreed that a racial prejudice is a negative attitude toward a racial or ethnic group that is maintained through **stereotypes**.

Key Note Term

stereotypes – an uncritical or formalized conception, notion, or attitude.

In looking at the norms, values, beliefs, and attitudes developed through socialization, you may have said to yourself that each of those concepts may impact positively or negatively on how you view the world around you. Indeed, these concepts are the sources of bias or prejudice that unquestionably can distort how you make “sense” of reality.

If you agree with the idea that norms, values, beliefs, and attitudes do exist within each of us (and that they do influence our ability to perceive, and that influence can also be called prejudice), it would seem then that all humans are capable of being prejudiced.

Another factor that is closely related, if not interwoven, with the norms, values, beliefs, and attitudes is one’s culture. A **culture** is the total of the learned behaviors of a group of people that are generally considered to be the tradition of that people and are transmitted from generation to generation. These learned behaviors include language, nonverbal norms — body language and facial expressions, and color consciousness.

Many people confuse color with culture. You can share aspects of a culture, but not color. Color is genetic; culture is learned. In many cultures, skin color differences take on a measure of importance, status, or value. The color of one’s skin in certain cultures may dictate how that individual is treated within that culture. Color has a tremendous impact on perceptions in the United States because most Americans respond to color by making assumptions and treating people based on skin color.

Not convinced? Here is a question to ask yourself. *Do you behave differently around people who are of a different color?* You may not want to behave differently, but you may recognize that you do from time to time. It largely depends on the environment that you are in. If you are in control, or think you are, your behavior is pretty constant. After you become the minority, so to speak, you may become suspicious, feel threatened, distrust may set in, and your behavior may change.

The following highlights some of the explanations for prejudice:

- **A dominant group avoids the feelings of sympathy for “dominated people” through over-exaggerations of negative qualities. A dominant group is the one in control of the major positions in a society and that sets the standards for the whole society.**
- **The belief that one’s own family and society are unique and correct. You might feel that your group is the natural one and judge others based on this standard.**

Note:

Every human group seems to do this, serving as a positive reinforcement within each society.

Key Note Term

culture – civilization.

- Prejudice is a natural outgrowth of the “we-they” contrast. After an opponent is present, prejudice can be expected. Loosely scattered members of a group then come together to face a common opponent.
- The transfer of internal personal problems to external objects. People who have a distorted need to feel superior to others use scapegoats in this way.
- A particularly negative experience with a member of a particular racial or ethnic group in the past might bring up memories that can cloud your judgment in the present. You may also tend to judge the whole society by your own experiences. If you have not been a victim of prejudice, you may not see it in others.
- The “earned reputation” approach means that members of society shift the justification for prejudice to a target group — “if only they would mend their ways, prejudice would go away.”

Unfortunately, people with negative attitudes generally tend to express themselves with action, and they act out their prejudices in various ways. The most common ways are:

- Openly talking about their prejudices with like-minded friends and expressing their dislikes freely.
- Avoiding members of the disliked group, even at the cost of considerable inconvenience.
- Actively making detrimental distinctions about a group, to the extent of excluding all members of that group from certain types of employment, educational opportunities, politics, and so on.
- Committing acts of violence, especially when under conditions of heightened emotions.

Now that you have explored prejudice and learned explanations for its existence, turn your attention to discrimination.

Discrimination

Discrimination is defined as the actions or practices carried out by members of dominant groups, or their representatives, that have a differential and harmful impact on members of subordinate groups. The actions may be open or hidden, direct or indirect, intentional or unintentional. The actors in these events may be individuals, groups, or organizations.

It is crucial to understand that there is a direct link between discrimination and power. Without power, discrimination is passive and ineffective. With power, discrimination maintains the dominance of one group over another. The term *power* in this context means the expenditure of energy to get things done. The groups in power are those that can effectively discriminate: they can pass laws, make rules, and decide who belongs in and who remains on the outside.

Key Note Term

discrimination – to show preference for or prejudice against.

Causes for discrimination include:

- **Group Size.** This may be the simplest explanation for discriminatory behavior among dominant group members. They fear they will be overwhelmed by the sheer number of the subordinated “masses.” Racial groups that continually increase in size have always been the targets for some form of control. On the other hand, the smaller the ethnic minority group, the less threatening it is.
- **Social Distance.** The attempt by a dominant group to keep a distance between it and a subordinate group by limiting access and intimacy. For example, you cannot join a specific club unless you earn \$250,000 a year.
- **Competition.** It always serves the dominant group's best interests to limit competition with a subordinate group, from competing for scarce economic resources to other forms such as athletic competition.
- **Status Consciousness.** Minority groups occupy a generally low status in American society. For example, status-conscious whites avoid lower-status people due to their prejudicial perceptions.

Stereotyping

Stereotyping is related to just about all of the factors discussed above. A stereotype, whether favorable or unfavorable, is an exaggerated belief associated with a category. Its function is to justify (or rationalize) our conduct in relation to that category. People naturally seek to understand or make sense of their environment. Because you cannot possibly analyze or respond to all of the information that you receive, you may tend to narrow your focus on subsets of that information. You will usually select the subset that you believe to be most important. People then categorize (stereotype) this information to serve a useful function, depending on their group (religious, racial, ethnic, cultural, and so on) affiliation.

- **Categorization simplifies your environment.** It enables you to generate expectations and guides your behavior toward a person or an object based on those expectations.
- **When you categorize a person as a member of a group, you may assume that he or she has a variety of characteristics that you believe members of that category have.** You then look at persons as a group based on a variety of factors (such as age, religion, gender, race,) and whether they are part of the in-group (most like you) or the out-group (most different from you). The people that you tend to categorize (stereotype) most are the out-group.
- **Stereotypes are fixed, rigid ideas associated with a category.** They are not identical with the category, but are overgeneralizations or oversimplifications about a category.
- **Because stereotypes can be either favorable or unfavorable, they can lead to love-prejudice or hate-prejudice relationships.**
- **Stereotypes are the rationalizers that allow you to justify behavior to categorically accept or reject a group and to selectively maintain your perception and thinking about a group.**
- **There may be examples of behavior by members of a group that support the belief offered in an expressed stereotype of a given group.** For example, one can find a few people in groups who are dishonest, but those examples do not warrant that all within the group are dishonest.

There are also a number of sources that not only develop, but support and sustain stereotypes. In fact, there is very little chance of anyone not being exposed to at least one of these sources of stereotypes.

The very socialization process discussed earlier in this lesson is a powerful source in the development of stereotypes.

- **Hearing and/or telling ethnic, racist, or sexist jokes.**
- **Reading the literature of a culture or society, whether fact or fiction, has a powerful influence on our thinking and behaving processes.**
- **The coverage of news on radio and television, and movies all carry powerful messages that create and support stereotyping.**
- **A male-oriented society only serves to create and sustain stereotypes. Even the pronouns you use when you speak sometimes have effects that are profound.**

Racial Tension

Racial tension within an organization is often the result of poor leadership. The major reasons for racial tension include:

- **Insensitive leadership. Leaders must realize the effect that their actions and comments have on subordinates and on their attitudes, behaviors, and perceptions.**
- **Racial prejudice and discrimination.**
- **Unfair administration of rewards and punishment, promotions, and duties.**
- **Limited recognition and awareness of minorities.**

Up to this point, you have looked at some of the factors that impact on perceptions and attitudes, and their relation to prejudicial and discriminatory behavior. You saw that when you judge a person's worth based on a perception or an attitude, your effectiveness as a leader is degraded. You will not communicate as well and trust will not be nourished to its fullest potential within an organization.

Strategies for Creating Change

So, now that you have some awareness about factors and causes that impact negatively on race relations and equal opportunity, what can you do about it? How can you remove or change some of the negative attitudes, behaviors, perceptions, or stereotypes? This section offers some strategies for change that will require lots of work and some risk on your part.

Leaders Can Create Change

As a leader, you need to be aware of discrimination and prejudices before they can begin to impact on minority groups, and more important, on people's feelings within those groups. Failure to take these strategies for change to heart can severely hamper a unit's mission accomplishment, cohesion, and trust.

- **Overcome prejudices by learning the facts and applying sound reasoning processes.**
- **Be prepared to detect and evaluate warning signs of possible unrest that may stem from racial issues in units and take immediate action to eliminate the causes.**
- **Know all you can about your subordinates — their values, attitudes, how they came to be the way they are, and what they want to be. This means knowing more about subordinates than just their names. Do not base this knowledge on unfounded opinions about the race or ethnic origin of a subordinate, but on the facts about each individual.**
- **Promote mutual understanding through effective communication. Realize that there will always be difficulties in the communication process and deal with the filters, barriers, and breakdowns as they occur. Although the difficulties may be complicated, when minorities lose trust in their leaders, the situation is out of control. Make communication effective by fostering an understanding that reduces racial tensions.**
- **Give fair and **impartial** treatment to all.**

Key Note Term

impartial – fair and unprejudiced.

Lessening Prejudice, Adverse Perceptions, and Stereotyping

It has been suggested that if members of society can accomplish the following conditions, the causes and effects of prejudice will be lessened:

- **Make contacts with people on an equal status and under a spirit of cooperation.**
- **Share goals.**
- **Have people work on common problems.**
- **Create appropriate educational activities.**
- **Sanction contacts by law.**
- **Accept differences. Disagreement is okay, but rather than using statements such as “you are wrong” or “that’s your opinion,” do not deny others their experiences. Be willing to explore other’s experiences as you explore your own thoughts, feelings, and experiences that brought you to your conclusion.**
- **Listen actively. Listen for understanding instead of agreement. Paraphrase back to the speaker the message you received. Listen with the same intensity to everyone.**
- **Provide feedback. Be behavior specific. Let others know what impact they have on you. Learn to separate intent and effect. Avoid using labels.**
- **Share behaviors/feelings. Honestly share with the group where you stand on subjects, and be willing to explore how you got there.**

- **Encourage feedback.** Do not defend or rationalize your behavior; accept what others have to say. This is where active listening is imperative. Remember—agreement is not necessary.
- **Use inclusionary language.** Use terms such as “we” and “us;” do not use “they,” “he,” or “she.” Plus, avoid using “isms.”
- **Avoid stereotypes.** Learn to distinguish between characteristics based on factual evidence and characteristics based on overgeneralizations.

Key Note Term

inclusionary – to invite or include.

Recognize that thinking in terms of categories is a normal human function, and be aware when you are doing it. Recognize also that people consciously and unconsciously hold stereotypes as a result of their social conditioning. Because people distinguish by recognizing their existence and by gathering factual information about different individuals, learn to look at people as individuals — not groups. Interacting with people who are different than you can help you to see people as they really are.

Creating Change from a Personal Level

There are three ways that you personally can create change. The most readily available tactic for change is *dialogue*. This tactic is particularly effective to change people who are on the fence, who need support for new thought, or who are seriously trying to make sense out of their deepest commitments. It is less effective for those whose minds are strongly made up in an opposite direction. Dialogue has available to it various methods for effectively presenting information — conversation, debates, and panel discussions are all common.

Another tactic designed to be stronger than dialogue is *confrontation*. This involves using the skills of effective feedback and active listening in a non-threatening way. For example, consider the following response to a statement “you” made to a group of people:

When you made that statement, I perceived it as being racist and it made me feel uncomfortable because I sense a feeling of superiority on your part.

At this point, re-negotiation is in order. Confrontation involves no longer being silent. The silent majority of Americans — those who have never committed themselves either to overt racism or to active involvement in the cause of civil rights — will now have to stand up and be counted.

The final tactic is *education*, from which comes understanding. Educate other people. Do not close your ears when you hear bigoted remarks. Racism becomes more respectable when it goes unchallenged. Most people are simply ignorant of the facts.

The education necessary to change existing perceptions will never work if it consists mainly of the same people lecturing to others. It must involve active participation by all types of people at all levels. Advice from well-informed members of other groups also helps.

Everyone must work to perform — or at least process information — on three levels at once (if need be). These levels are:

- Understand yourself and how you see the situation around you.
- Understand others because they will not be like you in many cases. Use intercultural communication.
- Understand your environment, where it is coming from, and the direction it is headed.

Conclusion

Although all minorities and other groups are interwoven throughout every fiber of our society; racist, prejudiced, and discriminatory attitudes and behaviors still exist. Unless you have a firm grip on some of the “whys” behind these challenges, you may be prone to repeat them. Society has a choice. It can die clinging to its bigotry, or it can breathe freely in an atmosphere free of racism, prejudice, and discrimination. The choice really is one of survival, and every one of us has a responsibility to ourselves — and to our children — to keep this society alive by changing it.

Chapter 4

Lesson Review

Lesson Review

1. What did Executive Order 9981 accomplish?
2. How can your self-concept influence the way you see others?
3. What would cause you to behave differently around individuals of another color, culture, or religion?
4. Define the term “stereotype”.

Lesson 2

Performance Indicators



Key Terms

communication
counseling
development
evaluation
flexibility
purpose
support

What You Will Learn to Do

- Outline a developmental counseling plan

Linked Core Abilities

- Communicate using verbal, non-verbal, visual, and written techniques
- Treat self and others with respect

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain along the Way

- Describe performance indicators used to assess leadership skills
- Describe the qualities and skills of an effective counselor
- Identify assessment and counseling strategies
- Define key words contained in this lesson

Chapter 4

Introduction

This lesson also covers leadership and developmental skills, as well as mentoring. You learn mentoring and counseling skills, such as active listening, responding, and questioning. The two major types of developmental counseling—event-oriented and growth counseling—are also discussed.

Performance Indicators

This section is organized around the leadership dimensions as shown in Figure 4.2.1.

Figure 4.2.1: Leadership dimensions.

Leaders of character and competence . . . act to achieve excellence by providing purpose, direction and motivation.					
Values "Be"	Attributes "Be"	Skills ⁴ "Know"	Actions ⁵ "Do"		
Loyalty Duty Respect Selfless Service Honor Integrity Personal Courage	Mental ¹ Physical ² Emotional ³	Interpersonal Conceptual Technical Tactical	Influencing Communicating Decision Making Motivating	Operating Planning/ Preparing Executing Assessing	Improving Developing Building Learning

Values

Values include loyalty, duty, respect, selfless service, honor, integrity, and personal courage. This section covers what to look for when determining these specific values.

Loyalty

Leaders who demonstrate loyalty:

- **Bear true faith and allegiance in the correct order to the Constitution, the Army, and the organization**

- Observe higher headquarters' priorities
- Work within the system without manipulating it for personal gain

Duty

Leaders who demonstrate devotion to duty:

- Fulfill obligations — professional, legal, and moral
- Carry out mission requirements
- Meet professional standards
- Set the example
- Comply with policies and directives
- Continually pursue excellence

Respect

Leaders who demonstrate respect:

- Treat people as they should be treated
- Create a climate of fairness and equal opportunity
- Are discreet and tactful when correcting or questioning others
- Show concern for and make an effort to check on the safety and well being of others
- Are courteous
- Don't take advantage of positions of authority

Selfless Service

Leaders who demonstrate selfless service:

- Put the welfare of the nation, the Army, and subordinates before their own
- Sustain team morale
- Share subordinates' hardships
- Give credit for success to others and accept responsibility for failure themselves

Honor

Leaders who demonstrate honor:

- Live up to Army values
- Don't lie, cheat, steal, or tolerate those actions by others

Integrity

Leaders who demonstrate integrity:

- Do what is right legally and morally
- Possess high personal moral standards
- Are honest in word and deed
- Show consistently good moral judgment and behavior
- Put being right ahead of being popular

Personal Courage

Leaders who demonstrate personal courage:

- Show physical and moral bravery
- Take responsibility for decisions and actions
- Accept responsibility for mistakes and shortcomings

Attributes

Attributes are positive qualities, traits, and characteristics. The attributes covered in this section include mental, physical, and emotional.

Mental Attributes

Leaders who demonstrate desirable mental attributes:

- Possess and display will, self-discipline, initiative, judgment, self-confidence, intelligence, common sense, and cultural awareness
- Think and act quickly and logically, even when there are no clear instructions or the plan falls apart
- Analyze situations
- Combine complex ideas to generate feasible courses of action
- Balance resolve and flexibility
- Show a desire to succeed; do not quit in the face of adversity
- Do their fair share
- Balance competing demands
- Embrace and use the talents of all members to build team cohesion

Physical Attributes

Leaders who demonstrate desirable physical attributes:

- **Maintain an appropriate level of physical fitness and military bearing**
- **Present a neat and professional appearance**
- **Meet established norms of personal hygiene, grooming, and cleanliness**
- **Maintain Army height and weight standards (not applicable to DA civilians)**
- **Render appropriate military and civilian courtesies**
- **Demonstrate nonverbal expressions and gestures appropriate to the situation**
- **Are personally energetic**
- **Cope with hardship**
- **Complete physically demanding endeavors**
- **Continue to function under adverse conditions**
- **Lead by example in performance, fitness, and appearance**

Emotional Attributes

Leaders who demonstrate appropriate emotional attributes:

- **Show self-confidence**
- **Remain calm during conditions of stress, chaos, and rapid change**
- **Exercise self-control, balance, and stability**
- **Maintain a positive attitude**
- **Demonstrate mature, responsible behavior that inspires trust and earns respect**

Skills

Specific skills should be examined when reviewing performance. These include interpersonal, conceptual, technical, and tactical skills. Obviously, not every skill is applicable to every individual.

Interpersonal Skills

Leaders who demonstrate interpersonal skills:

- **Coach, teach, counsel, motivate, and empower subordinates**
- **Readily interact with others**
- **Earn trust and respect**
- **Actively contribute to problem solving and decision-making**
- **Are sought out by peers for expertise and counsel**

Conceptual Skills

Leaders who demonstrate conceptual skills:

- Reason critically and ethically
- Think creatively
- Anticipate requirements and contingencies
- Improvise within the commander's intent
- Use appropriate reference materials
- Pay attention to details

Technical Skills

Leaders who demonstrate technical skills:

- Possess or develop the expertise necessary to accomplish all assigned tasks and functions
- Know standards for task accomplishment
- Know the small unit tactics, techniques, and procedures that support the organization's mission
- Know the drills that support the organization's mission
- Prepare clear, concise operation orders
- Understand how to apply the factors of mission, enemy, terrain and weather, troops, time available, and civil considerations (METT-TC) to mission analysis

METT-TC

You might be wondering what METT-TC stands for. This acronym means:

- M-Mission
- E-Enemy
- T-Time
- T-Terrain
- T-Troops
- C-Civilians

- Master basic soldier skills
- Know how to use and maintain equipment
- Know how and what to inspect or check
- Use technology, especially information technology, to enhance **communication**

Actions

When assessing action performance, looks for those qualities that include influencing, communication (both oral and written), decision making, motivating, operating, planning and preparing, executing, assessing, improving, developing, building, and learning. This section covers these specific actions.

Influencing

Leaders who influence:

- Use appropriate methods to reach goals while operating and improving
- Motivate subordinates to accomplish tasks and missions
- Set the example by demonstrating enthusiasm for — and, if necessary, methods of — accomplishing assigned tasks
- Make themselves available to assist peers and subordinates
- Share information with subordinates
- Encourage subordinates and peers to express candid opinions
- Actively listen to feedback and act appropriately based on it
- Mediate peer conflicts and disagreements
- Tactfully confront and correct others when necessary
- Earn respect and obtain willing cooperation of peers, subordinates, and superiors
- Challenge others to match their example
- Take care of subordinates and their families, providing for their health, welfare, morale, and training
- Are persuasive in peer discussions and prudently rally peer pressure against peers when required
- Provide a team vision for the future
- Shape the organizational climate by setting, sustaining, and ensuring a values-based environment

Communicating

Leaders who communicate effectively:

- Display good oral, written, and listening skills
- Know how to persuade others
- Express thoughts and ideas clearly to individuals and groups

Key Note Term

communication – the sharing of information.

Oral Communication

Leaders who effectively communicate orally:

- **Speak clearly and concisely**
- **Speak enthusiastically and maintain listeners' interest and involvement**
- **Make appropriate eye contact when speaking**
- **Use gestures that are appropriate but not distracting**
- **Convey ideas, feelings, sincerity, and conviction**
- **Express well-thought-out and well-organized ideas**
- **Use grammatically and doctrinally correct terms and phrases**
- **Use appropriate visual aids**
- **Act to determine, recognize and resolve misunderstandings**
- **Listen and watch attentively; make appropriate notes; convey the essence of what was said or done to others**
- **Respond appropriately to verbal and non-verbal feedback**
- **Keep conversations on track**

Written Communication

Leaders who effectively communicate in writing:

- **Are understood in a single rapid reading by the intended audience**
- **Use correct grammar, spelling, and punctuation**
- **Have legible handwriting**
- **Put the "bottom line up front"**
- **Use the active voice**
- **Use an appropriate format, a clear organization, and a reasonably simple style**
- **Use only essential acronyms and spell out those used**
- **Stay on topic**
- **Correctly use facts and data**

Note:

DA Pam 600-67 discusses techniques for writing effectively.

Decision Making

Leaders who make effective, timely decisions:

- **Employ sound judgment and logical reasoning**
- **Gather and analyze relevant information about changing situations to recognize and define emerging problems**
- **Make logical assumptions in the absence of acts**
- **Uncover critical issues to use as a guide in both making decisions and taking advantage of opportunities**
- **Keep informed about developments and policy changes inside and outside the organization**
- **Recognize and generate innovative solutions**
- **Develop alternative courses of action and choose the best course of action based on analysis of their relative costs and benefits**
- **Anticipate needs for action**
- **Relate and compare information from different sources to identify possible cause-and-effect relationships**
- **Consider the impact and implications of decisions on others and on situations**
- **Involve others in decisions and keep them informed of consequences that affect them**
- **Take charge when in charge**
- **Define intent**
- **Consider contingencies and their consequences**
- **Remain decisive after discovering a mistake**
- **Act in the absence of guidance**
- **Improvise within commander's intent; handle a fluid environment**

Motivating

Leaders who effectively motivate:

- **Inspire, encourage, and guide others toward mission accomplishment**
- **Don't show discouragement when facing setbacks**
- **Attempt to satisfy subordinates' needs**
- **Give subordinates the reason for tasks**
- **Provide accurate, timely, and (where appropriate) positive feedback**
- **Actively listen for feedback from subordinates**
- **Use feedback to modify duties, tasks, requirements, and goals when appropriate**
- **Recognize individual and team accomplishments and reward them appropriately**

- Recognize poor performance and address it appropriately
- Justly apply disciplinary measures
- Keep subordinates informed
- Clearly articulate expectations
- Consider duty positions, capabilities, and developmental needs when assigning tasks
- Provide early warning to subordinate leaders of tasks they will be responsible for
- Define requirements by issuing clear and concise orders or guidance
- Allocate as much time as possible for task completion
- Accept responsibility for organizational performance
- Credit subordinates for good performance
- Take responsibility for and correct poor performance

Operating

Leaders who effectively operate:

- Accomplish short-term missions
- Demonstrate tactical and technical competency appropriate to their rank and position
- Complete individual and unit tasks to standard, on time, and within the commander's intent

Planning and Preparing

Leaders who effectively plan:

- Develop feasible and acceptable plans for themselves and others that accomplish the mission while expending minimum resources and posturing the organization for future missions
- Use forward planning to ensure each course of action achieves the desired outcome
- Use reverse planning to ensure that all tasks can be executed in the time available and that tasks depending on other tasks are executed in the correct sequence
- Determine specified and implied tasks and restate the higher headquarters' mission in terms appropriate to the organization
- Incorporate adequate controls such as time phasing; ensure others understand when actions should begin or end
- Adhere to the "1/3 — 2/3 Rule"; give subordinates time to plan, 1/3 time for notice and 2/3 time to execution
- Allocate time to prepare and conduct rehearsals
- Ensure all courses of action accomplish the mission within the commander's intent
- Allocate available resources to competing demands by setting task priorities based on the relative importance of each task

- Address likely contingencies
- Remain flexible
- Consider SOPs, the factors of METT-TC, and the military aspects of terrain (OACOK)

Another acronym

The acronym OACOK stands for:

- **O- Observation**
- **A- Avenues of approach**
- **C- Cover & concealment**
- **O- obstacles**
- **K- Key Terrain**

- Coordinate plans with higher, lower, adjacent, and affected organizations
- Personally arrive on time and meet deadlines; require subordinates and their organizations to accomplish tasks on time
- Delegate all tasks except those that are required to do personally
- Schedule activities so the organization meets all commitments in critical performance areas
- Recognize and resolve scheduling conflicts
- Notify peers and subordinates as far in advance as possible when their support is required
- Use some form of a personal planning calendar to organize requirements

Executing

Leaders who effectively execute:

- Use technical and tactical skills to meet mission standards, take care of people, and accomplish the mission with available resources
- Perform individual and collective tasks to standard
- Execute plans, adjusting when necessary, to accomplish the mission
- Encourage initiative
- Keep higher and lower headquarters, superiors, and subordinates informed
- Keep track of people and equipment
- Make necessary on-the-spot corrections
- Adapt to and handle fluid environments
- Work through obstacles, difficulties, and hardships to accomplish the mission
- Keep track of task assignments and suspense's; adjust assignments, if necessary; follow up

Assessing

Leaders who effectively assess:

- Use assessment techniques and evaluation tools, especially After Action Reviews (AARs), to identify lessons learned and facilitate consistent improvement
- Establish and employ procedures for monitoring, coordinating, and regulating subordinates' actions and activities
- Conduct initial assessments when beginning a new task or assuming a new position
- Conduct In Progress Reviews (IPRs)
- Analyze activities to determine how desired end states are achieved or affected
- Seek sustainment in areas when the organization meets the standard
- Observe and assess actions in progress without over supervising
- Judge results based on standards
- Sort out important actual and potential problems
- Conduct and facilitate AARs; identify lessons
- Determine causes, effects, and contributing factors for problems
- Analyze activities to determine how desired end states can be achieved ethically

Improving

Leaders who effectively improve the organization:

- Sustain skills and actions that benefit themselves and each of their people for the future
- Sustain and renew the organization for the future by managing change and exploiting individual and institutional learning capabilities
- Create and sustain an environment where all leaders, subordinates, and organizations can reach their full potential

Developing

Leaders who effectively develop:

- Strive to improve themselves, subordinates, and the organization
- Mentor by investing adequate time and effort in **counseling**, coaching, and teaching their individual subordinates and subordinate leaders
- Set the example by displaying high standards of duty performance, personal appearance, military and professional bearing, and ethics
- Create a climate that expects good performance, recognizes superior performance, and doesn't accept poor performance
- Design tasks to provide practice in areas of subordinate leaders' weaknesses
- Clearly articulate tasks and expectations and set realistic standards

- Guide subordinate leaders in thinking through problems for themselves
- Anticipate mistakes and freely offer assistance without being overbearing
- Observe, assess, counsel, coach, and evaluate subordinate leaders
- Motivate subordinates to develop themselves
- Arrange training opportunities that help subordinates achieve insight, self-awareness, self-esteem, and effectiveness
- Balance the organization's tasks, goals, and objectives with subordinates' personal and professional needs
- Develop subordinate leaders who demonstrate respect for natural resources and the environment
- Act to expand and enhance subordinates' competence and self-confidence
- Encourage initiative
- Create and contribute to a positive organizational climate
- Build on successes
- Improve weaknesses

Building

Leaders who effectively build:

- Spend time and resources improving the organization
- Foster a healthy ethical climate
- Act to improve the organization's collective performance
- Comply with and support organizational goals
- Encourage people to work effectively with each other
- Promote teamwork and team achievement
- Are examples of team players
- Offer suggestions, but properly execute decisions of the chain of command and NCO (Non-Commission Officer) support channel — even unpopular ones — as if they were their own
- Accept and act on assigned tasks
- Volunteer in useful ways
- Remain positive when the situation becomes confused or changes
- Use the chain of command and NCO support channel to solve problems
- Support equal opportunity
- Prevent sexual harassment
- Participate in organizational activities and functions
- Participate in team tasks and missions without being requested to do so
- Establish an organizational climate that demonstrates respect for the environment and stewards natural resources

Learning

Leaders who effectively learn:

- Seek self-improvement in weak areas
- Encourage organizational growth
- Envision, adapt, and lead change
- Act to expand and enhance personal and organizational knowledge and capabilities
- Apply lessons learned
- Ask incisive questions
- Envision ways to improve
- Design ways to practice
- Endeavor to broaden their understanding
- Transform experience into knowledge and use it to improve future performance
- Make knowledge accessible to the entire organization
- Exhibit reasonable self-awareness
- Take time off to grow and recreate
- Embrace and manage change; adopt a future orientation
- Use experience to improve themselves and the organization

Developmental Counseling

Key Note Term

development – to get gradually stronger and better; to make known in detail.

Leadership **development** is one of the most important responsibilities. Developing your leadership abilities should be one of your highest priorities.

Leadership development reviews are a means to focus leadership growth. Think of them as AARs with a focus of making leaders more effective. These important reviews are not necessarily limited to internal counseling sessions; leadership feedback mechanisms also apply in operational settings such as the CTCs.

Just as training includes AARs and training strategies to fix shortcomings, leadership development includes performance reviews. These reviews result in agreements between leader and subordinate on a development strategy or plan of action that builds on the subordinate's strengths and establishes goals to improve on weaknesses. Leaders conduct performance reviews and create plans of action during developmental counseling.

Key Note Term

counseling – an interchange of opinions, perceptions, and ideas

Leadership development reviews are a component of the broader concept of developmental counseling. **Developmental counseling** is subordinate-centered communication that produces a plan outlining actions that subordinates must take to achieve individual and organizational goals. During developmental counseling,

subordinates are not merely passive listeners; they're actively involved in the process. The Developmental Counseling Form (DA Form 4856-E, which is discussed at the end of this section) provides a useful framework to prepare for almost any type of counseling. Use it to help you mentally organize issues and isolate important, relevant items to cover during counseling sessions.

Developmental counseling is a shared effort. As a leader, you assist your subordinates in identifying strengths and weaknesses and creating plans of action. You then support them throughout the plan implementation and assessment; however, to achieve success, your subordinates must be forthright in their commitment to improve and candid in their own assessment and goal setting.

The Leader's Responsibilities

Organizational readiness and mission accomplishment depend on every member's ability to perform to established standards. Leaders must mentor their subordinates through teaching, coaching, and counseling. Leaders coach subordinates the same way sports coaches improve their teams: by identifying weaknesses, setting goals, developing and implementing plans of action, and providing oversight and motivation throughout the process. To be effective coaches, leaders must thoroughly understand the strengths, weaknesses, and professional goals of their subordinates.

People often perceive counseling as an adverse action. Effective leaders who counsel properly can change that perception. Leaders conduct counseling to help subordinates become better members of the team, maintain or improve performance, and prepare for the future. Just as no easy answers exist for exactly what to do in all leadership situations, no easy answers exist for exactly what to do in all counseling situations. To conduct effective counseling, however, you should develop a counseling style with the characteristics as follows:

- **Purpose:** Clearly define the purpose of the counseling.
- **Flexibility:** Fit the counseling style to the character of each subordinate and to the relationship desired.
- **Respect:** View subordinates as unique, complex individuals, each with a distinct set of values, beliefs, and attitudes.
- **Communication:** Establish open, two-way communication with subordinates using spoken language, nonverbal actions, gestures, and body language. Effective counselors listen more than they speak.
- **Support:** Encourage subordinates through actions while guiding them through their problems.

The Leader as a Counselor

Cadet leaders must demonstrate certain qualities to be effective counselors. These qualities include respect for subordinates, self-awareness and cultural awareness, empathy, and credibility.

Key Note Term

flexibility –
adaptable to change

Respect for Subordinates

As a leader, you show respect for subordinates when you allow them to take responsibility for their own ideas and actions. Respecting subordinates helps create mutual respect in the leader-subordinate relationship. Mutual respect improves the chances of changing (or maintaining) behavior and achieving goals.

Self-awareness and Cultural Awareness

As a leader, you must be fully aware of your own values, needs, and biases prior to counseling subordinates. Self-aware leaders are less likely to project their biases onto subordinates. Also, aware leaders are more likely to act consistently with their own values and actions.

Cultural awareness is a mental attribute. As a leader, you need to be aware of the similarities and differences between individuals of different cultural backgrounds and how these factors may influence values, perspectives, and actions. Don't let unfamiliarity with cultural backgrounds hinder you in addressing cultural issues, especially if they generate concerns within the organization or hinder team-building. Cultural awareness enhances your ability to display empathy.

Empathy

Empathy is the action of being understanding of and sensitive to the feelings, thoughts, and experiences of another person to the point that you can almost feel or experience them yourself. Leaders with empathy can put themselves in their subordinate's shoes; they can see a situation from the other person's perspective.

By understanding the subordinate's position, you can help a subordinate develop a plan of action that fits the subordinate's personality and needs, one that works for the subordinate. If you don't fully comprehend a situation from your subordinate's point of view, you have less credibility and influence and your subordinate is less likely to commit to the agreed upon plan of action.

Credibility

Leaders achieve credibility by being honest and consistent in their statements and actions. To be credible, use a straightforward style with your subordinates. Behave in a manner that your subordinates respect and trust. You can earn credibility by repeatedly demonstrating your willingness to assist a subordinate and being consistent in what you say and do. If you lack credibility with your subordinates, you'll find it difficult to influence them.

Leader Counseling Skills

One challenging aspect of counseling is selecting the proper approach to a specific situation. To counsel effectively, the technique you use must fit the situation, your capabilities, and your subordinate's expectations. In some cases, you may only need to give information or listen. A subordinate's improvement may call for just a brief word of praise. Other situations may require structured counseling followed by definite actions.

All leaders should seek to develop and improve their own counseling abilities. You can improve your counseling techniques by studying human behavior, learning the kinds of problems that affect your subordinates, and developing your interpersonal skills. The techniques needed to provide effective counseling will vary from person to person and session to session; however, general skills that you'll need in almost every situation include active listening, responding, and questioning.

Active Listening

During counseling, you must actively listen to your subordinate. When you're actively listening, you communicate verbally and non-verbally that you've received the subordinate's message. To fully understand a subordinate's message, you must listen to the words and observe the subordinate's manners. Elements of active listening you should use include:

- **Eye contact.** Maintaining eye contact without staring helps show sincere interest. Occasional breaks of contact are normal and acceptable. Subordinates may perceive excessive breaks of eye contact, paper shuffling, and clock-watching as a lack of interest or concern. These are guidelines only. Based on cultural background, participants in a particular counseling session may have different ideas about what proper eye contact is.
- **Body posture.** Being relaxed and comfortable will help put the subordinate at ease. However, a too-relaxed position or slouching may be interpreted as a lack of interest.
- **Head nods.** Occasionally nodding your head shows you're paying attention and encourages the subordinate to continue.
- **Facial expressions.** Keep your facial expressions natural and relaxed. A blank look or fixed expression may disturb the subordinate. Smiling too much or frowning may discourage the subordinate from continuing.
- **Verbal expressions.** Refrain from talking too much and avoid interrupting. Let the subordinate do the talking while keeping the discussion on the counseling subject. Speaking only when necessary reinforces the importance of what the subordinate is saying and encourages the subordinate to continue. Silence can also do this, but be careful. Occasional silence may indicate to the subordinate that it's okay to continue talking, but a long silence can sometimes be distracting and make the subordinate feel uncomfortable.

Active listening also means listening thoughtfully and deliberately to the way a subordinate says things. Stay alert for common themes. A subordinate's opening and closing statements as well as recurring references may indicate the subordinate's priorities. Inconsistencies and gaps may indicate a subordinate's avoidance of the real issue. This confusion and uncertainty may suggest additional questions.

While listening, pay attention to the subordinate's gestures. These actions complete the total message. By watching the subordinate's actions, you can "see" the feelings behind the words. Not all actions are proof of a subordinate's feelings, but they should be taken into consideration. Note differences between what the subordinate says and does. Nonverbal indicators of a subordinate's attitude include:

- **Boredom.** Drumming on the table, doodling, clicking a ball-point pen, or resting the head in the palm of the hand.
- **Self-confidence.** Standing tall, leaning back with hands behind the head, and maintaining steady eye contact.
- **Defensiveness.** Pushing deeply into a chair, glaring at the leader, and making sarcastic comments as well as crossing or folding arms in front of the chest.
- **Frustration.** Rubbing eyes, pulling on an ear, taking short breaths, wringing the hands, or frequently changing total body position.
- **Interest, friendliness, and openness.** Moving toward the leader while sitting.
- **Openness or anxiety.** Sitting on the edge of the chair with arms uncrossed and hands open.

Consider these indicators carefully. Although each indicator may show something about the subordinate, don't assume a particular behavior absolutely means something. Ask the subordinate about the indicator so you can better understand the behavior and allow the subordinate to take responsibility for it.

Responding

Responding skills follow up on active listening skills. A leader responds to communicate that the leader understands the subordinate. From time to time, check your understanding: clarify and confirm what has been said. Respond to subordinates both verbally and nonverbally. Verbal responses consist of summarizing, interpreting, and clarifying the subordinate's message. Nonverbal responses include eye contact and occasional gestures such as a head nod.

Questioning

Although questioning is a necessary skill, you must use it with caution. Too many questions can aggravate the power differential between a leader and a subordinate and place the subordinate in a passive mode. The subordinate may also react to excessive questioning as an intrusion of privacy and become defensive. During a leadership development review, ask questions to obtain information or to get the subordinate to think about a particular situation. Generally, the questions should be open-ended so as to evoke more than a yes or no answer. Well-posed questions may help to verify understanding, encourage further explanation, or help the subordinate move through the stages of the counseling session.

Counseling Errors

Effective leaders avoid common counseling mistakes. Dominating the counseling by talking too much, giving unnecessary or inappropriate "advice," not truly listening, and projecting personal likes, dislikes, biases, and prejudices all interfere with effective counseling. You should also avoid other common mistakes such as rash judgments, stereotypes, loss of emotional control, and inflexible methods of counseling and improper follow-up. To improve your counseling skills, refer to the following guidelines.

- Determine the subordinate's role in the situation and what the subordinate has done to resolve the problem or improve performance.
- Draw conclusions based on more than the subordinate's statement.
- Try to understand what the subordinate says and feels; listen to what the subordinate says and how the subordinate says it.
- Show empathy when discussing the problem.
- When asking questions, be sure that you need the information.
- Keep the conversation open-ended; avoid interrupting.
- Give the subordinate your full attention.
- Be receptive to the subordinate's feelings without feeling responsible to save the subordinate from hurting.
- Encourage the subordinate to take the initiative and to say what the subordinate wants to say.
- Avoid interrogating.
- Keep your personal experiences out of the counseling session unless you believe your experiences will really help.
- Listen more; talk less.
- Remain objective.
- Avoid confirming a subordinate's prejudices.
- Help the subordinate help himself.
- Know what information to keep confidential and what to present to the chain of command.

The Leader's Limitations

Leaders can't help everyone in every situation. Even professional counselors can't provide all the help that a person might need. You must recognize your limitations and, when the situation calls for it, refer a subordinate to a person or agency more qualified to help.

Types of Developmental Counseling

You can often categorize developmental counseling based on the topic of the session. The two major categories of counseling are event-oriented and performance/professional growth.

Event-oriented Counseling

Event-oriented counseling involves a specific event or situation. It may precede events, such as going to a promotion board or attending a school; or it may follow events, such as a noteworthy duty performance, a problem with performance or mission accomplishment, or a personal problem. Examples of event-oriented counseling include, but are not limited to:

- Specific instances of superior or substandard performance.
- Reception and integration counseling.
- Crisis counseling.
- Referral counseling.
- Promotion counseling.
- Adverse separation counseling.

Counseling for Specific Instances

Sometimes counseling is tied to specific instances of superior or substandard duty performance. You tell your subordinate whether or not the performance met the standard and what the subordinate did right or wrong. The key to successful counseling for specific performance is to conduct it as close to the event as possible.

Many leaders focus counseling for specific instances on poor performance and miss, or at least fail to acknowledge, excellent performance. You should counsel subordinates for specific examples of superior as well as substandard duty performance. To measure your own performance and counseling emphasis, you can note how often you document counseling for superior versus substandard performance.

You should counsel subordinates who don't meet the standard. If the subordinate's performance is unsatisfactory because of a lack of knowledge or ability, you and the subordinate should develop a plan to improve the subordinate's skills. Corrective training may be required at times to ensure the subordinate knows and achieves the standard. After the subordinate can achieve the standard, you should end the corrective training.

When counseling a subordinate for a specific performance, take the following actions:

- Tell the subordinate the **purpose** of the counseling, what was expected, and how the subordinate failed to meet the standard.
- Address the specific unacceptable behavior or action, not the person's character.
- Tell the subordinate the effect of the behavior, action, or performance on the rest of the organization.
- Actively listen to the subordinate's response.
- Remain unemotional.
- Teach the subordinate how to meet the standard.
- Be prepared to do some personal counseling because a failure to meet the standard may be related to or the result of an unresolved personal problem.
- Explain to the subordinate what will be
- Identify your responsibilities in implementing the plan of action; continue to assess and follow up on the subordinate's progress. Adjust plan of action as necessary.

Key Note Term

purpose – a desirable end or aim.

Reception and Integration Counseling

As the leader, you must counsel new team members. This reception and integration counseling serves two purposes: it identifies and helps fix any problems or concerns that new members may have, and it lets them know the standards and how they fit into the team. It clarifies job titles and sends the message that the chain of command cares. Reception and integration counseling should begin immediately upon arrival so new team members can quickly become integrated into the organization.

Crisis Counseling

You may conduct crisis counseling to get a subordinate through the initial shock after receiving negative news, such as notification of the death of a loved one. You may assist the subordinate by listening and, as appropriate, providing assistance. Assistance may include referring the subordinate to a **support** activity or coordinating external agency support. Crisis counseling focuses on the subordinate's immediate, short-term needs.

Key Note Term

support – to encourage or help.

Referral Counseling

Referral counseling helps subordinates work through a personal situation and may or may not follow crisis counseling. Referral counseling may also act as preventative counseling before the situation becomes a problem.

Promotion Counseling

Leaders conduct promotion counseling for all who are eligible for advancement.

Adverse Separation Counseling

Adverse separation counseling may involve informing the cadet of the administrative actions available to the commander in the event substandard performance continues and of the consequences associated with those administrative actions.

Developmental counseling may not apply when an individual has engaged in more serious acts of misconduct. In those situations, you should refer the matter to the commander. When the leader's rehabilitative efforts fail, counseling with a view towards separation fills an administrative prerequisite to many administrative discharges and serves as a final warning to the soldier to improve performance or face discharge. In many situations, it may be beneficial to involve the chain of command as soon as you determine that adverse separation counseling might be required. A unit first sergeant or commander should be the person who informs the cadet of the notification requirements.

Performance and Professional Growth Counseling

Performance and Professional Growth counseling are two counseling types with which you should be familiar. This section discusses both of these.

Key Note Term

evaluation – to appraise or find the value of.

Performance Counseling

During performance counseling, you conduct an **evaluation**, a review of a subordinate's duty performance during a certain period. You and the subordinate jointly establish performance objectives and standards for the next period. Rather than dwelling on the past, you should focus the session on the subordinate's strengths, areas needing improvement, and potential.

As a leader, you must ensure you've tied your expectations to performance objectives and appropriate standards. You must establish standards that your subordinates can work towards and must teach them how to achieve the standards if they are to develop.

Professional Growth Counseling

Professional growth counseling includes planning for the accomplishment of individual and professional goals. You conduct this counseling to assist subordinates in achieving organizational and individual goals. During the counseling, you and your subordinate conduct a review to identify and discuss the subordinate's strengths and weaknesses and create a plan of action to build upon strengths and overcome weaknesses. This counseling isn't normally event-driven.

As part of professional growth counseling, you may choose to discuss and develop a "pathway to success" with the subordinate. This future-oriented counseling establishes short and long-term goals and objectives. Every person's needs are different, and leaders must apply specific courses of action tailored to each individual.

A counseling session that focuses on resolving a problem may also address improving performance. A session focused on performance may also include a discussion on opportunities for advancement.

Nondirective

The nondirective approach is preferred for most counseling sessions. Leaders use their experienced insight and judgment to assist subordinates in developing solutions. You should partially structure this type of counseling by telling the subordinate about the counseling process and explaining what you expect.

During the counseling session, listen rather than make decisions or give advice. Clarify what's said. Cause the subordinate to bring out important points, so as to better understand the situation. When appropriate, summarize the discussion. Avoid providing solutions or rendering opinions; instead, maintain a focus on individual and organizational goals and objectives. Ensure the subordinate's plan of action supports those goals and objectives.

Table 4.2.1: Advantages of non-directive, directive, and combined counseling

Nondirective	Directive	Combined
Encourages maturity	Doesn't encourage subordinates to be part of the solution	Encourages maturity
More time-consuming	Quickest method	Moderately quick, but may take too much time for some situations
Encourages open communication	Tends to discourage subordinates from talking freely	Encourages open communication
Develops personal responsibility	Good for people who need clear, concise direction	
Requires greatest counselor skill	Solution is the counselor's, not the subordinate's	Allows counselors to actively use their experience
Tends to treat symptoms, not problems		

Directive

The directive approach works best to correct simple problems, make on-the-spot corrections, and correct aspects of duty performance. The leader using the directive style does most of the talking and tells the subordinate what to do and when to do it. In contrast to the nondirective approach, the leader directs a course of action for the subordinate.

Choose this approach when time is short, when you alone know what to do, or if a subordinate has limited problem-solving skills. It's also appropriate when a subordinate needs guidance, is immature, or is insecure.

Combined

In the combined approach, the leader uses techniques from both the directive and nondirective approaches, adjusting them to articulate what's best for the subordinate. The combined approach emphasizes the subordinate's planning and decision-making.

With your assistance, the subordinate develops their own plan of action. You should listen, suggest possible courses, and help analyze each possible solution to determine its good and bad points. You should then help the subordinate fully understand all aspects of the situation and encourage the subordinate to decide which solution is best.

Counseling Techniques

As a leader, you may select from a variety of techniques when counseling subordinates. These counseling techniques, when appropriately used, cause subordinates to do things or improve upon their performance. You can use these methods during scheduled counseling sessions or while simply coaching a subordinate. Counseling techniques you can use during the nondirective or combined approaches include:

- **Suggesting alternatives.** Discuss alternative actions that the subordinate may take, but both you and the subordinate decide which course of action is most appropriate.
- **Recommending.** Recommend one course of action, but leave the decision to accept the recommended action to the subordinate.
- **Persuading.** Persuade the subordinate that a given course of action is best, but leave the decision to the subordinate. Successful persuasion depends on the leader's credibility, the subordinate's willingness to listen, and their mutual trust.
- **Advising.** Advise the subordinate that a given course of action is best. This is the strongest form of influence not involving a command.

Some techniques you can use during the directive approach to counseling include:

- **Corrective training.** Teach and assist the subordinate in attaining and maintaining the standards. The subordinate completes corrective training when they attain the standard.
- **Commanding.** Order the subordinate to take a given course of action in clear, exact words. The subordinate understands that he has been given a command and will face the consequences for failing to carry it out.

The Counseling Process

Effective leaders use the counseling process. It consists of four stages: identify the need for counseling, prepare for counseling, conduct counseling, and follow up.

Identify the Need for Counseling

Quite often organizational policies, such as counseling associated with an evaluation or counseling required by the command, focus a counseling session. You may, however, conduct developmental counseling whenever the need arises for focused, two-way communication aimed at subordinate development. Developing subordinates consists of observing the subordinate's performance, comparing it to the standard, and then providing feedback to the subordinate in the form of counseling.

Prepare for Counseling

Successful counseling requires preparation. To prepare for counseling, do the following:

- **Select a suitable place.**
- **Schedule the time.**
- **Notify the subordinate well in advance.**
- **Organize information.**
- **Outline the counseling session components.**
- **Plan your counseling strategy.**
- **Establish the right atmosphere.**

Select a Suitable Place

Schedule counseling in an environment that minimizes interruptions and is free from distracting sights and sounds.

Schedule the Time

When possible, counsel a subordinate during the duty day. Counseling after duty hours may be rushed or perceived as unfavorable. The length of time required for counseling depends on the complexity of the issue. Generally, a counseling session should last less than an hour. If you need more time, schedule a second session. Additionally, select a time free from competition with other activities and consider what has been planned after the counseling session. Important events can distract a subordinate from concentrating on the counseling.

Notify the Subordinate Well in Advance

For a counseling session to be a subordinate-centered, two-person effort, the subordinate must have time to prepare for it. The subordinate should know why, where, and when the counseling will take place. Counseling following a specific event should happen as close to the event as possible; however, for performance or professional development counseling, subordinates may need a week or more to prepare or review specific products, such as support forms or counseling records.

Organize Information

Solid preparation is essential to effective counseling. Review all pertinent information. This includes the purpose of the counseling, facts and observations about the subordinate, identification of possible problems, main points of discussion, and the development of a plan of action. Focus on specific and objective behaviors that the sub-ordinate must maintain or improve as well as a plan of action with clear, obtainable goals.

Outline the Components of the Counseling Session

Using the information obtained, determine what to discuss during the counseling session. Note what prompted the counseling, what you aim to achieve, and what your role as a counselor is. Identify possible comments or questions to help you keep the counseling session subordinate-centered and help the subordinate progress through its stages. Although you never know what a subordinate will say or do during counseling, a written outline helps organize the session and enhances the chance of positive results.

Plan Counseling Strategy

As many approaches to counseling exist as there are leaders. The directive, nondirective, and combined approaches to counseling were addressed earlier. Use a strategy that suits your subordinates and the situation.

Establish the Right Atmosphere

The right atmosphere promotes two-way communication between a leader and subordinate. To establish a relaxed atmosphere, you may offer the subordinate a seat or a something to drink. You may want to sit in a chair facing the subordinate since a desk can act as a barrier.

Some situations make an informal atmosphere inappropriate. For example, during counseling to correct substandard performance, you may direct the subordinate to remain standing while you remain seated behind a desk. This formal atmosphere, normally used to give specific guidance, reinforces the leader's rank, position in the chain of command, and authority.

Conduct the Counseling Session

Be flexible when conducting a counseling session. Often counseling for a specific incident occurs spontaneously as leaders encounter subordinates in their daily activities. Good leaders take advantage of naturally occurring events to provide subordinates with feedback.

Even when you haven't prepared for formal counseling, you should address the four basic components of a counseling session. Their purpose is to guide effective counseling rather than mandate a series of rigid steps. Counseling sessions consist of:

- **Opening the session.**
- **Developing the plan of action.**
- **Recording and closing the session.**

Ideally, a counseling session results in a subordinate's commitment to a plan of action. Assessment of the plan of action becomes the starting point for follow-up counseling.

Open the Session

In the session opening, state the purpose of the session and establish a subordinate-centered setting. Establish the preferred setting early in the session by inviting the subordinate to speak. The best way to open a counseling session is to clearly state its purpose. For example, an appropriate purpose statement might be: “The purpose of this counseling is to discuss your duty performance over the past month and to create a plan to enhance performance and attain performance goals.” If applicable, start the counseling session by reviewing the status of the previous plan of action.

You and the subordinate should attempt to develop a mutual understanding of the issues. You can best develop this by letting the subordinate do most of the talking. Use active listening; respond, and question without dominating the conversation. Aim to help the subordinate better understand the subject of the counseling, for example, duty performance, a problem situation and its impact, or potential areas for growth.

Both you and the subordinate should provide examples or cite specific observations to reduce the perception that either is unnecessarily biased or judgmental; however, when the issue is substandard performance, you should provide the standard. The conversation, which should be two-way, then addresses what the subordinate needs to do to meet the standard. It’s important that you define the issue as substandard performance and don’t allow the subordinate to define the issue as an unreasonable standard, unless you consider the standard negotiable or are willing to alter the conditions under which the subordinate is being counseled.

Develop a Plan of Action

A plan of action identifies a method for achieving a desired result. It specifies what the subordinate must do to reach the goals set during dimensions that were discussed earlier: it should show the subordinate how to modify or maintain his behavior. It should avoid vague intentions such as “Next month I want you to improve your land navigation skills.” The plan must use concrete and direct terms. For example, you might say: “Next week you’ll attend the map reading class with cadets from North Central High School’s drill team. After the class, Cadet 1st Lieutenant Dixon will coach you through the land navigation course. He will help you develop your skill with the compass. I will observe you going through the course with Cadet 1st Lieutenant Dixon, and then I will talk to you again and determine where and if you still feel the plan of action sets the stage for successful development.”

Record and Close the Session

Although requirements to record counseling sessions vary, a leader always benefits by documenting the main points of a counseling session. Documentation serves as a reference to the agreed upon plan of action and the subordinate’s accomplishments, improvements, personal preferences, or problems. A complete record of counseling aids in making recommendations for professional development, schools, promotions, and evaluation reports.

To close the session, summarize its key points and ask if the subordinate understands the plan of action. Invite the subordinate to review the plan of action and what's expected of you, the leader. With the subordinate, establish any follow-up measures necessary to support the successful implementation of the plan of action. These may include providing the subordinate with resources and time, periodically assessing the plan, and following through on referrals. Schedule any future meetings, at least tentatively, before dismissing the subordinate.

Follow Up

The counseling process doesn't end with the counseling session. It continues through implementation of the plan of action and evaluation of results. After counseling, you must support subordinates as they implement their plans of action. Support may include teaching, coaching, or providing time and resources. You must observe and assess this process and possibly modify the plan to meet its goals. Appropriate measures after counseling include follow-up counseling, making referrals, informing the chain of command, and taking corrective measures.

Assess the Plan of Action

The purpose of counseling is to develop subordinates who are better able to achieve personal, professional, and organizational goals. During the assessment, review the plan of action with the subordinate to determine if the desired results were achieved. You and the subordinate should determine the date for this assessment during the initial counseling session. The assessment of the plan of action provides useful information for future follow-up counseling sessions.

Conclusion

This lesson covered performance indicators as well as developmental counseling. Developmental counseling is subordinate-centered communication that outlines actions necessary for subordinates to achieve individual and organizational goals and objectives. It can be either event-oriented, or focused on personal and professional development.

Lesson Review

1. What are the values upon which you base your performance review?
2. Choose two “planning and preparing” actions on which performance reviews are based and discuss them.
3. What are the different skills needed in oral and written communication?
4. What are the characteristics upon which you should develop your counseling style?

Lesson 3

Negotiating



Key Terms

negotiation
principled negotiation

What You Will Learn to Do

- Negotiate a win/win solution for a given situation

Linked Core Abilities

- Communicate using verbal, non-verbal, visual, and written techniques
- Treat self and others with respect
- Apply critical thinking techniques

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain along the Way

- Explain how trust and betrayal affects relationships
- Discuss the effects of competition and collaboration in relationships
- Explore the effects of win-lose, win-win, and lose-lose strategies in negotiations
- Define key words contained in this lesson

Introduction

Negotiation is a way of life; you are involved in it every day—when you negotiate with your parents on how late you can stay out, with your teachers for a make up test, with your boss for a raise, or with your friends when deciding which movie to go to. Earlier in your JROTC classes, communication and working out conflict were discussed. They are important elements to the negotiating process. This lesson covers an effective way to negotiate to a win/win solution.

Key Note Term

negotiation – an attempt to reach a win/win agreement.

Fair Negotiations

Most often as two people begin to discuss their differences they begin with their position. What they believe in and what they want from the discussion. After you have determined what your position is, you go about arguing for it — even demand it. It is from that point you begin to compromise and barter away at your demands and walk away unsatisfied, angry, and feeling like a loser. On the other side, if you yelled loud enough and long enough and you were able to beat down your opponent, you might walk away with all your demands and feeling successful in the process. However, you notice your relationship with this person has degenerated and you feel sad about having lost a friend or classmate.

When you negotiate, you want to be fair. The criteria for fair negotiations include producing a wise agreement, being efficient, and improving or at least not damaging the relationship.

If you argue over positions that you have not taken the time to explore other alternatives for, the decision you come up with may not be the best available solution. When you argue over positions you are not being efficient because you are not listening to each other and most likely repeating your position over and over. You are not moving forward to solutions. When you argue over positions, the relationship can be damaged. Anger sets in and words are said and often not forgotten. You might win this battle, but you also might lose the war.

Principled negotiation is neither soft (giving in) or hard (controlling). It is based on the criteria for fair negotiations and focused on a win/win for all parties. If a win/win is not possible at the time of negotiations, you can agree to have a win/win or no deal, set aside the negotiations and return at a time that the parties can search for the third alternative.

When using soft negotiations the participants are friends, seeking agreement, making concessions, trusting others, changing positions easily, accepting giving things up to reach an agreement, and yielding to pressure. When using hard negotiations the participants are adversaries, maintain the goal of victory, demand concessions from others, distrust others, try to win a contest of will and apply pressure.

Principled centered negotiations are neither soft nor hard. They are the third alternative to negotiations and are focused on win/win situations.

Key Note Term

principled negotiation – negotiations based on the criteria for fair negotiations and focused on a win/win outcome.

Principled centered negotiations have four basic points:

- **People** — separate the people from the problem.
- **Interests** — focus on interests, not positions.
- **Options** — generate as many as you can.
- **Criteria** — results are based on an agreed upon set of objectives or standards.

Some ways to keep focused on win/win principled center negotiations are:

- Have clear goals, understood and agreed upon. Use the goals to test whether issues are relevant or not.
- Be on the lookout for win/lose. It can develop subtly. If you feel under attack, or feel yourself lining up support, you are likely in a win/lose contest.
- Listen empathetically to others. Stop yourself from working on counter arguments while another person is speaking. Take the risk of being persuaded. Try the other person's reasoning on for size.
- Avoid absolute statements that leave no room for modification. "I think this is the way . . ." is better than "This is THE ONLY way . . ."
- If you are planning for others, provide some means for their involvement. The doers should feel that they can have influence on decisions that affect them.
- Try to make decisions by consensus rather than by victory of the majority.
- Test to see that trade-offs and compromises are truly accepted by all.
- Draw a continuum line and have members place themselves on it regarding the issue. It often occurs that the different "sides" are not far apart.
- Be alert to selling or winning strategies in others and avoid using them yourself. "Any intelligent person can see the advantages . . ." would be a danger signal.

When the parties involved in the negotiation first identify the outcome, discuss interests, begin to generate possibilities to reach the outcome, and ensure the interests of each party are met, then the relationships will either be maintained or increased, there will be a wise agreement and the parties would have used their time efficiently.

What would you do?

You and your friends are planning for the weekend. There has been discussion around going to the movies, renting a movie and watching it at someone's home with popcorn and soda, going ice-skating or attending the football team's practice game. You and your friends have been discussing these options all week. It is now Friday and time to decide what you will do. You really want to go to the practice game because your younger brother is on the team and you want to support him. Your best friend wants to watch a movie at someone's home because he does not have enough money to go out to a movie or ice skate. There is a long awaited movie on at the theater that your other friend has been waiting to see. Although everyone likes to ice skate, none of your friends are pushing hard for that.

How would you negotiate a win/win situation with your friends?

Conclusion

This lesson showed that negotiation is a way of life. You are involved in it every day. As discussed in previous JROTC classes, communication and working out conflict are important elements to the negotiating process. The key concepts to put into practice from this lesson are the effective ways to negotiate to a win/win solution.

Lesson Review

1. What are the four basic points for principled, centered negotiations?
2. What are the criteria for fair negotiations?
3. Discuss how you have participated in a negotiation with family or friends. What was the outcome?
4. What are the differences between hard and soft negotiations?

Chapter 4

Lesson 4

Decision Making and Problem Solving



Key Terms

cohesive
contingencies
improving
influencing
intuitions
non-judgments
objectively
operating

What You Will Learn to Do

- Solve a problem using the seven-step problem-solving process

Linked Core Abilities

- Communicate using verbal, non-verbal, visual, and written techniques
- Apply critical thinking techniques

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain along the Way

- Describe the seven-step problem-solving process
- Describe the decision-making process
- Describe behaviors that contribute to or block efforts to solve a group problem
- Define key words contained in this lesson

Introduction—Putting Your Leadership Skills in Perspective

As indicated throughout your previous JROTC lessons, leadership is the process of **influencing** others by providing purpose, direction, and motivation while **operating** to accomplish the mission and **improving** the organization. Purpose gives subordinates a reason why they should do different things, sometimes under stressful circumstances. Direction shows what must be done. Through motivation, leaders give subordinates the will to do everything they are capable of doing to accomplish a mission.

Leadership Framework

Recall the fundamentals of *BE*, *KNOW*, and *DO*. As you can clearly see in Figure 4.4.1, they are deeply embedded throughout the leadership framework. The top of this framework shows the four categories of things that leaders must *BE*, *KNOW*, and *DO*. They are values, attributes, skills, and actions. The bottom lists the dimensions of leadership, grouped under these four categories. The dimensions consist of the seven values and 15 subcategories under attributes, skills, and actions.

Leadership starts at the top, with the character of the leader—with your character. To lead others, you must first ensure your own house is in order.

The leadership framework is a tool that will allow you to think about leadership as a whole. The dimensions each contain components that are all interrelated — none stands alone. This framework will help you to put your job, your followers, and your unit into perspective. Think about it in this manner:

Key Note Term

influencing – to exercise or have physical or moral influence on.

operating – to work, function; to conduct or manage.

improving – to make better.



Figure 4.4.1: Values and subcategories.

Be, Know, Do

BE a leader of character. Embrace the values and demonstrate the leader attributes. Study and practice so that you will have the skills to **KNOW** your job. Then act — **DO** what is right to achieve excellence.

Approaches to Decision-Making and Problem-Solving

Key Note Term

cohesive – sticking together.

A leader is expected to get the job done. To do so, he or she must learn to plan, analyze situations, identify and solve problems (or potential problems), make decisions, and set realistic and attainable goals for the unit. These are the thinking or creative requirements of leadership and they set direction. These actions provide vision, purpose, and goal definition. They are your eyes to the future, and they are crucial to developing a disciplined, **cohesive**, and effective organization.

Decision-making and problem-solving are basic ingredients of leadership. More than anything else, the ability to make sound, timely decisions separates a leader from a non-leader. It is the responsibility of leaders to make high-quality decisions that are accepted and executed in a timely fashion.

Leaders must be able to reason under the most critical conditions and decide quickly what action to take. If they delay or avoid making a decision, this indecisiveness may create hesitancy, loss of confidence, and confusion within the unit, and may cause the task to fail. Because leaders are frequently faced with unexpected circumstances, it is important to be flexible — leaders must be able to react promptly to each situation; then, when circumstances dictate a change in plans, prompt reaction builds confidence in them.

Within business and the military today, leaders at all levels use some form of a decision-making, problem-solving process. There are at least several different approaches (or models) for decision-making and problem-solving. This lesson presents three such approaches: The most common is the seven-step problem-solving, decision-making process; next is a more complex problem-solving model; and finally is a simplified decision-making process.

Seven-step Problem-solving, Decision-making Process

Having a logical thought process helps ensure that you will not neglect key factors that could influence the problem, and ultimately your decision. In fact, you should always apply a clear, logical thought process to all leadership situations that you encounter. The seven-step process is an excellent tool that can guide you in solving problems and making those sound and timely decisions. The seven steps are:

1. **Identify (recognize/define) the problem.**
2. **Gather information (facts/assumptions).**
3. **Develop courses of action (solutions).**
4. **Analyze and compare courses of action (alternatives/solutions).**
5. **Make a decision; select the best course of action (solution).**
6. **Make a plan.**
7. **Implement the plan (assess the results).**

Identify the Problem

Being able to accurately identify the nature of a problem is a crucial undertaking. All leadership problems, whether they involve a work-related situation or a counseling session, are exploratory in nature — that is, leaders do not always identify the right cause of a problem or develop the best plan. In fact, two of the most common errors of leaders are identifying the wrong problem and identifying the wrong causes of a problem. Plus, the tendency for leaders to make mental errors increases as their levels of stress increase. Everyone makes mistakes. If leaders are given false information, it may lead them to incorrect problem identification and to incorrect assumptions about the causes of a problem. If leaders then fail to determine the true source of a problem, they may develop an inadequate plan.

Learn to identify the real problems. Consider all angles. Learn to seek only accurate information that leads to the real causes of a problem. To ensure that information is accurate, question its validity. In other words, leaders must take what accurate information they have, use their best judgment, and make educated assumptions about the causes of a problem. They then must consider the courses of action that will be most likely to succeed.

Gather Information

In this step, leaders must gather all available information that pertains to or can influence the situation (identified problem) from sources such as higher, lateral, and subordinate levels of command as well as from applicable outside agencies. Although some of the information may not bear on the problem at hand, it must be available for leaders to consider when developing and analyzing courses of action.

The amount of available time in a leadership situation can be a limiting factor on how much time a leader spends performing the various steps of the problem-solving, decision-making process. If time is extremely limited, this is the only step that leaders may omit so they can quickly think through the remaining steps.

Develop Courses of Action

With the problem identified and available information gathered, you are now ready to develop possible courses of action. Keep an open mind throughout this step and be prepared to anticipate change. “Sixty percent (of good problem-solving) is the ability to anticipate; 40 percent . . . is the ability to improvise, to reject a preconceived idea . . . , and to rule by action instead of acting by rules.” (*S.L.A. Marshall*)

Think of as many “what-ifs” as you can and prepare for them — do not be surprised. The laws of probability are strongly in favor of surprise. Develop courses of actions to counteract events that might hinder accomplishment of your mission. Conducting “brainstorming” sessions is a good technique to use when there is difficulty in developing courses of action. Brainstorming is a creative technique that encourages several people to suggest as many solutions to a problem as possible. Generally, you want to have at least two or three possible courses of action — more if the situation dictates and time permits.

Analyze and Compare Courses of Action

The next step is to determine which course of action will best solve the problem. Therefore, leaders should develop as many advantages and disadvantages for each course of action as possible. Then, they must **objectively** and logically analyze the advantages and disadvantages of each one against the advantages and disadvantages of the others.

Up to this point in the problem-solving, decision-making process, leaders should have involved subordinates to research the problem, gather information, and develop and analyze the various courses of action. *Subordinates are more likely to support a plan or decision if they took part in its development.* This technique will pay off in terms of increased interest, higher morale, and better efficiency by team members.

Make a Decision

After you have carefully analyzed the possible courses of action using all available information, consider your **intuitions** and emotions. The decision-making process is not a purely objective, mathematical formula. The human mind does not work that way, especially under stress. Instead, the mind is both rational and intuitive, and since the decision-making process is a thought process, it is also both rational and intuitive. Your intuition is that aspect of your mind that tells you what “feels” right or wrong. Your intuition flows from your instincts and experience.

However, never make the mistake of making decisions guided totally by emotions or intuitions and immediately doing what “feels” right. *This is a prescription for disaster.* Follow the problem-solving process as rationally and objectively as possible. Gather information; then develop, analyze, and compare courses of action. Consider your intuition or hunches, emotions, and values. Try to identify a “best” course of action that is logical and likely to succeed and that also “feels” right in terms of your intuition, values, and character. Finally, make your decision, make a plan, and take action.

Make a Plan

Make a plan that includes who would do what, when, where, how, and why. Be as specific as time permits, but do not leave out vital information that could prevent mission accomplishment. Plus, ensure that you specify the what, when, where, how and why for all personnel or elements under your authority. Finally, include **contingencies** in your plan that address possible unexpected situations or actions. Develop these contingencies based on the assumptions made when you identified the problem and gathered available information.

Key Note Term

objectively – without prejudice.

Key Note Term

intuitions – instinctive knowledge or feeling; immediate perceptions.

Key Note Term

contingencies – chances or possible occurrences.

As you did when developing the courses of action, be prepared to anticipate change. The ability to make appropriate changes in decisions and plans requires a certain flexibility of mind — a crucial trait of a good problem-solver, decision-maker, and planner.

Implement the Plan

After the decision and plan are made, it is time to act. In this final step, you must put the plan into action and then evaluate it to ensure that the desired results are being achieved. Evaluation is often a neglected step in the decision-making process.

Note:

President Harry S. Truman kept a plaque on his desk with the inscription “The buck stops here.” Truman was one of America’s most honest and ethical presidents. He never flinched from accepting responsibility for his decisions, however unpopular or controversial.

Approaches to the Planning Process

Planning is the cornerstone of all other functions — what goes on in planning affects what is done in the remaining functions. There is an old saying that has proven itself time and time again: “*If you fail to plan, you plan to fail; plan your work, then work your plan.*”

Planning is also the basis for the problem-solving, decision-making process. Leaders spend many hours planning the activities of their organization. In doing so, they must consider the missions and objectives of their unit and how they are going to best accomplish them.

Every activity in which you take part during the day requires some degree of planning and at least one person to do that planning. Naturally, depending upon the activity, some aspects of it may require more planning (and more people) than other aspects. Therefore, performing detailed, careful planning should be like a habit — it should be automatic and continuous throughout the activity. Just like in the problem-solving, decision-making process, there are specific steps that you should follow when planning. Likewise, there is more than one planning process. This lesson presents two of the more common approaches to planning: the four-step planning process and the (seven-step) planning wheel.

Four-step Planning Process

When planning, leaders must visualize, consider, and examine all the factors involved in accomplishing a mission. Planning is not an easy process and it requires a lot of work. The first approach to planning consists of four basic steps that can help leaders to focus on the essential information when planning an activity. These four steps are:

1. **Define the objective.**
2. **Study the current situation.**
3. **List and examine possible courses of action.**
4. **Select the course of action that will best help to achieve the objective.**

Simply stated, there are two primary purposes of planning: selecting an objective and deciding on how to accomplish it. In the four-step planning process, step one addresses the first purpose; the remaining steps show how you can use planning to reach your objective.

Define the Objective

In this step, leaders begin to define or break down their primary objective by determining the various *tasks*, *conditions*, and *standards* that are necessary to complete it.

Defining the objective sounds easy; everybody knows what they want to do. If you are in business, you might say, “I want to make a profit.” That is a good objective, but there is more to it than that. How much profit do you want to make? When do you want to make it?

There is more to setting an objective than just saying what you want (or would like) to do or what a supervisor wants you to do. Be specific. Ensure that subordinates have a clear understanding of the objective so that everyone will be working to accomplish the same thing.

Defining the objective so that it indicates what action is required is the first part of clearly identifying the *task*. Everyone involved must know exactly what they must do to accomplish the objective. Additionally, use words that describe the action that must be done, such as to “sell” so many items, “fill out” so many forms, or “build” a bridge.

Next, identify any *conditions* that describe the circumstances under which you must perform the objective. For example, say you are a member of a junior band and the group wants to meet 95 percent of the requirements (*standard*) necessary to become senior-band members (*task*). The circumstances or conditions are those factors that you must plan for to ensure task accomplishment (such as obtaining sheet music, having the correct mix of instruments, rehearsing, and so on for our example).

Finally, state the objective in a way that makes it measurable. If an objective does not have a measurable *standard*, how will you know when you have accomplished it? Think back to the objective of “making a profit.” When have you achieved this objective? Is it when you make \$1? . . . \$50? . . . \$100? By stating your objective in measurable terms, you will know when you have reached it.

Defining the objective is a critical step. Without a well-defined objective, it would be difficult to complete the remaining steps of the planning process. After you are satisfied with the objective, proceed to the next step.

Study the Current Situation

You are now ready to study the situation that can affect or influence your ability to accomplish the objective. Stop and look at what you have to work with: How much *time* do you have? How many *people* will help you? What kind of *supplies* do you have? What other *resources* are available to help you?

Next, identify any barriers or obstacles that may stand between you and your goal. Some of these barriers may be a lack of time, people, supplies, and/or other resources.

As you can see, studying the current situation involves a systematic process of defining tasks and arranging resources with respect to mission accomplishment. You should consider five factors when performing this step: effective use of time; identification of subtasks, people, and resources; and setting priorities.

Time

Time is an important factor. You must consider time when you plan events, meet deadlines, and set goals; then you must make plans and execute tasks according to an established time schedule. Effective leaders will schedule their time and the activities of their team to meet these events, deadlines, and goals. You must also ensure that your team members can do all of the tasks within the specified time frame.

Tasks

Identify all the tasks and sub-tasks that your team must do to accomplish the objective. Be specific. Develop detailed lists to record them and, just as you did in defining the objective, set measurable standards for each task and subtask.

People

After you have a detailed list of tasks/subtasks, determine if you have enough people to do the job. Tentatively match someone to each task/subtask. Base your selection on what each task/subtask requires versus the capabilities of your team members and on how many people (man hours) you will need to accomplish the objective.

Set Priorities

You will always have some tasks that are more important than others or you must start them before others because of how difficult they are. In these situations, plan a to-do list in terms of priority for every task and subtask you have identified. Determine which ones your team must do first, second, and so on until you have included everything necessary to carry out the plan. Establish priorities in categories such as priority A, priority B, priority C, and so on, for each item on the to-do list. Do the A priorities first, then the Bs, the Cs, and so on.

Resources

Identify all resources that are necessary to complete the objective. Determine what is and what is not available; then, before you begin work, set aside what is on hand for later use and make arrangements to obtain the items that you do not have, but

need. While completing the task, periodically check the status of your resources and follow up on the availability of those items that you are still trying to obtain.

Examining and Selecting the Best Courses of Action

You must now list all of the different ways you can think of to accomplish the objective and to decide on the best course of action. Depending upon the objective, these two planning steps could be very simple or very difficult tasks.

Conclusion

Successful leaders are energetic. They exert a great deal of effort to communicate effectively, solve problems, make decisions, set goals, plan, execute plans, and supervise/evaluate. These are a leader's directional (or thinking) and implementing skills. As a leader, you cannot expect positive results from your subordinates unless you work equally hard at solving problems, making plans, and putting plans and decisions into action. Successful leaders also work hard at accomplishing their missions and objectives while maintaining only the highest possible standards of performance.

In your professional and leadership development, you should strive to exercise the same degree of effort and excellence.

Lesson Review

- 1. List the seven steps to the problem-solving/decision-making process.**
- 2. Choose one of the seven steps and explain it.**
- 3. List and explain the four-step planning process.**
- 4. Explain behaviors that can disrupt your ability to solve a problem.**

Leading Others

Chapter 5

Lesson 1

Platoon Drill



Key Terms

cover
flank
formations
interval
line
pivot

What You Will Learn to Do

- How to command a platoon

Linked Core Abilities

- Communicate using verbal, non-verbal, visual, and written techniques

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain along the Way

- Describe the correct response to the commands when forming and marching the platoon
- Compare platoon drills and squad drills
- Match drill commands to platoon formations
- Define key words contained in this chapter

Introduction

By now you should be familiar with stationary movements, basic steps, marching techniques, and squad drill. The introduction of platoon drill is designed to give you a better understanding of the discipline and coordination that is required of a large group to perform well in drill. Platoons execute certain drills in the same way that squads do. These drills include: Inclining Around, Resting, Changing intervals in lines, Dismissing, Marching to the Flanks, Counting Off, and Marching in the Opposite Direction. This lesson describes the platoon movements that are unique to each formation.

Drill Tips

Execute individual drill movements as previously described while performing as a squad member during the conduct of platoon drill.

For the most part, platoon drill merely provides the procedures for executing movements in conjunction with other squads formed in the same formation.

The platoon has two prescribed **formations**: **line** and column; however, your platoon leader may form the platoon in a column of twos from a column.

When a platoon forms in a line, its squads are numbered from front to rear; in a column, from left to right.

When the platoon drills *as a separate unit and is in a line formation*, the platoon leader takes a position six steps in front of and centered on the platoon. The platoon sergeant's position is centered on the platoon and one step to the rear of the last rank.

When it drills *as a separate unit and is in a column formation*, the platoon leader's position is six steps on the left **flank** and centered on the platoon. The platoon sergeant's position is one step behind and centered between the second and third squads.

When the platoon drill is part of a larger unit and is in a line formation, the platoon leader's position is six steps in front of and centered on the platoon. The platoon sergeant's position is one step to the rear and centered on the platoon.

When the platoon drill is part of a larger unit and is in a column formation, the platoon leader's position is one arm's length plus six inches in front of and centered between the second and third squad leaders. The platoon sergeant's position is one step behind and centered between the second and third squads.

The first squad leader serves as the base when the platoon is in a line formation; the fourth squad leader serves as the base when in a column.

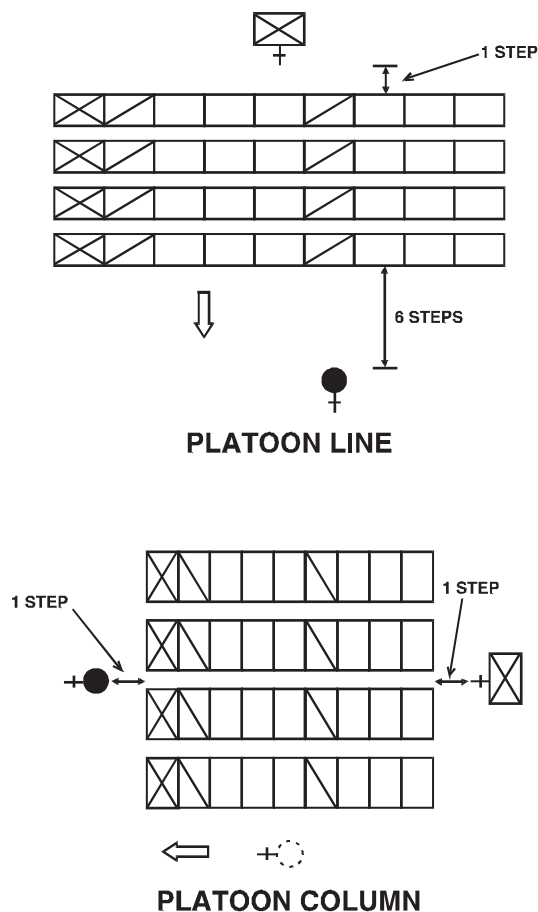
Key Note Term

formations – the arrangement of people or elements of a unit in a prescribed manner.

line – a formation in which people or elements are side by side, or abreast of each other.

flank – the right or left side of any formation as seen by a person (or element) within that formation.

Figure 5.1.1: Platoon formations.



Platoon Formations

Falling In

A platoon forms basically in the same way as a squad. The platoon sergeant assumes the position of attention and commands "*fall in.*" On that command, the first squad leader and the first squad (when formed) are three steps in front and centered on the platoon sergeant. The other squad leaders then **cover** on the first squad leader at the correct distance, which they obtain by estimation.

Members of the first squad fall in on their squad leader as they would in squad drill; however, members of the other squads fall in on their squad leader, assume the position of attention, and turn their heads and eyes to the right. They obtain correct

Key Note Term

cover – cover is the distance between cadets in a column, measured by the cadet raising the left arm to the front and making sure the shoulder of the cadet in front is at the length of the arm plus 4-6 inches

interval by taking short steps forward or backward, align themselves on the cadet to their right, sharply turn their heads and eyes to the front as in the position of attention, and obtain proper interval by taking short steps left or right to cover on the cadet in front of them. Members of these other squads do not raise their left arms unless the cadet to their immediate left has no one on which to cover.

When appropriate, the platoon leader may form the platoon. The procedures are the same as described above except that the first squad forms six steps in front of and centered on the platoon leader. The platoon sergeant forms at his or her position to the rear of the platoon. If the platoon leader is not present for the formation, the platoon sergeant steps forward three steps (making a total of six steps in front of the platoon) and assumes the duties of the platoon leader from that position.

Breaking Ranks

When the situation requires one or more individuals to leave a platoon formation or to obtain specific instructions from the platoon leader, the platoon leader directs “*Cadet Private _____, front and center*” or “*the following personnel front and center: Cadet Private _____, Cadet Private _____, and so on.*” If you hear the leader call your name, come to the position of attention, reply “here, sir (ser-geant),” take one 15-inch step backward, halt, face to the right (left) in marching, and exit the formation by marching to the nearest flank. After you clear the formation, double time to and halt two steps in front and centered on the platoon leader.

Counting Off

The platoon counts off in the same manner as a squad while in a line or column formation, except that members of all squads in that formation count in unison.

Changing Intervals

The platoon changes interval in a line formation in the same manner as the squad.

To change interval when the platoon is in a column formation at the halt, the right file stands fast and serves as the base. All other cadets execute the movement as previously described. To obtain close interval from normal interval, the third squad takes one step right, the second squad takes two steps right, and the first squad takes three steps right. To obtain normal interval, the procedures are the same except that the squads take the same number of steps to the left.

To change interval when the platoon is marching in a column, the leader gives the preparatory command “*close interval*” when the right foot strikes the marching surface and the command of execution “*march*” the next time the right foot strikes the marching surface. On “*march*,” the base squad (right file) takes one more 30-inch step and then executes a half step.

Key Note Term

interval – a space between actions; the lateral space between personnel in a formation, measured from right to left with close, double, and normal spacing.

All other cadets take one more step, simultaneously execute a column half right, and march until they obtain close interval. They execute a column half left and assume the half step when abreast of the corresponding cadet of the base squad. On the command "*forward, march,*" all cadets resume marching with a 30-inch step. The platoon leader could also give the commands "*mark time, march*" and "*pla-toon, halt.*"

To resume marching at normal interval, the platoon leader gives the preparatory command "*normal interval*" as the left foot strikes the marching surface and the command of execution "*march*" the next time the left foot strikes the marching surface. On the command "*march,*" the platoon members obtain normal interval in the same manner prescribed for close interval except that they each execute column half left and then column half right.

To obtain double interval from normal interval, the procedures are the same as from close interval to normal interval. To obtain normal interval from double interval, the procedures are the same as obtaining close interval from normal interval.

Aligning the Platoon

This process is similar to aligning a squad. The command for alignment is "*dress right, dress.*" On the command of execution "*dress,*" the first squad leader stands fast and serves as the base. Other squad leaders estimate correct distance between their units and the squad in front of them. The cadets in the first squad obtain exact interval as they did in squad drill. All other squads execute as the first squad except that each cadet raises the left arm only for uniformity and covers on the cadet in front of them by glancing out of the corner of the left eye.

To obtain exact alignment, the platoon leader marches (on the command of execution "*dress*") by the most direct route to a position on line with the first squad, halts one step from the squad leader, and faces down that line. The platoon leader then verifies the alignment of the first squad and instructs cadets (calling them by name or number) to move forward or back as necessary to form an even line.

After aligning the first squad, the platoon leader faces to the left (right) in marching, takes two (or three) short steps to the second squad, halts, faces down that line, and aligns that squad in the same manner as the first squad. The platoon leader follows this same procedure for the remaining squads. When finished with the last squad, the platoon leader returns to the position centered on the platoon, halts perpendicular to the formation, faces to the left (right), and commands "*ready, front.*"

Covering and Recovering

To align the platoon in a column formation, the commands are "*cover*" and "*recover.*" On the command "*cover,*" the fourth squad leader stands fast and serves as the base. The squad leaders, with the exception of the left flank squad leader, raise their arms laterally and turn their heads and eyes to the right. The members of

the fourth squad raise their arms horizontally (as in squad drill) to the front and cover on the cadet to their front at the correct distance.

Cadets of the third, second, and first squads raise their left arms horizontally to the front (for uniformity only), cover on the person to their front, and, at the same time, glance out of the corner of their right eyes to align on the cadet to their right.

To resume the position of attention, the platoon leader gives the command “*recover*.” On this command, cadets return sharply to the position of attention.

Opening and Closing Ranks

A platoon opens ranks from a line formation while at the halt. The command is “*open ranks, march*,” and the platoon may execute it from any of the prescribed intervals.

On the command of execution “*march*,” the front rank takes two steps forward, the second rank takes one step forward, the third rank stands fast, and the fourth rank takes two steps backward. If additional ranks are present, the fifth rank takes four steps backward, the sixth rank takes six steps backward, and so on. After taking the required number of steps, platoon members do not raise their arms to align themselves. If the platoon leader wants the exact interval or alignment, he or she commands “*at close interval (at double interval), dress right, dress*” and “*ready, front*.”

The command to close ranks is “*close ranks, march*.” On the command of execution “*march*,” the first rank takes four steps backward, the second rank takes two steps backward, the third rank stands fast, and the fourth rank takes one step forward. Also, on the command of execution “*march*,” the platoon leader and platoon sergeant take the approximate number of steps to maintain their correct positions.

Resting and Dismissing the Platoon

The platoon rests in the same manner as prescribed for the squad.

The procedures for dismissing the platoon are basically the same as prescribed for the squad. The following differences exist:

When the platoon leader commands “*platoon sergeant*,” the platoon sergeant faces to the right in marching and inclines around the squad leaders, halts three steps in front of and centered on the platoon, and faces to the right. The platoon leader then commands “*take charge of the platoon*,” they exchange salutes, and the platoon leader is no longer a part of the formation. The platoon sergeant takes three steps forward, halts, faces about, and carries out the platoon leader’s instructions.

The platoon sergeant may release the squads to the control of the squad leaders by commanding “*take charge of your squads*.” The platoon sergeant and squad leaders exchange salutes and the platoon sergeant is no longer a part of the formation. Without leaving their positions, the squad leaders then command “*fall out*.”

Marching the Platoon

The platoon marches in the same manner as prescribed for the squad.

When marching in line, the first squad leader serves as the guide; when marching in column, the fourth squad leader is the guide.

When marching in line, each member maintains alignment on the cadet to the right by glancing out of the corner of the right eye; when marching in column, each member of the first, second, and third squads maintains alignment on the cadet to the right.

Changing Direction

During a march, a platoon will need to change direction at some point. There are several ways to do this, including a 90 or 45-degree turn, marching to the rear or incline, or counter column, march. The following sections help describe how these are done.

90 or 45-Degree Turns

The platoon changes the direction of marching basically the same as the squad. During a column movement, the base element is the squad on the flank in the direction of the turn.

To change direction 90 degrees, the command is “*column right (left), march.*” On the command of execution “*march,*” the base squad executes the movement as in squad drill except that the squad leader takes one 30-inch step and then takes up the half step. The squad leader continues marching with the half step until the other squad leaders come abreast. The other squad leaders must maintain correct interval, execute a 45-degree **pivot**, and continue marching in an arc.

As these squad leaders come on line with the base squad leader, they take up the half step. When all squad leaders are even, they step off with a 30-inch step without command. All other platoon members march forward on the command of execution and execute the column movement at approximately the same location as their squad leaders and in the same manner.

To change direction 45 degrees, the command is “*column half right (half left), march.*” On the command “*march,*” the platoon executes the movement in the same manner as for a 90-degree turn except that everyone makes a 45-degree turn.

Marching to the Rear or Inclining

The platoon marches in the opposite direction (“*rear, march*”) and inclines around an object (“*incline around*”) in the same manner as the squad.

Counter Column, March

When space is limited and the platoon leader wants to march the platoon in the opposite direction with the squad leaders at the head of their squads, the platoon leader would command “*counter column, march.*” Figure 5.1.2 shows your way through this procedure.

Key Note Term

pivot – the point at which a person turns while marching.

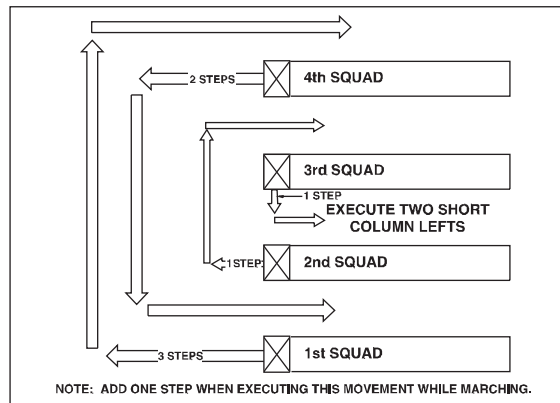


Figure 5.1.2: Counter column, march command.

On the command “*march*”:

- The first squad marches forward three steps, executes a column right, marches across the front of the platoon, and executes another column right just beyond the fourth squad.
- The second squad steps forward one step, executes a column right, marches forward, and executes another column right between the third and fourth squads.
- The third squad executes two short column lefts from the halt and marches between the remainder of the third squad and the second squad.
- The fourth squad marches forward two steps, executes a column left, marches across the front of the platoon, and executes another column left between the first and second squads.
- As the third squad leader marches past the last cadet in the third squad, the entire squad begins to march at half step. After marching past the last cadet in each file, all other squads incline to the right and left as necessary, obtain normal interval on the third squad, and begin to march with the half step. When all squads are even with one another, they begin marching with a 30-inch step without command.

During the movement, the platoon leader marches alongside of the first squad, and the platoon sergeant marches one step to the rear and centered between the second and third squads.

When marching, the platoon leader gives the preparatory command “*counter column*” as the left foot strikes the marching surface. On the command of execution “*march*,” the platoon executes the movement basically the same as from the halt, except that the squad takes one additional step to ensure that the pivot foot is in the correct place to execute the movement.

Marching to the Flank

The platoon marches to the flank in the same manner as the squad.

Forming a File and Re-forming

A platoon forms a single file from the left, right, or as designated, and only from the column formation and the halt. The command is “*file from the left (right), march*” (or “*file in sequence 3-2-4-1, march*”).

On the preparatory command, the squad leader of the designated (or lead) squad gives the supplementary command “*forward*.” The other squad leaders command “*stand fast*.”

On the command of execution “*march*,” the lead squad marches forward. The stationary squad leader next to the lead squad looks over the shoulder nearest the moving element. When the second from the last cadet in the lead squad is abreast, that stationary squad leader commands “*column half left (half right)*.” When the last cadet in the lead squad is abreast and his or her right foot strikes the marching surface, the stationary squad leader commands “*march*.”

On the command of execution, the squad leader next to the lead squad executes the column half left (half right), inclines to the right without command, and follows the last cadet of the lead squad at the correct distance. The other squad members march forward and execute the same movements as their squad leader. The remaining squads form the file in the same manner, one after another.

A platoon may also form a file and execute a column movement at the same time from a column formation. The execution is similar to that described previously, except the command is “*file from the left (right), column left (right), march*.” After the platoon leader’s preparatory command, the lead squad leader commands “*column left (right)*” instead of “*forward*.” The other squad leaders also command “*column left (right), march*” at the appropriate time.

The platoon re-forms to the original column formation only from the halt. The command is “*column of fours to the right (left), march*.” On the preparatory command, the squad leader of the base squad commands “*stand fast*.” All other squad leaders command “*column half right (half left)*.”

On the command of execution “*march*,” the base squad stands fast; all other squads execute the column half right (half left) at the same time. As each of the moving squad leaders reach a point that ensures correct interval on the element to their left (right), they automatically incline to the left (right) and command “*mark time, march*” and “*squad, halt*” so that their squad is abreast of the base squad when halted.

Forming/Re-forming a Column of Twos

A platoon forms a column of twos from the right or left when in a column of fours at the halt. The command is, “*column of twos from the left (right), march*.” The basic elements of the movement are similar to forming a column of twos in a squad formation.

On the preparatory command, the squad leaders of the two lead squads command *“for-ward.”* The other two squad leaders command *“stand fast.”* On the platoon leader’s command *“march,”* the two lead squads march forward. The squad leader who is next to the lead element gives the command to start both remaining squads in motion. Looking over the shoulder nearest the moving elements, the squad leader gives the preparatory command *“column half left (half right)”* when the second from the last cadet is next to him or her and gives the command *“march”* when the right foot of the last cadet strikes the marching surface.

On the platoon leader’s command of execution, both squad leaders execute the column half left (half right), incline to the right (left) without command, and follow the last cadets of the lead squads at the correct distance. Other members of the remaining squads march forward and execute the same movements as their squad leaders.

The platoon may also form a column of twos and execute a column movement at the same time from a column formation. The command is *“column of twos from the left (right), column left (right), march.”* The squad leaders of the lead squads command *“column left (right)”* instead of *“forward.”* The squad leader of the next squad gives the command *“column left (right);”* however, that leader then executes a column half left (half right). The remaining two squad leaders stand fast.

On the platoon leader’s command *“march,”* the lead squads execute the column left (right). The squad leader next to the lead squad gives the command to start the remaining squads in motion. Looking over the shoulder nearest the moving elements, the squad leader gives the preparatory command *“column left (right)”* when the second from the last cadet is next to him or her, and gives the command of execution *“march”* as the right foot of the last cadet strikes the marching surface (at the pivot for column left or the first time the last cadet’s right foot strikes the marching surface after the pivot for column right). Although the command is *“column left (right),”* the outside squads execute a column half left (half right).

To re-form the original column formation, the platoon must be at the halt. The command is *“column of fours to the right (left), march.”* On the preparatory command, the squad leaders of the lead squads command *“stand fast.”* The trailing squad leaders command *“column half right (half left).”*

On the platoon leader’s command *“march,”* the lead squads stand fast. The trailing squad leaders execute slightly more than the column half right (half left) at the same time. As the trailing squad leaders reach a point that ensures correct interval on the element to their left (right), they incline to the left (right) without command. The squad leader nearest the stationary lead squads commands *“mark time, march”* and *“squads, halt.”*

Conclusion

Your cadet battalion will spend many hours practicing the individual, squad, and platoon drill movements. Being able to execute them correctly will build confidence and teamwork as well as ensure that your unit looks as good as it can in ceremonies. To excel in *Leadership Application* requires dedication in learning the steps and drills, the proper use of commands and the command voice, and thorough preparation on the part of the drill leader.

Lesson Review

1. What drills do platoons execute?
2. What does the platoon do when the sergeant commands “fall in”?
3. When marching in line, which squad leader serves as the guide? When marching in a column, which squad leader serves as a guide?
4. Define the term “pivot.”

Lesson 2

Taking Charge – Knowing Your Responsibilities as a Leader



Key Terms

implement
observe
plan

What You Will Learn to Do

- Perform the duties of a team leader, squad leader, platoon sergeant, or platoon leader

Linked Core Abilities

- Take responsibility for your actions and choices

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain along the Way

- Describe the duties and responsibilities of the different leadership positions within a platoon
- Explain the four steps leaders should use when assuming a new leadership position
- Demonstrate the responsibilities of a team leader or other higher position in drill
- Define key words contained in this lesson

Chapter 5

Introduction

This lesson helps you develop a style of leadership by describing the basic responsibilities of a team leader, squad leader, platoon sergeant, and platoon leader. By applying the traits, principles, factors, and values of leadership to your responsibilities as a role model, coach, and counselor, you will be able to obtain the best possible results from your team.

Learning How to Lead

Soon you will be taking charge of a unit and facing the difficult task of leading people. There are certain techniques and steps that will help you to adjust to your new assignment. Because first impressions are usually lasting ones, these steps will help you to make a better first impression. Regardless of the level of development of your followers, especially in drill, your actions and behavior must be consistent with appropriate leader behavior.

After all, your actions and behavior are the main factors that will determine the morale of your team members and the degree to which they are willing to work as a team to accomplish your goals. Taking charge of a group and turning them into a synchronized drill unit is no easy task. To guide you in assuming a new leadership position and in building a cohesive team, follow the four proven steps that leaders use to ensure a smooth and successful beginning. They are:

- **Observe/Assess**
- **Plan**
- **Implement**
- **Follow-up/Evaluate**

Taking Control

In the middle of the school year, George moved out of town. The Senior Army Instructor gave his platoon leader's position to Michelle, the platoon sergeant. Michelle felt confident that she could handle the position because she had done very well as platoon sergeant. Although she knew what was required of a platoon leader, she was nervous about taking George's place because everyone in the platoon liked him very much.

As platoon sergeant, Michelle had closely **observed** how George led the platoon. One of the reasons for his popularity was that he would personally correct a squad or an individual if a drill movement was not performed well. The platoon members considered George to be a very good coach because he made them feel special to receive his attention.

However, Michelle knew that George's relationship with the platoon often caused resentment with the squad leaders, who interpreted George's actions as indications that they were not doing — or could not do — their jobs. Therefore, the squad leaders did not

Key Note Term

observe – the act of recognizing and noting a fact or occurrence.

like his interference. They knew what they were responsible for and how to do it — if given the chance.

Michelle often had to smooth things out between George and the squad leaders. She would explain to the squad leaders that his actions were not meant as criticism while suggesting to George that he should let the squad leaders do their jobs and stop stepping on their toes.

From her observations, Michelle decided to make a **plan** to change the situation when she became platoon leader. After all, every leader has an individual style and she wanted more harmony within the platoon.

She would use her chain of command more than George had and would let the squad leaders correct any problems she saw in platoon drill. But, she also wanted the cadets to work as hard for her as they did for George. After some thinking, she came up with a great idea. Her father managed one of the local movie theaters and she worked for him on the weekends. What if she exchanged a few hours of work for discounted tickets and food?

After discussing her plan with the squad leaders, who enthusiastically approved it, Michelle told the platoon her idea on her first day of drill. “I realize that it’s hard switching leaders in the middle of the year and that we’re all going to miss George, but I’m going to do my best to take over where he left off. One area where I believe we can still improve is squad drill. So, I’ve decided to hold a contest to reward the squad that consistently performs the best each month. Each member of that squad will receive one discounted movie pass and reduced prices on food at the Park Six Cinema. Our SAI, the platoon sergeant, and I will be the judges. Now let’s get down to practice.”

After just one month, Michelle was pleased to see that her transition to platoon leader had been successful. She did not have as many problems with the squad leaders as George had, and the new platoon sergeant confirmed that they were happier with her style of not interfering. The JROTC instructors even thought the squads performed a little better as a result of the contest and her leadership.

Key Note Term

plan – to formulate an action for the accomplishment or attainment of an explicit purpose.

Knowing Your Responsibilities as a Leader

An effective organization is essential for mission accomplishment. A prerequisite for a unit to function with maximum efficiency is that individuals within the unit function together effectively. The solution is to develop and maintain teamwork. To achieve this, it is partially a product of one’s duties, responsibility, and authority. The other element is one’s relationships with peers, supervisors, and followers.

To achieve the goal of every team member working side by side effectively and efficiently, leaders must have a complete understanding of their duties and responsibilities.

The following sections outline the responsibilities for team leaders, squad leaders, the platoon sergeant, and the platoon leader. At some point during your JROTC experience, your instructors will assign you to one or more of these positions. Specific duties in your cadet battalion (as outlined in the Cadet Handbook) may be different from these; however, they present you with guidelines illustrating what you can expect from your immediate chain of command.

Responsibilities of Team Leaders

Team leaders are the first in the chain of command. There are generally two team leaders to a squad, referred to as Team Leader A and Team Leader B. Both team leaders are responsible for the formation, appearance, and training of their team members. Team Leader A must also be ready to assume control of the squad in the absence of the squad leader. They assist their squad leaders as directed and must:

- **Set the example at all times.**
- **Know the number, names, and personal information on all assigned personnel.**
- **Assist team members with matters related to JROTC activities (when possible) and refer them to the squad leader for assistance if they are unable to handle/resolve an issue.**
- **Be thoroughly familiar with individual and squad drill; inspect team members during formations and class assemblies to ensure they know what is required of them.**

Responsibilities of Squad Leaders

Squad leaders are responsible to their platoon leader and platoon sergeant for the appearance, conduct, training, and discipline of their squad. They ensure that each squad member learns and does what is expected, and maintains high standards of behavior. Squad leaders must:

- **Set the example at all times.**
- **Know the number, names, and personal information on all assigned personnel.**
- **Counsel/assist squad members with matters related to JROTC activities and help them to find solutions to other matters (when possible); refer them to the platoon sergeant or platoon leader for assistance if they are unable to handle/resolve an issue.**
- **Develop responsibility and leadership in team leaders and be the first person that they turn to for assistance and advice.**
- **Form the squad correctly. Make an accurate report by name of those persons present and absent during common hour activities, company platoon/formations, and other cadet battalion activities.**
- **Be thoroughly familiar with individual, squad, and platoon drill. When conducting drill, instruct/demonstrate the movement, allow time for individual performance, then supervise team leaders and squad members to ensure they perform properly.**
- **Inspect their team leaders and squad members at all times, ensuring they know what is required of them.**

Responsibilities of a Platoon Sergeant

The platoon sergeant functions as the platoon executive and administrator; therefore, the platoon sergeant must:

- **Set the example at all times.**

- Form the platoon when prescribed by the platoon leader; submit absentee reports to the company first sergeant.
- Assist the platoon leader in supervising the squad leaders while maintaining a close relationship with them.
- Develop a spirit of teamwork within the platoon.
- Learn the names of everyone in the platoon and use their names when addressing them.
- Provide assistance/counseling to personnel in the platoon, especially when requested by the platoon leader or a squad leader.
- Assist the platoon leader in training the platoon.
- Be completely informed of all platoon matters to assume control of the platoon in the absence of the platoon leader.

Responsibilities of a Platoon Leader

The platoon leader is a very desirable position in the cadet battalion. If you are a platoon leader, you have a platoon of cadets for whom you are directly responsible. Primarily, your job is one of leadership, training, and discipline. You also have the opportunity and privilege to be a role model, coach, and counselor. You must:

- Keep the company commander apprised of the status of the platoon at all times.
- Establish and maintain command and control of the platoon at all times. Organize and maintain an effective chain of command.
- Provide assistance/counseling to personnel in the platoon, especially when requested by a squad leader or the platoon sergeant, and/or when necessary for performance or disciplinary reasons.
- Conduct an inspection of the platoon at formations.
- Use the chain of command to accomplish tasks; work mainly with the platoon sergeant and the squad leaders.
- Know all cadet regulations and ensure that all members of the platoon also know and follow them.
- Enforce the orders from superiors whether you agree with them or not; however, if you think an order is morally or ethically wrong, discuss it with your chain of command and, if necessary, your instructor staff. Do not complain or gripe in the presence of subordinates. Develop a spirit of teamwork so as to instill respect, obedience, and cooperation in the platoon.
- Know all phases of drill and ceremonies; be able to supervise and conduct platoon drill and, if you are the senior officer present in a formation, be able to conduct company drill.
- Set high standards of personal appearance and conduct for yourself. Remember, the platoon leader sets the example for the platoon to follow.
- Make an effort to resolve all leadership, training, and disciplinary problems at your level; however, if you cannot solve a problem, seek the advice and/or assistance of the company commander, company executive officer, or first sergeant.

Conclusion

For a platoon to function effectively and efficiently, team members, team leaders, squad leaders, the platoon sergeant, and the platoon leader must:

- **Clearly understand their duties and responsibilities.**
- **Know exactly what is expected of them.**

Only when those actions occur to the extent that leaders and platoon members are comfortable can teamwork, productivity, and mission accomplishment take place. At that point, the energy of everyone in the platoon is now available for work.

Remember, however, that followers will always observe the actions and behavior of their leaders very closely; therefore, successful leaders must be able to put that energy to work to build cohesive teams, establish high levels of morale, and create a climate where followers are willing to accomplish missions. Plus, when taking charge of a unit, successful leaders must know how to make a lasting impression — they must observe, plan, **implement**, and follow up.

Key Note Term

implement – to give practical effect to and ensure of actual fulfillment by concrete measures.

Chapter 5 Lesson Review

Lesson Review

1. Why is it important to understand your responsibilities as a leader?
2. List three responsibilities of a platoon sergeant.
3. What creative way can you think of to entice your squad to be their best?
4. Where can you find a list of specific duties?

Foundations for Success

Unit 3

Chapter 6

Presenting Skills

Lesson 1

Becoming a Better Writer



Key Terms

active voice
autobiography
bibliography
biography
body
conclusion
conjunction
entice
fragment
information cards
introduction
passive voice
plagiarism
predicate
source cards
subject
thesis statement

What You Will Learn to Do

- Organize writing for a specific purpose

Linked Core Abilities

- Communicate using verbal, non-verbal, visual, and written techniques

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain along the Way

- Identify situations where writing is an appropriate form of communication
- Describe various writing techniques
- Explain how to use writing to express your needs
- Describe how to effectively organize writing assignments

Chapter 6

- Define key words contained in this lesson

Key Note Term

biography – the history of a particular person, as told by someone else.

autobiography – the biography of a person, written by that person.

Key Note Term

introduction – the beginning of a paper, speech, or lesson plan.

body – the main part of a paper, lesson plan, or speech.

conclusion – the final part of a paper, speech, or lesson plan; also referred to as a summary; a final opinion reached through research and reasoning.

Key Note Term

source cards – a card that is used to record the title, author, publisher, copyright date, and place of publication (city and state) of resources being used during research for a project (paper, speech, and so on).

information cards – cards used to collect data for a report or paper.

Introduction

Writing is one of the acts or processes used to exchange ideas. When all is working well, when sentences are grammatically correct, when words are carefully chosen, when paragraphs are soundly structured, communication is usually successful. People will read your sentences, understand your meaning, and respond accordingly.

Writing is one of the most important means of communication, so your writing must be simple, readable, and understandable. With a little practice and desire, writing is an art that anyone can master. Your writing will take many forms. In school, you will often have to write papers for your classes. These may include term papers, a **biography**, or an **autobiography**.

To write well, you must first define the purpose of your writing, organize your thoughts, and make an outline—only then are you ready to write. This process is not always easy, but all it takes is the desire to write clearly, hard work, and following a few guidelines.

The Basics of Writing

Writing a paper is similar to writing a speech. You must first decide upon a topic, research the topic, and organize your material. After you have organized your material, you are in a position to begin writing your paper. The elements of a paper are also similar to those of a speech. You should have an **introduction**, **body**, and a **conclusion**. As you continue to read, you will see how similar these elements really are to a speech.

Note

Although writing for reading, such as writing a paper, is similar to writing for speaking, such as writing a speech, there is a difference. Keep in mind that the reader will be reading silently, so the way you create your sentences should be different than the way you'd write if someone was reading out loud.

Research

Research is probably the most important part of your paper. When you begin your research, be determined to find all the information you can; however, be sure that the information you select is accurate and relevant to your topic.

You may want to start your research at the school library. Carry index cards with you

so that you can make or use them as **source cards** or **information cards**. For each book or reference that you find on your topic, use the source cards to correctly record the title, author or authors, publisher, copyright date (usually just the year), and place of publication (city and state). Not only do these source cards help you to keep track of where your information came from, but they are the basis for your **bibliography** when you finish your paper. Later you can organize your bibliography by alphabetizing your source cards. Give each source card a code such as a number or letter. Place the code in the upper left corner.

After you have your books, magazines, articles, and other resource materials recorded on source cards, begin taking notes from these books on new index cards. These will become your information cards. Write your code numbers from your source cards on the upper left corner of your information cards so you can identify which notes came from which publication. Also, write the page number you found the notes on your information cards.

After researching your topic at the school library, you may want to venture out to other libraries, such as the city or county library, looking for supplemental materials. When you have finished this library work, do not stop your research. Contact experts on your subject and set up interviews with them. This can be exciting because you are gathering more information for your paper and you are also meeting new people and establishing contacts. Perhaps you can also look for reliable sources on the Internet.

Note

Not everything you read on the Internet is true or correct. Be sure you visit reputable websites when gathering information from the Internet.

Although research is sometimes a frustrating process, it is important to stick with it. Be curious and always open to new ideas. Through your research, you will discover the main theme of your paper and experience one of the joys of learning.

Organization

After you have completed your research, you should be able to develop the main point of your paper. This main point is similar to the specific purpose of a speech. The main point of a paper is called a **thesis statement**.

Now you are ready to develop your outline. Take your information cards and place them in related groups. Arrange the related groups in the order in which you think they should logically appear in your paper. Experiment with different types of order or arrangements. Rearrange and regroup them as often as necessary. If you have time, put your cards away for a night and rework them the next day. Remember—this outline does not have to be exact. You can still be flexible at this point. After all, you are looking for the best way to present the material you collected.

Finally, when you finish arranging your information cards based on your initial

Key Note Term

bibliography – a list of sources of information on a specific subject; the description and identification of the editions, dates of issue, authorship, and typography of books or other written materials.

Key Note Term

thesis statement – the main point of a paper that you try to support through research.

thoughts about the topic, begin writing the outline. The outline allows you to organize your thoughts and record them on paper. The most traditional outline is the Roman numeral/capital letter style outline; however, you do not have to use this type. If you are more comfortable with another type of outline, by all means, use it. Your outline (any style) is far too important to confuse matters by using an unfamiliar or cumbersome format.

Writing Your Paper

After completing your research and organization, you are ready to begin writing the paper. As mentioned earlier in this lesson, your paper needs an introduction, body, and a conclusion.

Key Note Term

entice – to attract or lure; to encourage someone to participate.

Introduction

Your introduction grabs the reader's attention and introduces the topic. It is important to **entice** your readers into your paper, so make sure you have a catchy, exciting, and well-organized introduction.

Body

The body of your paper is where you explain and document what you know about the subject based on your research. Tell the readers your main points, which should support your thesis statement; then, support these main points with examples and facts.

Use one idea per paragraph. Your information cards should help you do this and your outline should help you to stay organized and on track with your topic. The first time you write the paper should be nothing more than a rough draft; therefore, do not worry too much about grammar and spelling. You will be revising this draft—maybe several times—so worry about those details later. In your first draft, you are still looking at presenting the information in the most logical order. In later drafts, you can rearrange the order as necessary, add or delete information, and correct the grammar and spelling.

Conclusion

Your conclusion is the last opportunity for you to tell the readers what you want them to remember. Use this space to pull your paper together and to leave the reader with a sense of accomplishment.

Rewrites

After you have completed your first draft, rewrite and revise your paper then, rewrite your paper again, if time permits. Rewriting is a major part of the development of your paper. Do not ignore this step! Try to leave at least one day between revisions. When you leave time between rewrites, you are able to review your work with a fresh state of mind. Use rewrites to reword your material and to polish your grammar and spelling.

Have others review your work. They can help find errors and clarify statements.

Plagiarism

Plagiarism is illegal. It is the stealing of someone else's work or ideas without giving them the proper credit or, in some cases, obtaining permission to use the material. You can commit plagiarism by simply, and in many instances unintentionally, copying someone else's ideas, words, or pictures/graphic illustrations.

To avoid plagiarism, always give the appropriate credit to every resource you used when writing the paper. The most common ways to give credit are to use footnotes, endnotes, quotation marks (mentioning the source), or a bibliography. Refer to your English textbook or to a writing style handbook for suggestions on formats. Whichever system you use, you will find the information on your source cards very helpful.

Key Note Term

plagiarism – the act of copying the ideas or words of another and claiming them as one's own.

Note

There are a variety of writing style handbooks available. One that is widely used is *The Chicago Manual of Style*. You can take a look at this and other style handbooks in any library.

Principles of Writing

As a writer, there are six principles that you should use as a guide when writing. By adhering to these six principles, you will be able to keep your writing focused on the topic, written to the correct target audience, concise, complete, logically arranged, and grammatically correct. These principles are audience level, accuracy, brevity and completeness, clarity, coherence, and unity.

Audience Level

When you write, you should do so for a particular audience—just like you would for a speech. Although most of your writing in high school will be assignment-related, you may have the opportunity to write articles for the school paper or yearbook, reports for an after-school club, or flyers for your after-school job. Because of the different audiences these items would reach, you would not write them in the same manner. Instead, you would tailor them to each audience.

Be careful not to write at too high or too low of a level for your audience. This may seem hard to do, but it is extremely important. The purpose of your writing is to explain your topic or to present information, not to prove how much you know or how little you may think your reader knows about the subject. It is not your job to alienate the audience.

Accuracy

Your work must be free of factual and mechanical errors. It should represent only essential and accurate facts. Correct use of grammar, punctuation, and spelling will also contribute to clarity and understanding.

Brevity and Completeness

Include in your paper only the information that is essential or pertinent to cover the topic. In other words, keep your writing brief and to the point. Do not stray from your main point—that only distracts the reader and could take attention away from your desired outcome or conclusion. To cover a subject completely while keeping the length of the paper to the absolute minimum requires careful analysis and many rewrites; however, never sacrifice clarity or completeness just to gain brevity.

Clarity

You must make a special effort to keep your writing clear, crisp, and fully understandable. Ensure that your readers understand your intention. Do not try to impress them with your vocabulary. The best way to obtain clarity in your writing is by practicing the following guidelines:

- **Use short sentences.**
- **Avoid explaining something that the reader already knows.**
- **Use simple, familiar words to describe objects. Also, avoid vague words that do not relate precisely to your topic.**
- **Use verbs in the active tense. For example, instead of “The ball was thrown by John,” write “John threw the ball.”**
- **Avoid long phrases when one or several words will do and avoid wordiness (or the use of unnecessary words). For example, use “now” instead of “at the moment.”**
- **Select words and phrases that express your exact meaning and can have only one interpretation.**
- **Use words that bring an image to mind. If a reader can picture something, he or she will have a better chance of understanding what you are trying to write.**

Because of the importance of writing grammatically correct work, common errors in grammar are described in detail later in this lesson.

Coherence

Coherence is the logical development and arrangement of a subject. You can achieve coherence by thinking the subject through and seeing it as a whole before you arrange the parts logically and begin writing. Using your outline and rewrites will help you to achieve coherence.

Unity

Your writing must adhere to a single main idea. Apply this principle not only to each sentence and paragraph, but to the entire paper. This is where your initial outline comes in very handy.

Grammatical Errors

When a piece of writing is flawed, the process of communication breaks down; the transfer of information stops as the reader tries to translate your meaning.

There are many flaws that can damage your writing; among the most serious are ungrammatical sentences. Grammatical errors include fragments, run-on sentences, subject/verb agreement, shifts in person, number, tense, voice, tone, and faulty pronoun reference.

Fragments

A sentence is an independent clause that can stand alone. It has a **subject** (tells what or whom the sentence is about) and a **predicate** (tells what the subject does). A **fragment** is a dependent clause (a word group that lacks a subject or a predicate).

The following is an example of a fragment:

“in the basement and the attic”

Here is an example of a complete sentence:

“We searched for the missing book in the basement and the attic.”

Run-on Sentences

A run-on sentence occurs if two or more independent clauses are joined without a **conjunction** (joining word such as “and” or “but”) or appropriate punctuation.

The following is an example of a run-on sentence:

“Organize a résumé according to your education, work experience, career objectives, and recreational interests review your needs carefully before stating a career objective.”

Here is an example of the correct way to write this:

“Organize a résumé according to your education, work experience, career objectives, and recreational interests. Review your needs carefully before stating a career objective.”

In the second example, the run-on sentence is written in two complete sentences.

Key Note Term

subject – tells what or whom the sentence is about.

Key Note Term

predicate – tells what the subject does.

Key Note Term

fragment – a word group that lacks a subject or a predicate.

Key Note Term

conjunction – joining words such as “and” or “but”.

Sometimes a conjunction is used to connect two related clauses, such as shown in the following example.

“A good résumé will include carefully chosen detail, and it will create an impression of depth without overwhelming the reader with your life history.”

Subject/Verb Agreement

Subjects and verbs agree with one another in number (singular or plural) and person. Agreement as to number means that the verb may have a different spelling, depending on whether the subject is singular (one) or plural (more than one).

The following is a singular example:

“The musician is a professional.”

Here is a plural example:

“The musicians are professional.”

The verb in these examples changed when the subject went from singular to plural.

Person is a term that indicates whether the subject is the one speaking (first person); the one spoken to (second person); or the one spoken about (third person).

First person	I walk to the store.
Second person	You drive to the store.
Third person	Joey runs to the store.

Shifts

Shift, as defined in grammar, is an abrupt change of perspective within a sentence or between sentences.

An example of a shift in person would be:

“People are tempted to go off their diets when we go on vacation.”

This is a shift from third person (“people”) to first person (“we”) within the same sentence.

A shift in number would be:

“If the books belong to the boy, return it.”

The previous sentence is a shift from plural (“books”) to singular (“it”) within the same sentence.

A shift in tense changes when the time of an action changes (past, present, future). An example of a shift in tense would be:

“Mrs. Hopkins arrives at her desk and went directly to work.”

The sentence above is a shift from present tense (arrives) to past tense (went).

Voice is a term that indicates whether the writer has emphasized the doer of the action (**active voice**) or the receiver of the action (**passive voice**). Avoid shifting voices within a sentence, as shown in the following example.

“We went to the post office (active) and the letters were mailed (passive).”

One way to write this using only active voice is:

“We went to the post office and mailed the letters.”

“We” took the action of going to the post office and mailing the letters.

A shift in the tone of your writing can also confuse your readers. Tone refers to the quality of language (word choice, sentence structure) that creates for your reader an impression about your work and you, the writer. Your tone may be formal or informal. After you adopt a certain tone, use it consistently. The following paragraph shows a shift from formal to informal:

“In your letter of May 16, 2001, you requested that we pay the balance of our bill, in the amount of \$25.31. You know, if you people would get your act together and correct the problems we told you about, maybe you would get your money.”

Faulty Pronoun Reference

A noun is a word that names a person, place, or thing. A pronoun is a word used in place of a noun. Pronouns help avoid unnecessary repetition in our writing. For example, the following is repetitive use of a noun:

“Although Seattle is damp, Seattle is my favorite city.”

Rather than using Seattle twice in the same sentence, a pronoun can be used, as shown in the following example:

“Although Seattle is damp, it is my favorite city.”

Pronoun reference is a term that describes the relationship between a pronoun and its noun.

Noun ← Pronoun

The *gentleman* bowed to *his* partner.

For a pronoun to function correctly, it must refer clearly to a well-defined noun, as in the previous example. *His* can refer to only one noun in the sentence, *gentleman*. When a pronoun does not refer clearly to its noun, readers will be confused, as shown in the following example.

“Mr. Jones extended an invitation to Mr. Smith after he returned from his trip.”

Key Note Term

active voice – a term that indicates that the writer has emphasized the doer of the action.

Key Note Term

passive voice – a term that indicates that the writer has emphasized the receiver of the action.

In this example, it is not clear who took the trip—Mr. Jones or Mr. Smith. The following clarifies the sentence, showing that Mr. Jones was clearly the traveler.

“After Mr. Jones returned from his trip, he extended an invitation to Mr. Smith.”

Writing More Clearly

Writing a grammatically correct sentence is no guarantee that you will communicate effectively. Grammatically correct writing can still be unclear. After you are confident that your sentences are grammatically correct, examine your choice of words.

Have you expressed yourself clearly? Have you avoided using jargon that may make your meaning unclear? Have you refrained from overusing to be or to have as main verbs? Have you chosen the better voice for your verb? Learning about these choices and thinking about them when you write will improve the clarity of your writing.

Wordiness

Delete words, phrases, and clauses that do not add directly to the meaning of a sentence. Try to be less wordy and more to the point. Say your sentences to yourself with fewer words and see if the meaning stays the same. If so, use the version with fewer words. The following is a wordy sentence:

“Under all circumstances and in every case, always check the oil level in your car when you stop at a service station.”

This can be written so that it’s more to the point, as shown in the following example:

“Always check the oil level of your car when you stop at a service station.”

Jargon

Jargon consists of “shorthand” words, phrases, or abbreviations that are known only to a relatively small group of people. You should avoid jargon for two reasons:

- **Your audience may not understand what you are saying or writing.**
- **Your message will be unclear when you rely on overused phrases as a substitute for original thinking.**

Always choose your words carefully and know what they mean. Do not depend on phrases that add syllables but not substance. For example, a jargon-filled sentence might read like the following:

Semi-permanent dyadic relationships provide the adolescent with the opportunities for trialing that make for a more secure union in the third and fourth decades.

This can be reworked for clarity by cutting out the jargon, as shown in the following example:

Going steady when you are a teenager helps prepare you for marriage later on.

Overuse of “To Be” and “To Have”

Relying too heavily on forms of “to be” and “to have” as main verbs will diminish the effectiveness of your sentences. These words lack force as main verbs and do not establish the clearest possible relationship between the subject of a sentence and its predicate. When possible, substitute a verb that more clearly expresses action than “to be” or “to have.” For example, the following sentence shows little imagination:

“Ms. Smith was at the office door.”

By changing the verb so that it’s clearer, the reader gets a better idea of what Ms. Smith was doing.

“Ms. Smith stood at the office door.”

Active and Passive Voice Sentences

Sometimes the same sentence can be written in more than one way. Consider the following:

“The lawyer had won the case.”

“The case had been won by the lawyer.”

The first example emphasizes the lawyer. It tells you something about the lawyer. The lawyer is the subject of the sentence. Because the lawyer is the one that did something (won the case), and you are writing about the lawyer, this is called active voice.

The second example emphasizes the case. It tells you something about the case. The case is the subject of the sentence. Because the case is the object that had something done to it (it was won by the lawyer), and you are writing about the case, this is called passive voice. The following are examples of active and passive voice:

Active: “Babe Ruth hit the ball.”

Passive: “The ball was hit by Babe Ruth.”

The passive voice is less direct and less forceful than the active voice. Use the active voice whenever possible, unless it does not convey the meaning you intended.

Organizing a Paragraph

A paragraph is a collection of sentences logically arranged and focused on a narrowly defined topic. Similar to sentences, paragraphs rarely occur alone. They are parts of larger units: the business letter, the memorandum, or the essay for school.

Learning about the composition of paragraphs is important in that the success of any larger form is entirely dependent on the success of its component parts. A letter

will fail to communicate if any of its paragraphs are poorly structured or poorly developed.

The Topic Sentence

The topic sentence tells the reader the main idea of the entire paragraph. The topic sentence should be just broad enough and narrow enough to allow approximately five to seven sentences about the topic. Depending on the topic, there could be more sentences. If some of your sentences are about a different subject, perhaps you should be starting a new paragraph with a new topic sentence.

Use topic sentences as an aid in organizing your writing. When you properly focus a topic sentence, you have a solid basis upon which to include or exclude information as you write a paragraph.

A good topic sentence also enables the reader to anticipate the contents of a paragraph and thus to follow your ideas as they are expressed.

Conclusion

Written communication is another way we transfer ideas among ourselves; however, your message has to be perceived the way you intended it to be perceived.

You must understand your audience and your purpose for writing. You should conduct research and write to support your ideas. You should decide on an organization for your information and outline your ideas.

After you start writing, you need to understand some fundamentals of the English language. For people to respect and respond to your message, they must not be distracted by poor writing or inappropriate language. Follow the basic rules and people will pay attention to your ideas, and be impressed by your ability to express yourself.

Lesson Review

1. Name the three elements of a paper.
2. What is a thesis statement? Why is it important?
3. Give an example of writing to a specific audience. Create two sentences—one for a beginning-level audience, and one for an advanced-level audience.
4. What jargon do you use in everyday speech? Who understands this jargon, and who doesn't?

Lesson 2

Creating Better Speeches



Key Terms

articulate
commemorative
demographics
dramatic statement
descriptive
eye contact
impromptu
logical
modulation
operational
persuasive
statement
tone
vocal qualities
volume

What You Will Learn to Do

- Write a speech for a specific purpose

Linked Core Abilities

- Communicate using verbal, non-verbal, visual, and written techniques

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain along the Way

- Identify ways to create interesting speech introductions
- Compare different types of speeches and different occasions for which speeches are used
- Describe how to organize effective speeches
- Define key words contained in this lesson

Chapter 6

Introduction

Key Note Term

eye contact – looking someone directly in the eyes.

Key Note Term

impromptu – without planning or rehearsal.

commemorative – honoring the memory of; speaking in honor of.

Throughout your life you will be asked to give speeches. These speeches may be formal presentations or just a few words at an informal occasion. Whatever the situation, you will probably feel nervous, but don't worry. This is natural. Most people become anxious when someone asks them to talk in front of a group. Relax, establish **eye contact** with your audience, and tell them what you want them to know in your own words. After the first minute, you should begin to feel more comfortable. You will then be well on your way to delivering a successful speech.

One of the best ways to be a successful speaker is to be completely prepared. Although this may not be possible with an **impromptu** speech, preparing for other types of speeches, such as a **commemorative** speech, will require an organized and designed speech.

The six basic steps of preparing for public speaking are:

- **Analyze the purpose and audience**
- **Conduct your research**
- **Support your points**
- **Organize your information**
- **Draft and edit your speech**
- **Practice, practice, practice**

Analyze Purpose and Audience

It's important to understand the purpose of your speech as well as to whom the speech is directed. Is your speech to sway opinion? Is it to report on a specific topic? Does your audience know anything about the topic, or are you presenting a new idea? This section discusses these issues when creating and presenting your speech.

Purpose

It is important to identify the purpose of your speech because it will keep you focused as you analyze your audience and begin to organize your speech.

The purpose of a speech depends upon the type of speech you are giving (or required to give), your topic, and the audience level. In some cases, there may be a general purpose and/or a specific purpose. You may make decisions along the way based on the purpose of your speech. The general purpose for an informative speech might simply be to inform the audience about your topic. A specific purpose, however, states the main idea (or ideas) of the speech. The specific purpose should be written in one sentence to ensure that its intent is clear and concise. For example, if you are

giving a speech to an eighth grade graduating class on the advantages of taking Army JROTC, the following statements could represent your topic, general purpose, and specific purpose:

- **Topic:** Army JROTC
- **General Purpose:** To inform eighth graders about JROTC
- **Specific Purpose:** To inform the graduating class at Center Middle School about the advantages of taking Army JROTC in their ninth grade year at Lakeview High School.

Audience

The goal of every speech and speechmaker is to win a response from the listeners. To accomplish this, you need to have some basic knowledge about your audience. This might include:

- What knowledge does the audience already have about this topic?
- What additional information will the listeners most want to know about the topic?
- What particular aspects of the topic will be most relevant to the audience?
- What is the audience's attitude about this topic?
- How can you best gain and hold their interest and attention?
- What do you need to think about as far as language level of the audience?
- What interests do you share with your listeners?
- What is the occasion of the speech?
- How much time should you allow for your speech?

Additionally, you should try to learn some **demographics** about the audience. Demographics are statistical information about groups of people. This data tells you about group characteristics, not individuals. You can learn about the audience's:

- Age
- Occupation
- Religion
- Ethnic or cultural background
- Gender
- Physical characteristics
- Economic status
- Educational background
- Political affiliations

Key Note Term

demographics – dealing with the vital and social conditions of people.

You can learn about your audience by personal observation, information from others, interviews, and questionnaires.

The more you know about your audience, the more you can gear your talk toward their needs and interests, and the less likely you will be to offend anyone.

The best speakers focus on the audience. Good speakers know that the best collection of information will not substitute for a good audience analysis.

Select a Topic

Sometimes a topic is assigned to you; other times you are given the opportunity to select your own topic. There are several methods that can be used to make a selection, including:

- **Analyze your own interests.**
- **List broad categories of topics or subtopics under one broad category.**
- **Engage in personal brainstorming to list as many topics as you can think of in a short amount of time.**
- **Identify current topics of interest in the news.**
- **Cluster topics to think of a concept or an idea which you know something, write and circle it in the middle of the page, and then spend about ten minutes letting your mind freely associate other topics related to the concept. This is different from just listing various topics because with clustering, all the topics are related in some way. After you have finished, you can pick the pieces that can be developed into a speech. Ask yourself the following questions:**
 - **Are you interested in the topic?**
 - **Will you enjoy talking about this topic?**
 - **Do you want to entertain, inform, or persuade?**
 - **What can you do to make the topic more interesting?**
 - **Will the topic offend some members of your audience?**
 - **Does the occasion of the speech have a special purpose?**
 - **Do you know anything about this topic?**
 - **Do you have any interest in learning about this topic?**

After you have selected your topic, confirm whether it is appropriate for your audience and for yourself. Is it appropriate ethically, and is it appropriate for the occasion? Narrow the topic appropriately for your time constraints, and you are ready to conduct your research.

Get Started

The general purpose and the specific purpose of the speech are developed early in the speech preparation process, usually before you conduct any research. You do, however, need to have a certain amount of information to write a thesis **statement**, such as:

- **Topic:** Army JROTC
- **General Purpose:** To inform eighth graders about service learning
- **Specific Purpose:** To inform the graduating class at Center Middle School about the advantages of participating in service learning and how they can get started.
- **Thesis Statement:** Participating in service learning will allow you to learn outside the traditional classroom environment and help fill a need in the community.

The thesis statement is a one-sentence summary of the speech. It acts like the topic sentence in a written composition. It is a complete sentence that tells exactly what your speech is about. After you have your general and specific purposes and your thesis statement, you are ready to conduct your research.

Key Note Term

statement – the act of stating, declaring, or narrating.

Conduct Your Research

There are many ways to conduct research on your topic. These ways include:

- Personal experience
- Newspapers
- On-line newspapers
- Public libraries
- Library catalog
- Reference works
- Periodicals
- Non-print materials
- On-line libraries
- School libraries
- State/local agencies on-line
- Personal interviews

Personal Interviews

Personal interviews can be helpful if they are easily obtainable. The information-gathering interview is an especially valuable form of research. The interview allows you to view your topic from an expert's perspective, to take advantage of that expert's years of experience, research, and thought. You can use an interview to collect facts and to stimulate your own thinking. Often the interview will save you hours of library research and allow you to present ideas that you could not have uncovered any other way. And because the interview is a face-to-face interaction with an expert, many ideas that otherwise would be unclear can become more understandable.

Why Research?

Research is used to increase speech effectiveness as well as to enhance your credibility. You will want to know the most recent information. Knowing about any new controversies and the latest information will help you understand the audience's attitudes and will assist you in developing strategies for the best approach.

Remember to write down where you are finding all your information. You may need to go back and find more data, and you also need to give credit to your sources during your speech.

Support Your Points

Knowing the details that support the ideas within your speech will allow the audience to look at you as an expert. They will be more likely to give you their undivided attention. There is an art to giving a credible and well-supported speech. Support for your points can come in several forms.

Facts and Figures

Facts and figures are statements and verifiable units of information. You can impress an audience if you include a lot of facts and figures. You must make sure they are accurate.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics explain things in terms of size or distribution. These statistics are powerful because they give the impression that they are the result of a thorough scientific study. When evaluating statistics one should consider the source, seek multiple sources, cite the statistic completely, and try to use current and relevant statistics.

For example, if you were naming someone as the greatest tennis player of all time, just making the statement is not as impressive as giving the statistics that support the statement.

Statements by Authority

Statements of authority let you “borrow” the credibility of the expert.

In the example of naming the world’s greatest tennis player of all time, if you can also quote a well-known tennis player as agreeing with your estimation, that would carry a lot more credibility.

Narratives

Narratives are examples in the form of stories. Audiences will often listen to narratives when they will not listen to anything else. Be sure that the audience sees the relationship between the story and the point you are making. Narratives should always have a beginning, middle, and end, and should be interesting, while avoiding unnecessary details and excessive length.

Definitions

There are three types of definitions: logical, descriptive, and operational. A **logical** definition is the dictionary definition. A **descriptive** definition describes how a word derives from the root word of its culture. **Operational** definitions tell how the object relates to how it works or operates.

Humor

If you are trying to build credibility, humor can be effective because people like to hear a good joke, and they are likely to remember it and associate it with serious ideas. Political candidates use humor in their speeches.

Remember, only use humor at appropriate times during the speech. There are clearly some speeches where the use of humor would not be appropriate at all. When explaining to a group of youngsters why their behavior was inappropriate, humor may be out of place.

Logic, Testimony, Statistics, and Facts

Logic, testimony, statistics, and facts are the support types that can prove your points. Without this support, the points you make in a speech will be less **persuasive**.

Supporting information will also clarify, add interest to, and make memorable your points.

Outline Your Information

After you have gathered information and found the supporting logic, facts, testimonies, or statistics, the next step is to create an outline of your information.

Outlining your points will help you see the main themes in your speech, let you add to your notes, and ensure your speech will flow naturally. You can write an outline in words and phrases or in complete sentences, but it is best to use as few complete

Key Note Term

logical – the dictionary definition.

Key Note Term

descriptive – describes how a word derives from the root of its culture.

Key Note Term

operational – tells how the object relates to how it works or operates.

Key Note Term

persuasive – have the power to persuade.

sentences as possible. By avoiding complete sentences, you will limit the temptation to just read your speech from your notes.

When outlining your main points and supporting ideas, make sure that all of them support the goal and purpose of the speech.

There are several ways to organize the information. Before you start, think about the various alternatives available to you.

- **Topical organization allows you to present several ideas related to one topic. These ideas follow a logical order. This is one of the most common ways to organize ideas.**
- **Chronological organization uses time sequence for the framework. Chronological organization is important for speeches that require background information.**
- **Spatial organization orders material according to physical space. You may use spatial order in speeches involving geographical locations.**
- **Classification puts topics into categories. This pattern fits many speeches.**
- **Problem/Solution puts the problem in the first part of the outline, and the solution into the second part.**
- **Cause/Effect organization describes the cause of a problem in the first part of the outline, and describes the effect in the second part.**

Regardless of how you format your outline, it should contain the following elements:

- **The title**
- **The specific purpose**
- **The thesis statement**
- **The introduction, which may be outlined or written in full**
- **The body of the speech in outline format**
- **The conclusion of the speech, which may be outlined or written in full**
- **A bibliography of sources or references consulted**

Write an Introduction

After you have an outline of the information that is the body of your speech, you need to think about how you will introduce the information. The introduction accomplishes the following:

- **Grabs the audience's attention**
- **Introduces the topic**
- **Shows the importance of the topic**
- **Presents the thesis of the topic**
- **Forecasts the major ideas**

There are many ways to get the attention of your audience. You can:

- **Wait for silence**
- **Tell a joke**
- **Tell a story related to the topic or about your research**
- **Ask a question**
- **Quote a famous person**
- **Make a **dramatic statement****
- **Use a gimmick**
- **Compliment the audience**
- **Point to an historical event**
- **Refer to the occasion**

Key Note Term

dramatic statement – a phrase or sentence meant to capture the attention of the audience

Different types of speeches require different types of introductions. You need to decide what will work for your topic and your audience.

Within the introduction, give a “preview” of your presentation. The preview is usually only a sentence or two long. Be brief and be clear. After the introduction, your audience should know exactly what you are talking about and, in some cases, why.

The Body of Your Speech

The body of your speech should take about 75 percent of the allotted time. In this main section of the speech you want to reinforce your general and specific purposes. Support your main idea with examples. These ideas should be carried throughout the speech in a logical order, being supported by data.

The main body of the speech is typically divided into main points, usually two to five. These main points should be similarly worded and approximately equal in importance.

Make sure you use words that your audience will understand. Eliminate complex sentences and try to speak as naturally as possible. Make the body of the speech similar to the body of a report: organized, concise, and to the point.

Write a Conclusion

The conclusion of a speech is also similar to the conclusion of a report. The conclusion should be short and review the main ideas. Wrap up your ideas and remember to leave time for your audience to ask questions. Do not rush through the conclusion. This is your final opportunity to tell the audience that you are an informed and confident speaker.

The conclusion can be very effective when it ends with a surprising statement. Such a statement can make your presentation unforgettable.

Transitions

Transitions are statements that connect different parts of your speech. Transitions look back at what you have stated and connect it with the next item you are discussing. It is especially important to have a transition between your introduction and the body of your speech, and the body of your speech and your conclusion. Adding transitions make your speech sound polished and prepared.

Use Visual Aids

Visual aids can be a stimulating part of your speech. They allow the speaker the freedom to use overheads, slides, charts, pictures, film, or anything else that helps your audience relate to the topic. Visual aids can be hand written or drawn, or they can be computer generated. Usually, visual aids are prepared ahead of time. Occasionally, they can be drawn, on chart paper or a board, during the presentation. This is usually when input from the audience is required.

Visual aids are successful when they help keep the audience interested in the topic. You can use them to support any part of your speech. For example, visual aids can capture the audience's attention in the introduction, support your main idea(s) in the body, and leave the audience with a favorable impression during the conclusion.

If you decide to use visual aids, do not let them distract you. Prepare your visual aids ahead of time and practice with them. Do not display them until you are ready to use them. When you are finished with a visual aid, remove it or cover it so it does not distract your audience. Try to use only a few visual aids. Visual aids should add to your speech, not be the main substance of your speech.

When you give your speech, make sure you focus your attention on the audience. Do not talk to your visual aids, or turn your back to the audience. Make sure the point of the visual aid is clear to the audience. If you are giving out materials such as handouts, do not give them out during your speech. Distribute them before or after the speech.

Practice

You have probably heard the expression "Practice makes perfect." This is definitely true in speech preparation. The more you practice, the more polished you will sound, and the less you will have to rely on your notes.

Practice in front of the mirror, your family; or one or more friends. If you can, take a “dry run” in the room in which you will deliver the actual speech. Use your visual aids to make sure they work. Perhaps you can even record yourself practicing and see how it sounds. You may hear some places where you are not communicating effectively. Each time you practice you will find ways to improve your speech.

Note

When you practice your speech, be sure to time how long it takes you. You might need to add more material, or cut some, depending on the length of time you have to present. And be sure to have your practice “audience” ask questions.

During the Presentation

If you have analyzed your audience, done your research, organized the information, written your outline or notes, and practiced your delivery, you are almost done. Of course, you still need to deliver the actual speech!

There are certain steps you must remember:

- **Capture the audience's attention.**
- **Establish eye contact.**
- **Articulate** your words. Do not mumble.
- **Stand up straight, do not shift your body and shuffle your feet. Do not put your hands in your pockets.**
- **Do not use phrases such as “okay,” “you know,” “um,” “I mean,” and “well.”**
- **Establish an acceptable volume. Do not screech or use a monotone voice.**
- **Do not talk to your visual aids. Face the audience at all times.**

Key Note Term

articulate – to speak clearly and effectively.

Presentation Guidelines

Here are some guidelines for ethical speech and delivery in communication:

- **Understand the power of the lectern. Being in front of people gives you a certain amount of credibility.**
- **Speak truthfully and be sure of your facts.**
- **Be willing to rock the boat. Stand for what you believe, but do not alarm your audience.**
- **Do not lie.**
- **Avoid excess and inappropriate emotional appeals.**
- **Use credible and current sources.**
- **Avoid ambiguity. Be concrete in your statements.**

Key Note Term

vocal qualities – the characteristics of someone's speaking voice.

Key Note Term

volume – the amplitude or loudness of a sound.

Key Note Term

tone – a sound of distinct pitch, loudness, vibration, quality, or duration; the particular or relative pitch of a word or phrase.

modulation – to change or vary the pitch, intensity, or tone.

Verbal Communication

In verbal communication, it is up to you to use your voice and **vocal qualities** to drive home your ideas and information. You have control over rate, volume, pitch, pause, articulation, and pronunciation. Your voice can help you in the following ways:

Rate

The rate at which you speak is very important. It should not be too fast or too slow. Vary the rate at which you speak to add emphasis to your presentation.

Volume

Volume is another verbal technique that can add emphasis to your speech. Make sure you can be heard in the back of the room.

Pitch

Pitch is the use of notes (higher or lower) in a voice range. Speak in a range and **tone** that is comfortable for you and move up or down your scale for emphasis. **Modulation** in your voice will keep the audience listening.

Pause

Pause gives you time to take a breath and collect your thoughts. It also gives the audience time to absorb your points and ideas.

Articulation/Pronunciation

Articulation is the art of speaking intelligibly and making proper sounds. Listen to yourself and make your words distinct and understandable. The more clearly you articulate, the more confident you will sound.

Even if you articulate clearly, you can still mispronounce a word. Mispronunciation distracts listeners from focusing on the content of the speech.

Conclusion

Speech is the most widely used medium of communication. The main purpose of any speech or presentation is to deliver clear and specific ideas to the listeners. Preparing and practicing your speech is the best way to have a positive speaking experience.

You will have many opportunities to give speeches during your life. The better prepared you are, the more comfortable you will feel, and the more successful you will be. Giving speeches is a science with definitions, terms, and processes. Study these and practice them, and you will soon be a competent speaker.

Lesson Review

1. Why is it important to analyze the purpose of your speech?
2. Define the term “demographic.”
3. Choose three ways to get your audience’s attention and explain how these work.
4. During a dry-run practice, what can you do if your speech is too long or too short?

Lesson 3

Becoming a Better Speaker



Key Terms

constructive criticism
coping strategy

What You Will Learn to Do

- Present a speech for a specific purpose

Linked Core Abilities

- Communicate using verbal, non-verbal, visual, and written techniques

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain along the Way

- Identify ways to improve speaking skills
- Develop a plan to improve speaking ability by avoiding common mistakes
- Develop coping strategies for stressful speaking situations
- Define key words contained in this lesson

Introduction

Most individuals spend seven out of every ten waking hours communicating; three-fourths of this communication is through speech. The average person speaks some 34,020 words a day. That is equal to several books a week, more than 12 million words a year. With all that speaking, the likelihood of an individual being asked to give a speech is high.

When you were younger, being the center of attention was probably fun. Now that you are older, you are probably much more concerned with your appearance and what people think of you. You may be much more nervous about public speaking. With the right knowledge and practice, you can minimize this nervousness.

Speeches are not made alone in a room. When you give a speech, there is always an audience. You and the audience have a two-way relationship. You give the speech to the audience. In turn, the audience gives you their attention and reaction, called feedback. The advantage of oral communication is that it is a face-to-face process of mutual give and take.

At some point, you will be asked to speak in front of your class, at a family gathering, at a club group, or some other public environment. Perhaps you have already experienced these situations. If so, you know that being nervous can be the hardest hurdle to overcome.

Note

“The human brain is a wonderful thing. It operates from the moment you are born until the first time you get up to make a speech.” – Howard Goshorn

Coping with Nervousness

Recent studies show that speaking in front of a group is by far the greatest fear of most people. It ranks ahead of the fear of dying, riding in an airplane, or failure in other areas of one's personal life.

You have probably already had to talk in front of a group of people. You may have felt one or more of the common symptoms of nervousness. These include:

- **Shaking knees**
- **Dry mouth**
- **Quivering voice**
- **Stomach pains**
- **Loss of memory**

Coping Strategies

One of the most important concepts on which you should focus when you are nervous about speaking in public is that you are not alone. Whatever group you are facing, look around and realize that you have something in common with everyone there. Every person you see has been, or will be, in your situation at some time. In many cases, such as classroom speaking, you are all members of the same group.

Note

“There are two types of speakers: those that are nervous and those that are liars.”
– Mark Twain

Key Note Term

coping strategy – technique used for dealing with a difficult situation.

Another **coping strategy** to deal with nervousness is to realize that you look more confident than you actually feel. Think about all the newscasters you have seen on television. Many of them have said that they feel “stage fright,” yet it is rarely noticeable. Look how many instructors must stand before a classroom and keep the attention of their students. For many individuals, being “in the spotlight” is their profession or career. For other individuals, presenting a speech is an occasional event, such as in speech classes. For everyone, feeling the symptoms of nervousness is ordinary, but it rarely shows.

Keep in mind that your listeners are there to hear what you have to say. Assume they are a friendly crowd. They are not “out to get you.” They are waiting to learn some interesting information.

Another important point to remember is to concentrate on your speech content. Do not concentrate on how you are saying it. If you are discussing a subject in which you are interested, the audience will perceive this. If you are more focused on your gestures and your emphasis on certain words, both you and the audience will be distracted.

Be aware of your nervousness before you begin and deal with it. Take some deep breaths and perhaps even do some stretches. Give yourself some time to collect your thoughts.

The best way of all to overcome nervousness is to know that you are prepared. Proper preparation and rehearsal can help to reduce fear by 75 percent. Practice your speech in front of a mirror. Try to practice enough so that your use of notes will be minimal. If you know your subject very well, and are solidly prepared, you will balance your nervousness with a strong feeling of confidence. The audience will see your level of confidence.

To review, the following are some strategies for coping with and overcoming nervousness:

- **Look at the audience and know that they all feel nervous when giving a speech.**
- **Remember that the audience is there to hear what you have to say.**

- **Concentrate on the subject.**
- **Keep in mind that your nervousness does not show.**
- **Prepare, prepare, prepare.**
- **Practice, practice, practice.**
- **Breathe deeply.**

Tips for Presentation

After you have gathered the necessary information for your speech, you are ready to present it. When you stand before your audience, remember the strategies for dealing with nervousness. Take a few seconds, breathe deeply, and begin your presentation. Proper breathing techniques can reduce fear by 15 percent.

Remember to be yourself. Think positively while you are in front of the audience. Know that the audience is there to learn and listen.

Establish eye contact with members of the audience. Some members of the audience may not return the eye contact. The solution is to establish eye contact with the individuals who are returning your interested look. Remember, this is the way to begin talking with your audience and not just to them. You are communicating with both your words and your eyes.

When you are giving a speech, you should not read from your notes. Only glance at your notes occasionally, to be sure that you are following the outline and format of your speech.

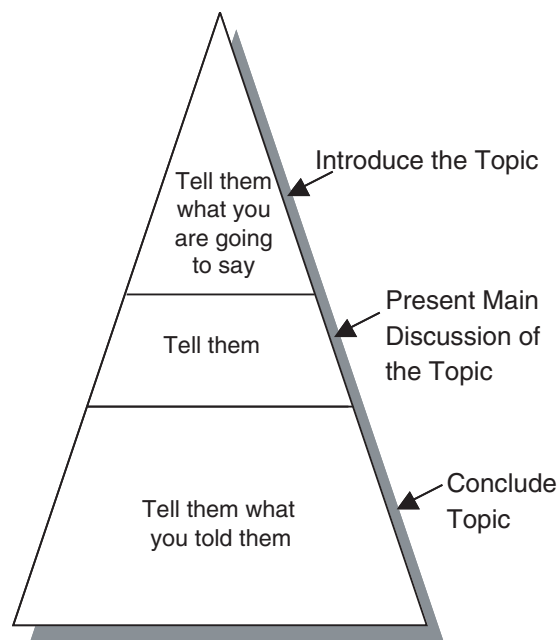
Try to avoid a lot of body shifting. The movements and gestures you make can be very distracting to the audience. Shuffling your feet or scratching your ear will cause the audience to lose concentration.

Also avoid those interrupting pauses such as, “Uh,” “You know,” “I mean,” “Well,” and “So.” Adding these phrases is a very common habit for speakers. It can also be a hard habit to break, and one that will take some effort and concentration.

Everyone makes mistakes when they are speaking. If you accidentally say a wrong word or you suddenly lose track of where you are, do not panic, but attempt to smile. Smiling through your fumbles tells the audience that although you made a slight mistake, you are still in control of the situation. Correct it if it is an important point. If it is not, disregard your blunder and continue with your presentation. Go a little more slowly and take your time, maintaining your concentration.

What is equally important in giving a speech is concluding it. When you are finished, do not rush back to your seat. Be professional and ask if anyone has any questions. Look around with composure and if there are no questions, politely say, “Thank you” and go sit down. If there are questions, answer them as well as you can. If the information has already been covered in the speech, do not give an extensive explanation. Be brief. Remember—you are the expert on the subject.

Figure 6.3.1: Introduce, present, and conclude your topic.



Basic Speech Structure

All types of speeches basically have a beginning, middle, and an end. They use a standard format for organization. You tell the audience what you are going to say, you say the main part of your speech, and then you tell the audience what you told them. This is shown in Figure 6.3.1.

While preparing your speech, follow the six basic steps to effective speech writing.

1. **Analyze the purpose of the speech and the audience.**
2. **Conduct research and gather information.**
3. **Support your ideas.**
4. **Organize all the material.**
5. **Draft and edit the speech.**
6. **Practice and get feedback.**

Types of Speeches

There are several major categories of speeches. These categories include:

- **Informative**
- **Persuasive**
- **Actuating**

- **Argumentative**
- **Entertaining**
- **Impromptu**

The purpose of each speech varies, depending on what you are attempting to accomplish as a speaker.

The Informative Speech

The speech to inform does exactly what it says—it informs or tells the audience about something. It delivers information so that the audience can grasp and remember important data about the subject. The goal is for the audience to accomplish understanding of the subject. An example is a presentation on how to gain rank in JROTC.

The Persuasive Speech

The speech to persuade attempts to change the audience's minds and/or behavior toward something. An example is persuading other students to become cadets.

The Actuating Speech

The speech to actuate is a motivating speech similar to the persuasive speech, but the difference is that the speech to actuate calls for immediate action. For example, suppose your school principal announces that the school team needs to be encouraged about a big upcoming game. The resulting action may be in the form of a school pep rally.

The Argumentative Speech

The argumentative speech must be structured as most other speeches. It must rely on logical appeals. This type of speech is also known as a kind of reasoned persuasion. Many debates in social and political fields are based on this kind of speech. Another common example is the closing argument an attorney makes during a courtroom trial.

The Entertaining Speech

The speech to entertain is used to relay a message in an entertaining manner. Humor plays an important part in this speech. For this reason, the entertaining speech can be difficult to present because humor is of a personal nature. If an entertaining speech is presented well, however, it can be very effective. When someone is being honored, very often another person will make a humorous speech about the honoree, perhaps telling a funny story about the person.

The Impromptu Speech

The impromptu speech is something a little different because most impromptu speeches are presented without elaborate preparation. The word “impromptu” means “to do something without preparation or advance thought—off-hand.” Here are some tips, benefits, and techniques related to impromptu speaking.

Note

“It usually takes me more than three weeks to prepare a good impromptu speech.”
– Mark Twain

Practicing

For beginners, impromptu speeches are necessary in helping the individual to gain self-confidence and the ability to “think on your feet.” Impromptu speaking is an effective training device. The more practice you have in giving impromptu speeches, the better qualified you will be to deliver prepared talks. Suppose your instructor asks you to stand up and give an impromptu presentation on why you decided to join the Army JROTC. Pause for a few seconds before you begin and collect your thoughts.

Benefits

If you sound smooth and polished when giving an impromptu speech, both you and your audience will be impressed. By practicing, you will be capable of putting your thoughts into logical order. You will talk clearly and convincingly to your audience without any notes. Remember that your audience will not be expecting an elaborate speech, but they are there to hear you tell them something of interest.

Techniques

The best way to be prepared for the “unprepared” is to stay up-to-date in your field of interest. Clipping and saving articles and reading newspapers or news magazines are ideal ways to do this. Communicating with people who share your area of interest also helps you broaden your understanding.

Imagine a storehouse in your mind where you will file these different bits of information. When you stand to speak “impromptu,” you will be prepared to pull out the needed data from your mental file. For example, reading up on Army JROTC and discussing your future in it with your instructor will add to your ability to discuss this subject with your audience.

One way to organize your thoughts for an impromptu speech is to use a “Past, Present, Future” format. Speak first about the past of the subject, such as the history of the Army JROTC and what has been done to increase the number of cadets; then, speak about the organization and the role it plays today by considering what is happening now and what kind of learning takes place. Finally, contemplate the future. Consider what things may change, what improvements may be made, and where Army JROTC may be ten years from now.

Another procedure to use in your presentation is to support your ideas with examples or statistics. In addition, try to find experiences from your past that will add to your speech and make your points believable. For example, suppose your instructor asked you to make a speech about seatbelts and whether or not you favor a mandatory law for wearing them. You could talk about how you feel wearing seatbelts is a wonderful idea. But, most people already know that. You would not be telling them anything they did not already know. Instead, state why a mandatory law is a good idea by attaching it to something you have seen, heard, or read in the news. You could say something like “I read in the newspaper the other day that a family of four survived a car accident because they were wearing seatbelts. The report said that if it were not for that, they would have been thrown violently from their car. More than likely, they all would have died.”

Also, always be sure to take your time. Of course, some situations require a minimum or maximum time. Remember that you will need to collect your thoughts and to wait for the audience to quiet down. Most importantly, do not rush head-on into your presentation. Concentrate on what you are saying and what you want to say.

Finally, try to stay on the subject. Keep focusing on the topic in your mind so that your examples or stories are extended from that basis. Practicing at home will help you be prepared in the classroom or anywhere the impromptu situation arises. Pick any object in your room or any story in the newspaper. Contemplate what you could say about it. Speak about the item while timing yourself.

Tips for Impromptu Speaking

Remember the following techniques to improve impromptu speaking:

- **Stay knowledgeable on a variety of topics.**
- **Try a format such as “Past, Present, Future.”**
- **Support your ideas with examples or statistics.**
- **Add personal experiences.**
- **Do not rush. Collect your thoughts.**
- **Concentrate on what you are saying.**
- **Stay on subject.**
- **Practice giving impromptu speeches.**

Constructive Feedback

Sometimes you will be called upon to provide feedback on another person's speech. It is important to realize that feedback need not always be negative or destructive. It should be **constructive criticism**.

Key Note Term

constructive criticism – feedback that is helpful and productive.

The purpose of giving feedback is to improve someone's performance in some way. In its most effective form, it provides constructive advice, direction, and guidance, in an effort to raise performance levels.

Effective feedback stresses both strengths and suggestions for improvement. In giving constructive feedback, you must be straightforward and honest; you must also respect the speaker's personal feelings. Feedback is pointless unless the speaker profits from it; however, praise just for the sake of praise has no value unless the only goal is to motivate or improve self-concept.

Effective feedback reflects your consideration of the speaker's need for self-esteem, recognition, confidence, and the approval of others. Ridicule, anger, or fun at the expense of the speaker have no place in constructive feedback.

To give constructive feedback, listen carefully to the speaker. Focus on the following:

- **The actual content of a speaker's effort.**
- **What actually happened during the speech?**
- **The observed factors that affected performance of the speech.**

Conclusion

Speech is the most widely used medium of communication. The main purpose of any speech or presentation is to deliver clear and specific ideas to the listeners. Practicing the impromptu speech is an ideal way for many individuals to gain self-confidence and the ability to communicate "on their feet."

Although fear of speaking is common, studies show that one of the most admired qualities in others is their ability to speak in front of a group.

Similar to writing, speaking is a skill. After you grasp the basics, the rest is practice, polish, and style. You may be embarrassed by initial mistakes, but you will survive. Few of us will become great speakers, but all of us can become more effective speakers if we take the time to practice the basics.

Lesson Review

1. **Explain one of your coping strategies that work for you when you're nervous.**
2. **What is the basic speech structure?**
3. **List the six different types of speeches covered in this lesson.**
4. **Compare and contrast constructive and destructive criticism.**

Managing Conflict

Chapter 7

Lesson 1

Managing Anger



Key Terms

anger management
aggression
assertion
change orientation
deference
empathy

What You Will Learn to Do

- Apply anger management strategies

Linked Core Abilities

- Take responsibility for your actions and choices
- Treat self and others with respect

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain along the Way

- Determine the common causes and effects of anger in interpersonal relationships
- Select strategies for controlling anger
- Explain the role of empathy in reducing anger
- Define key words contained in this lesson

Introduction

At some point in life, every human being feels angry. Anger is usually a healthy and normal emotion, but for some it can get out of control and become destructive. Uncontrolled anger can lead to failed relationships, loss of employment, and physical illness. It can also cause hurt feelings, frustration, annoyance, harassment, **aggression**, disappointment, and threats. This lesson is designed to help you understand the nature of anger, and how to manage it.

Key Note Term

aggression – a tendency to be hostile or quarrelsome.

Understanding What Causes Anger

According to Dr. Charles Spielberger, anger can be explained and defined as “an emotional state that varies in intensity from mild irritation to intense fury and rage.” Similar to other emotions, anger is usually accompanied by physiological and biological changes; when you get angry, your heart rate and blood pressure go up, as do the levels of your energy hormones, adrenaline, and noradrenaline. Other physical symptoms of anger can include:

- Headaches
- Gastrointestinal disorders
- Respiratory disorders
- Skin disorders
- Disabilities of the nervous system
- Circulatory disorders
- Aggravation of existing physical symptoms
- Emotional disturbances
- Suicide

Note

Dr. Charles Spielberger is a leading researcher in the link between anger and heart failure. He is a recipient of the APA Award for Distinguished Professional Contributions to Applied Psychology as a Professional Practice. Dr. Spielberger is currently on staff at the University of South Florida.

Anger can be triggered by external or internal events. For example, you could get angry at a fellow student or supervisor, or at being in the slow line at the grocery store. Memories of traumatic or enraging events can also trigger angry feelings.

Expressing Anger

For many, the natural way to express anger is to respond in an aggressive manner. Anger is an adaptive response to threats that can inspire powerful, often aggressive, feelings and behaviors. These feelings allow humans to fight and to defend themselves when attacked. When faced with survival, a certain amount of anger is healthy and necessary; however, lashing out at nearly every person or event that causes you to feel angry isn't appropriate or productive.

The three main approaches to managing anger are expressing, suppressing, and calming. Expressing your angry feelings in an assertive—not aggressive—manner is the healthiest way. To do this, you have to learn how to make clear what your needs are, and how to get them met without emotionally or physically hurting others. Being assertive doesn't mean being pushy or demanding; it means being respectful of yourself and others.

Unexpressed anger can create other serious problems. It can lead to pathological expressions of anger, such as passive-aggressive behavior (getting back at people indirectly without telling them why, rather than confronting them) or a personality that seems cynical and hostile. People who are constantly putting others down, criticizing everything, and making cynical comments haven't learned how to constructively express their anger.

Anger can be suppressed, and then converted or redirected. This happens when you hold in your anger, stop thinking about it, and focus on something positive. The aim is to inhibit or suppress your anger and convert it into more constructive behavior. The danger in this type of response is that if it isn't allowed outward expression, your anger can turn inward—on yourself. Anger turned inward may cause hypertension, high blood pressure, ulcers, or depression.

Another method for controlling anger is to calm yourself down inside. This means not just controlling your outward behavior, but also controlling your internal responses, taking steps to lower your heart rate, calm yourself down, and let the feelings subside.

Anger Management

Key Note Term

anger management – learning to control and manage the emotion of anger; managing your anger so it comes out in a healthy and constructive way.

Anger management reduces your emotional feelings and the physiological changes that anger causes. You can't get rid of, or avoid, the events, objects, or people that make you angry, nor can you change them; however, you can learn to control your reactions to them.

What Makes People Angry

You have most likely met someone who is more “hotheaded” than others. This person gets angry more easily than others, and is more intense than the average person. There are also those who don't show their anger by raising their voice, but

are irritable and grumpy. Easily angered people don't always yell and throw things; sometimes they withdraw socially, sulk, or get physically ill. People who are easily angered can't take things in stride, and they're particularly infuriated if the situation seems somehow unjust, such as being corrected for a minor mistake.

So, why do some people get more angry than others? Genetics might have something to do with it. There is evidence that some children are born irritable, touchy, and easily angered, and that these signs are present from a very early age. Another reason may be sociocultural where anger is looked at as a negative emotion. Those who aren't taught that it's perfectly normal to express anger in a healthy way don't learn how to handle it or channel it constructively.

To deal with and manage anger, it's best to find out what triggers angry feelings and then to develop strategies to keep those triggers from tipping you over the edge.

Strategies for Managing Anger

There are several ways that you can manage your anger and express it in a positive and constructive manner, and end up with the results you want. These strategies include learning to relax, changing the way you think, solving problems, and learning to communicate better. The following sections cover these strategies.

Using Relaxation to Manage Anger

Relaxation techniques can include deep breathing and relaxing imagery. It can help to breathe deeply from your diaphragm while slowly repeating to yourself a calming word or phrase such as "easy does it" or "relax." You can also use relaxing imagery, such as a relaxing experience from your memory, to calm yourself down. Try to imagine a calming picture in your head—maybe a day at a beach or listening to your favorite music—to help get your emotions under control. Learn to use these techniques whenever you're in a stressful or tense situation.

Changing Your Thinking

As a general rule, angry people swear or speak in highly colorful terms that reflect their inner thoughts. When you're angry, your thinking can become exaggerated and dramatic, and you may tend to see situations as absolutes. Try to avoid using words such as *never* or *always* when talking about yourself, someone else, or a specific situation. Instead of thinking that the situation is terrible and your life is ruined, try telling yourself that the situation is annoying, but it's not the end of the world. Keep in the front of your mind that getting angry is not going to fix anything, that it won't make you feel better, and that it may actually make you feel worse.

Change Orientation

Change orientation is a reflection of your level of satisfaction with your current behavior. Your view of how satisfied you are with yourself and the world around you is an important starting point for planning personal change. To engage in personal

Key Note Term

change orientation – a reflection of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with current emotional skills and abilities.

change and get your anger under control, you need to understand personal change, feel good about making person changes, and choose healthy way to make those changes. Some areas of self-reflection include:

- **How you feel about yourself as a person**
- **How you relate to your family**
- **If you are satisfied with the way you manage your time**
- **If you are satisfied with your leadership ability**
- **If you are satisfied with the way you handle personal relationships**
- **If you are satisfied with the way you relate to people**

Change orientation can be a tremendous tool in converting powerful emotions into positive change.

Solving Problems

Sometimes, anger and frustration are caused by real problems; not all anger is misplaced, and is often a healthy, natural response to difficulties. Many people believe that every problem has a solution, and it can add to your frustration to find out that this isn't always true. In situations that seem unsolvable, the best attitude to bring is not to focus on finding the solution, but rather on how you handle and face the problem.

Make a plan, and check your progress along the way. Resolve to give it your best, but also not to punish yourself if an answer doesn't come right away. If you can approach it with your best intentions and efforts and make a serious attempt to face it head-on, you will be less likely to lose patience and fall into all-or-nothing thinking, even if the problem does not get solved right away.

Learning to Communicate and Listen Better

Deference is the degree to which an individual employs a communication style or pattern that is indirect, self-inhibiting, self-denying, and ineffectual for the accurate expression of thoughts, feelings, or behaviors. It is reflected by communications that are indirect or that convey unclear or mixed messages. Deference can result in effective communications that negatively affect relationships.

Deferential behavior may actually make people angry at times because deference frequently masks suppressed anger or rage. People who are aware of their emotional states recognize anger and use positive self-assertion to negotiate the outcomes they seek. Sometimes deference is just good common sense, such as when you defer to an angry cop. But oftentimes deference takes the place of healthy self-assertion and ends up triggering more inner anger.

Key Note Term

deference – the degree to which a person uses a communication style or pattern that is indirect and ineffectual for accurate expression of thought and feeling.

When communicating anger, **assertion** is key. Assertive communication is a positive way of talking with people and clearly expressing thoughts and feelings in a way that promotes understanding, caring, and respect. A person who communicates assertively respects the right of others. It enables a person to communicate effectively, even during difficult situations that involve strong and intense emotions.

When you're confronted with an angry person in a heated discussion, slow down and think through your responses. Don't say the first thing that comes into your head, but rather think carefully about what you want to say. At the same time, listen carefully to what the other person is saying and take your time before answering.

Phrase your responses in as much of a calm and non-threatening manner as possible. Try to keep from becoming defensive and saying something that will cause the situation to escalate. Many times, if you show **empathy** towards an angry person's concern—listen carefully and share in that person's feelings—you can help to calm that person and get a volatile situation under control. By remaining calm and staying focused on what you're hearing as well as how you want to respond, you can manage an angry situation much better than just flying off the handle.

Getting Help

Did you get a payoff the last time you got angry? Did other people give you what you wanted because you were louder, tougher, stronger, and could intimidate them? This question reflects your character and self esteem—"I feel good about making others give in to me by becoming angry."

If you feel that your anger is out of control, or you can't figure out where your anger comes from, you might consider counseling to learn how to handle it better. A psychologist or other licensed mental health professional can work with you to develop a range of techniques for changing your thinking and your behavior. Tell a counselor, social worker, or therapist that you have problems with anger, you want to work on getting this emotion under control, and ask about an approach to anger management.

Key Note Term

assertion – the ability to clearly communicate personal thoughts and feelings.

Key Note Term

empathy – the ability to accurately understand and constructively respond to the expressed feelings, thought, behaviors, and needs of others.

Conclusion

Anger is a normal and healthy emotion, and it needs to be expressed. Learning how to constructively express anger and how to manage it is a skill that will benefit you throughout your entire life. You can use a variety of techniques covered in this lesson, from relaxation to better communications; but if these methods don't work for you, counseling is a good and healthy option.

Lesson Review

1. What physical and biological changes occur in the body when you get angry?
2. Choose a relaxation technique and explain it.
3. How can thinking about what you want to say in a heated discussion help to keep the situation under control?
4. Have you ever been in a situation that has gotten out of hand due to anger? What did you do? How did you handle this?

Lesson 2

Conflict Resolution and Diversity



Key Terms

anti-Semitism
bigotry
hate-related words
prejudice
racism
scapegoating
stereotype

What You Will Learn to Do

- Develop strategies for resolving conflict in a diverse, multicultural setting

Linked Core Abilities

- Do your share as a good citizen in your school, community, country, and the world
- Treat self and others with respect

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain along the Way

- Assess how age, race, ethnicity, gender, and other aspects of diversity impact perceptions of self and others
- Compare two or more points of view and the reasons behind them
- Clarify particular points of disagreement and agreement
- Identify appropriate intervention guidelines
- Identify techniques for reducing conflict within a diverse population
- Define key words contained in this lesson

Chapter 7

Key Note Term

stereotype – a formulated conception, notion, or attitude.

scapegoating – the action of blaming an individual or group for something when, in reality, there is no one person or group responsible for the problem. It targets another person or group as responsible for problems in society because of that person's group identity.

bigotry – bitter, intolerant, and prejudice.

anti-Semitism – feeling or showing hostility towards Jews; persecuting Jews.

Key Note Term

hate-related words – derogatory words having to do with race, religion, ethnicity, ability, gender, or sexual orientation.

Introduction

Although acts of bias such as stereotyping, jokes, labeling, and racist comments may seem harmless, they form the foundation for feelings of hate that ultimately can lead to prejudice, discrimination, violence, and genocide. History provides examples of the ways in which **stereotyping**, **scapegoating**, **bigotry**, **anti-Semitism**, dehumanization, and discrimination can escalate to murders. This lesson explores how acts of bias can lead to conflict, and how confronting bias can help to avoid violence.

Note

To learn more about scapegoating and anti-Semitism, check out the Anti-Defamation League's website at www.adl.org. The ADL monitors hate groups around the world, and is a good resource for Holocaust information.

Hate Crimes Statistics

Hate crimes are crimes committed against individuals or groups or property based on the real or perceived characteristics of the victims. Hate crime statutes vary from state to state, and may cover bias-motivated crimes based on religion, gender, sexual orientation, ability, national origin, or ethnicity of the victims. In 2002, 7,462 hate crimes, involving 9,222 victims, were reported to the FBI. Schools increasingly have a legal, as well as moral, responsibility for combating hate crimes because so many of the perpetrators and victims are of school age. According to a 2001 Bureau of Justice Statistics Special Report:

- **33 percent of all known hate crime offenders were under 18; another 29 percent of all hate crime offenders were 18-24.**
- **30 percent of all victims of bias-motivated aggravated assaults and 34 percent of the victims of simple assault were under 18.**

Hate behavior generates humiliation, shock, outrage, fear, and anxiety in the victim and in the victim's community. When such an incident occurs at school, the entire school community experiences a loss of safety. Feelings of vulnerability, insecurity, and alienation become common. Ultimately, these feelings produce a negative school climate where not only is school safety questioned, but learning is disrupted and instruction is occupied with classroom management. According to the National Center for Education Statistics:

- **In 2001, 12 percent of students ages 12 through 18 reported that someone at school had used hate-related words against them in the previous six months.**
- **In both 1999 and 2001, 36 percent of students saw hate-related graffiti at school.**

Why Diversity Matters

Diversity matters to every living human being. When a group or segment of the population is excluded or oppressed, everyone is denied. For communities to not only survive, but to thrive, each person needs to be aware and sensitive to ALL the members of the community. When all segments of a community are respected and utilized, it benefits everyone involved.

America is the most diverse nation in the world. Our ethnicity, religion, life experience, and so on makes each of us unique, and it benefits everyone to learn to accept what is different and respect it.

Hate, Stereotypes, and Racism

You might have seen the bumper sticker, “Hate Isn’t a Family Value.” No one is born with hatred or **prejudice** towards another person; hate, stereotypes, and **racism** are learned behaviors and feelings. Sometimes human beings have negative feelings towards another simply because they are different. Sometimes cultural dress, actions, and attitudes are misunderstood and misinterpreted. Other times, a news story about a single individual might sway your opinion about an entire group of people.

Knowledge and information are the most powerful tools you have at your disposal to combat hate, stereotypes, and racism. To learn about other cultures and combat racism and stereotyping, you can:

- **Know your roots and share your pride in your heritage with others.**
- **Celebrate holidays with extended family and friends. Use such opportunities to encourage storytelling and share personal experiences across generations.**
- **Invite friends from backgrounds different from your own to experience the joy of your traditions and customs.**
- **Be mindful of your language; avoid stereotypical remarks and challenge those made by others.**
- **Speak out against jokes and slurs that target people or groups. Silence sends a message that you are in agreement. It is not enough to refuse to laugh.**
- **Be knowledgeable; provide as much accurate information as possible to reject harmful myths and stereotypes. Discuss the impact of prejudicial attitudes and behavior.**
- **Read books that promote understanding of different cultures as well as those that are written by authors of diverse backgrounds.**

Key Note Term

prejudice – a judgment or opinion formed without knowing the facts; hatred or fear of other races, nations, creeds, and so on.

racism – the practice of racial discrimination, persecution, or segregation based on race.

Why Conflict Occurs

Conflict can arise for the smallest and most insignificant of reasons. One person makes an off-handed racial slur or a disparaging comment about someone's cultural background. Heated words are exchanged, tempers flare, conflicts escalate, and all too often, violence results. And when conflict arises, many teens feel they have no choice but to fight. Although conflicts and disagreements are an inevitable part of life, they do not have to lead to violence.

When you try to resolve conflicts and disagreements, you find that conflicts don't have to be avoided, nor do they necessarily lead to violence. Conflict can actually be a positive force in your life; it can provide you with an opportunity to take a close look at yourself, your attitudes, and your beliefs. If resolved positively, conflicts can actually help strengthen relationships and build greater understanding of yourself and those around you.

Conflict Management and Resolution

Conflicts can be managed and resolved through several different options. Sometimes, it's best to combine methods to get the problem solved and avoid the conflict from escalating to a violent end. The following sections discuss some conflict management and resolution solutions available to you.

Win/Win Approach

The win/win approach is about changing the conflict from adversarial attack and defense, to cooperation. It is a powerful shift of attitude that alters the whole course of communication.

While people battle over opposing solutions, such as "Do it my way!", "No, that's no good! Do it my way!", the conflict is a power struggle. What you need to do is change the agenda in the conversation. The win/win approach says "I want to win and I want you to win, too." A win/win approach rests on strategies involving:

- **Going back to underlying needs: Why did the conflict start and what will the outcome resolve?**
- **Recognition of individual differences**
- **Openness to adapting one's position in the light of shared information and attitudes**
- **Attacking the problem, not the people**

Compromise is usually the key to the win/win approach. Even if the conflicting parties simply agree to disagree, everyone wins.

Creative Response Approach

The creative response to conflict is about turning problems into possibilities. It is about consciously choosing to see what can be done, rather than staying with how terrible it all is. It is affirming that you will choose to extract the best from the situation.

You can take a conflict and turn it into an opportunity for discussion and healthy debate.

Appropriate Assertiveness Approach

The essence of appropriate assertiveness is being able to state your case without arousing the defenses of the other person. The secret of success lies in saying how it is for you rather than what they should or shouldn't do. Attaching the statement "The way I see it . . .", can help tremendously. A skilled "I" statement goes even further. When you want to state your point of view helpfully, the "I" statement formula can be useful. An "I" statement says how it is on my side, how I see it.

Use an "I" statement when you need to let the other person know you are feeling strongly about an issue. Others often underestimate how hurt, angry, or put out you are, so it's useful to say exactly what's going on for you. What you can realistically expect is that an appropriate "I" statement made with good intent:

- **Is highly unlikely to do any harm**
- **Is a step in the right direction**
- **Is sure to change the current situation in some way**
- **Can/will open up to possibilities you may not yet see**

Empathy

Empathy is about rapport and openness between people. When it is absent, people are less likely to consider your needs and feelings. The best way to build empathy is to help the other person feel that they are understood. That means being an active listener.

There are specific listening activities relevant to different situations—information, affirmation, or inflammation. Use active listening when offering advice won't help. To use active listening:

- **Don't ignore or deny the other party's feelings.**
- **Read the non-verbal as well as the verbal communication to assess feelings.**
- **Check back with the other party about their feelings as well as the content even though they may only be telling you about the content. If you're not sure how they feel, ask them "How do you feel about that?" or "How did that affect you?"**
- **Reflect back what you hear them saying so they can hear it themselves.**

Lesson 3

Conflict Mediation



Key Terms

anger management
arbitration
empathy
mediation
violence prevention

What You Will Learn to Do

- Apply mediation techniques to resolve conflict

Linked Core Abilities

- Do your share as a good citizen in your school, community, country, and the world
- Treat self and others with respect

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain along the Way

- Differentiate between arbitration and mediation
- Compare mediation techniques
- Identify techniques for reducing conflict
- Define key words contained in this lesson

Chapter 7

Introduction

Key Note Term

violence prevention – discouraging or hindering acts of physical force that cause injury or abuse.

The National Center for Education Statistics report that approximately 37 percent of high school students have been in a physical fight within the year and 18 percent of high school students have carried a weapon at least once within the past 30 days. These alarming statistics illustrate the fact that the instances of violence have become all too common in our schools. Safety has become a primary concern, in what is supposed to be a non-threatening learning environment.

One of the best ways to handle violence in schools and prevent its spread throughout the community is to defuse disputes, and resolve any conflict before it turns violent.

In this lesson, you learn how you can take personal responsibility for **violence prevention** by:

- **Practicing anger management techniques to control your emotions and help you resolve conflicts in a calm, rational manner.**
- **Acting as a peer mediator to help others resolve conflicts in a non-violent manner.**

Anger Management

Anger is normal, and a universal emotion that everyone experiences from time to time. When you are angry, you experience strong feelings that can propel you into inappropriate or destructive behavior. Anger, if left unchecked, can easily spiral out of control and lead to violence.

Your response to anger; however, is completely within your control. Mastering the techniques of **anger management** will help you keep calm in a tense situation, and avoid violence.

Key Note Term

anger management – employing steps to control feelings of anger or rage.

Anger Management Techniques

- **Take time to calm down.** You need to maintain emotional control to communicate in a calm, even tone. Yelling and insulting will only serve to worsen the situation.
- **Identify the source of your anger, and know what triggers it.**
- **Use words to describe your needs and explain your feelings.**
- **Turn your anger into energy.** You could exercise vigorously, write down what is making you angry, daydream about things that make you happy, do something useful for yourself or for someone else, pound or yell into a pillow, or blow up a balloon. Keep a list of the activities that you can do at different times so you do not have to think about what to do when you become angry.
- **Share your angry feelings with a friend, teacher, parent, coach, counselor, or clergy.** This always proves to be an excellent antidote.

Anger management skills must be practiced throughout your lifetime. After you have gained control over your anger, you can work toward resolving conflict in a non-violent way.

Mediation

What would happen if you tried to resolve a conflict yet could not brainstorm any solutions that were acceptable to both parties? Or if the emotions became overheated to the point where you could no longer continue negotiations? If you fail to resolve a conflict through negotiation, the conflict may need to be resolved through **mediation** or **arbitration**. Mediation, from the Latin word meaning “middle,” literally means putting another person in the middle of the dispute. The mediator is an independent third party that acts as a facilitator, and can be another student. In fact, studies show that peer mediation programs, where students are trained to resolve disputes of other students, have proven to be relatively successful. The goal of mediation is to help the disputing parties find and agree on a win-win solution in which each party’s needs are met.

Mediation is usually contrasted with arbitration, which should be used as a last resort. Arbitration is the submission of a conflict to a disinterested third party, an adult such as a teacher or principal, who makes a final and binding judgment to decide who is right. Typically, arbitration leaves at least one person with anger about the decision and resentment toward the arbitrator. However, both people involved in the conflict should abide by the decision made by the arbitrator, and agree to “let go of the conflict” with no hard feelings toward either person.

Role of a Mediator

A mediator facilitates a discussion between the parties with the dispute by asking open-ended questions that encourage a discussion of solutions. Unlike an arbitrator, mediators will not issue orders, find fault, investigate, impose a solution, or make decisions for the parties. Mediators try to help the people with a dispute reach their own agreement, and achieve practical, sustainable resolutions. A mediator, however, cannot enforce agreements after they have been reached. It is up to all parties to enforce and implement their own agreements.

As a rule, mediators should:

- **Be honest**
- **Remain objective**
- **Act in good faith**
- **Show empathy, but avoid becoming emotional**
- **Use good communication skills**
- **Listen effectively**

Key Note Term

mediation – working with opposing sides to resolve a dispute or bring about a settlement; the process in which conflicts are resolved with the help of a neutral third party.

arbitration – to submit for decision to a third party who is chosen to settle differences in a controversy.

Key Note Term

empathy – the capacity to experience the feelings of another as one’s own.

- **Summarize accurately**
- **Think critically**

As with any conflict situation, mediators should not get involved in a heated argument that has the potential for turning violent at any moment.

Steps to Mediating a Conflict

Have you ever helped two friends reach an agreement, or helped to settle an argument between siblings? If so, you have mediated a conflict. Mediation is a simple, straightforward process. The procedure for a successful mediation includes:

1. Introductions

- **Explain the mediator's role**
- **Mediator emphasizes neutrality**
- **Establish the ground rules such as: confidentiality, respect, no name-calling or vulgar language, no interruptions, etc.**
- **Explain the steps of a mediation**
- **Ask questions**

2. Tell the story

- **Both parties tell their side of the story to the mediator**
- **Mediator summarizes each party's point of view including facts and feelings**
- **Mediator makes sure that each party understands the conflict**

3. Explore possible solutions

- **Ask both parties how they can solve the problem**
- **Write down all solutions**
- **Check off only those solutions to which both parties can agree**

4. Don't give up

- **Keep trying until you can reach an agreement, you may have to trade something that one side wants for something that the other side has**
- **Ask the parties to write down the agreement in their own words**
- **Ask all parties to sign the agreement**

Role of a Bystander

Even if you are not personally involved in the conflict as one of the disputing parties or the mediator, you have a responsibility to do your part to prevent violence by:

- Refusing to spread rumors
- Refusing to relay threats or insults to others
- Staying away from potential fight scenes
- Showing respect for people who use good judgment in ignoring insults or other trivial forms of conflict

Appeal to your peers to help control a situation, and reduce the potential for violence.

Conclusion

We all have a responsibility to try to resolve conflicts in a productive and non-violent way. When a conflict occurs, try first to negotiate a resolution. If that fails, involve a classmate or teacher to mediate the conflict. By negotiating and/or mediating conflicts, you are developing valuable anger management, problem-solving, and conflict resolution skills that you will use throughout your life.

Lesson Review

1. List some anger management techniques that you use to stay calm and level-headed.
2. What is the role of a mediator?
3. Explain why it's important to hear both sides of a story.
4. Define the term "arbitration".

Lesson 4

Violence Prevention



Key Terms

decision-point
prevention
violence

What You Will Learn to Do

- Apply strategies to prevent violence

Linked Core Abilities

- Do your share as a good citizen in your school, community, country, and the world
- Treat self and others with respect

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain along the Way

- Differentiate between violent and non-violent responses to anger
- Compare violence prevention techniques
- Select strategies for preventing violence
- Define key words contained in this lesson

Introduction

The National Center for Education Statistics report that approximately 37 percent of high school students have been in a physical fight within the year, and 18 percent of high school students have carried a weapon at least once within the past 30 days. These alarming statistics illustrate the fact that the instances of violence have become all too common in our schools. Safety has become a primary concern in what is supposed to be a non-threatening learning environment.

In earlier lessons you learned processes for effectively managing conflict and negotiating a fair solution; however, what if the negotiation is unsuccessful, and you cannot reach an agreement to settle the conflict? What other steps can you take to prevent a conflict from escalating to violence? In this lesson you learn how you can take personal responsibility for violence **prevention**.

Key Note Term

prevention – to stop or prevent an event or act from occurring.

Statistics Don't Lie

Youth violence is a widespread problem in the United States. Consider the following statistics:

- About 9 percent of murders in the U.S. were committed by youth under 18 in 2000. An estimated 1,561 youth under the age of 18 were arrested for homicide in 2000.
- Youth under 18 accounted for about 15 percent of violent crime arrests in 2001.
- One national survey found that for every teen arrested, at least 10 were engaged in violence that could have seriously injured or killed another person.
- About one in three high school students say they have been in a physical fight in the past year, and about one in eight of those students required medical attention for their injuries.
- More than 1 in 6 students in grades 6 to 10 say they are bullied sometimes, and more than 1 in 12 say they are bullied once a week or more.
- Suicide is the third leading cause of death among teenagers — In 2000, 1,921 young people ages 10 to 19 died by suicide in the United States.
- About 1 in 11 high-school students say they have made a suicide attempt in the past year.

Do all you can to help prevent violence!

Key Note Term

violence - physical force used to do injury; any infringement of rights.

What You Can Do to Prevent Violence

Somewhere everyday, someone is dealing with violent behavior. Whether it's a child being bullied by a classmate, or a shop owner being robbed at gunpoint, violent acts occur everywhere. Although **violence** has become more common in recent years, it is still an unacceptable way to resolve issues and problems.

Teenagers and young adults can play an important role in reducing and preventing violence. Consider some of the following ideas.

Start with Yourself

Try to broaden your social circle to include others who are different from you. Be mindful of your language and avoid stereotypical remarks and challenge those made by others. Speak out against jokes and slurs that target people or groups. Silence sends a message that you are in agreement. It is not enough to refuse to laugh.

Make a commitment not to contribute to violence in any way. Do not bully, tease, or spread negative gossip about others. Respect others and value differences. Try to broaden your social circle to include others who are different from you.

Understand Diverse Cultures, Traditions, and Lifestyles

Learning about others' cultures and traditions can help you be more compassionate and understanding. It can also help you better understand points of view that are different from your own. Talk with your friends, parents, and teachers about how you and your classmates can respond to hateful attitudes and behaviors. Newspapers, magazines, movies, and television shows that you've seen on these subjects can be great ways to start a discussion about hate crimes and intolerance.

Get Involved

Get involved in your school and community. Identify any hate group active in your community; then share the information, publishing an article in a school or local newspaper, or talking to community groups or groups of students. Volunteer with a community group, play sports, write a play or poem, play a musical instrument, or join a club or after-school program.

Join a Group That Promotes Tolerance

Join with other students to create anti-hate policies and programs in your school. Coordinate an event that brings diverse people and groups together. Find ways to show support and solidarity for groups when one of their members is a victim of hate violence.

Learn about effective programs and what other teens are doing around the nation. Find out how to plan and start a program, run a meeting, develop publications, and work with the news media.

Avoid Alcohol and Drugs

Stay away from alcohol and drugs as well as people who use them. There is a strong link between the use of alcohol and drugs and violence. For more information about drugs and alcohol abuse as well as their prevention and treatment, see the earlier lessons, “Use and Effects of Drugs, Alcohol, and Substances” and “Critical Decisions about Substances.”

Learn About Conflict Resolution

Many schools, churches, and after-school programs offer training in conflict resolution skills. This training might include:

- **Learning about a win-win approach to resolution**
- **Turning problems into possibilities**
- **Becoming a more empathetic listener**
- **Practicing assertiveness, not aggressiveness**
- **Learning the art of negotiation**

Do Not Carry a Gun or other Weapons, and Avoid Those Who Do

Carrying a gun is unlikely to make you safer. Guns often escalate conflicts and increase the chances that you will be seriously harmed. If someone is threatening you and you feel that you are in serious danger, do not take matters into your own hands. Find an adult you can trust and discuss your fears, or contact school administrators or the police. Take precautions for your safety, such as avoiding being alone and staying with a group of friends if possible.

Take the Pledge

You can take the Student Pledge Against Gun Violence and adhere to it to make your school and community safer.

I will never bring a gun to school;

I will never use a gun to settle a personal problem or dispute;

I will use my influence with my friends to keep them from using guns to settle disputes.

My individual choices and actions, when multiplied by those of young people throughout the country, will make a difference. Together, by honoring this pledge, we can reverse the violence and grow up in safety.

Key Note Term

decision-point – the point where a decision to act is made.

Report Someone Who Is Planning to Do Harm

Most of us have learned from an early age that it is wrong to “tattle,” but in some instances it is the most courageous thing you can do. Tell a trusted adult, such as a teacher, guidance counselor, principal or parent. If you are afraid and believe that telling will put you in danger or lead to retaliation, find a way to anonymously contact the authorities. Before someone reaches a **decision-point** and performs a violent act that can change their life and the lives of those around them, tell someone who can help.

Take the Initiative to Make Your School and Community Safer

Join an existing group that is promoting non-violence in your school or community, or launch your own effort. The Justice Department’s youth web site (<http://www.usdoj.gov/kidspace/>) can connect you with national organizations and provide you with information and resources to take action in your community. Learn about effective programs and what other teens are doing around the nation. Find out how to plan and start a program, run a meeting, develop publications, and work with the news media.

Conclusion

Although violence has always been a problem in the United States, the number of deaths and serious injuries increased dramatically during the late 1980’s and early 1990’s, as more and more youth began to carry guns and other weapons.

Since then, however, the tide has begun to turn. Between 1992 and 2001, juvenile arrests on weapons charges dropped 35 percent; the juvenile arrest rate for murder fell 62 percent, dropping to its lowest level in more than two decades; and the juvenile arrest rate for violent crimes dropped by 21 percent. Clearly, considerable progress has been made, but youth violence does still remain a serious problem in the United States. With your help; however, these statistics can drop even lower.

Lesson Review

1. What ways can you get involved in your school or community to help prevent violence?
2. Why is it important to learn about other cultures and ethnicities in an effort to prevent violence?
3. How can the use of drugs and alcohol lead to violent acts?
4. Explain how bullying is considered violence.

Career Planning

Chapter 9

Lesson 1

Career Exploration Strategy



Key Terms

advancement
attitude
aptitude
career
employee
entrepreneur
internship
job
job posting
mentor
occupation
profession
promotion
telecommuting
virtual worker
vocational

What You Will Learn to Do

- Investigate a career

Linked Core Abilities

- Take responsibility for your actions and choices
- Apply critical thinking techniques

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain along the Way

- Identify personal strengths and interests and link them to possible career paths
- Identify jobs/careers of interest

- Explain the difference between a job and a career
- Determine qualifications and education/training necessary for desired career
- Discuss the effects of education and training on a career
- Identify the steps in developing a career exploration strategy
- Analyze future job trends
- Define key words contained in this lesson

Introduction

As a high school student, you are faced with many decisions. Selecting a career may be one of the most important decisions that you make. Although some students in your class may know exactly what they want to do after graduating from high school, others may not. If you are one of those who have not yet decided, don't panic! This is the time in your life to try different things, to discover your interests, and to understand how your interests relate to career decision-making.

Because much of your adult life will be spent working, it is important to start as early as possible selecting a career. When determining your interests and personal preferences about a career, you may want to consider how much education you want to pursue, and whether it is important for you to find a career that has high prestige, allows you to work independently, is especially creative, or relates to other common work values. This lesson helps you start planning for your future.

Planning a Career Strategy

Developing a satisfying career requires careful planning and informed decision-making. This is an exciting time for you, but it can also be overwhelming. You must spend time gathering information, understanding what alternatives you have, and thinking about your personal preferences in regard to your career. The career decisions that you make in the next few months or years will not be the only career decisions that you will make—most people have many careers over the course of a lifetime, but the decisions you make soon will be key ones. Therefore, to use your career exploration strategy as a tool to help you make those important career decisions; it should focus on three tasks:

- **Discovering what your aptitude, interests, abilities, and personal preferences are.**
- **Matching your aptitude, interests, abilities, and preferences with occupations.**
- **Learning where and how to get information on different careers.**

If you have not yet decided what type of a career you would like, now is the time to start a planning a strategy that will help you to decide. In addition to teaching you career exploration skills, developing a career exploration strategy can motivate you to learn more about yourself and the occupations that you might find rewarding. Such a strategy can help you to see how your aptitude, interests, abilities, and personal preferences match career opportunities.

An effective career exploration strategy can also help you to decide whether you want to attend college, a **vocational**-technical school, join one of the military services, or go directly into the world of work after high school.

Key Note Term

vocational – of, relating to, or being in training for a skill or trade to be pursued as a career.

Key Note Term

entrepreneur – one who organizes, manages, and assumes the risks of a business enterprise.

Identifying What You Want to Become

Do you know at this time in your life what career or job you would like to pursue after graduating from high school? Your answer can be anything: doctor, plumber, hot dog salesman, **entrepreneur**, instructional designer, baseball star, electrician, and so on. The Department of Labor lists over 2,000 different jobs performed in the United States in its publication *The Dictionary of Occupational Titles*.

Although you may believe that discovering your aptitudes for certain jobs or careers may seem like a difficult task, it can actually be easier than identifying the career that interest you. Your guidance counselor (career counselor, occupational specialist) has career tests that can match your skills, abilities, and interests with specific job titles. The results of these tests allow you to eliminate jobs that may not be suited for you (because you scored low on them) so that you can concentrate your time and research on those jobs that better match your skills, abilities, and interests.

The Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery (ASVAB) test is a good indicator of how well you have developed your academic and occupational abilities. It measures aptitudes that are related to success in different types of civilian or military jobs. The U.S. Department of Defense (DoD) has provided the nationally-normed, multi-aptitude test battery, to high schools and post-secondary schools since 1968. The ASVAB Career Exploration Program has been designed to encourage students to increase their level of self-knowledge and to understand how that information could be linked to civilian and military occupational characteristics.

The ASVAB program was recently redesigned to be helpful to virtually all students, whether they are planning on immediate employment after high school in civilian or military occupations, or further education at a university, community college, or vocational institution. Visit www.asvabprogram.com/ for more information.

There are several Websites that are dedicated to helping you assess your potential in the job market. Some offer a free assessment and some offer the assessment for a fee. The following Websites are just a few samples:

- **www.assessment.com:** provides a free online career assessment test and appraisal through MAPP, also known as Motivational Appraisal of Personal Potential.
- **www.personalnature.com:** PersonalNature Career assessment service measures talents and work styles to provide a ranking of career suggestions for a fee.

When thinking about your future, you should first consider all the jobs that interest you the most and why. Try to understand what draws you to those professions. Then, identify the qualities and traits that you have for those jobs as compared to the requirements for them.

Maybe you do not have any idea what you would like to do. If that is the case, you might be eliminating some career choices because of negative thinking, such as:

- **You assume certain jobs are not realistic.**
- **You do not have the resources to pursue certain jobs or careers.**
- **You may not have direct experience.**
- **You feel that you cannot even guess at jobs or careers that may interest you.**

What Am I Going to Do after Completing High School?

This is a question that you may be asking yourself. Because you have been in school most of your life, you might be wondering, “What will I do after graduation? Should I go to college or look for a job? Do I have any other alternatives? What about technical or vocational training? Is college something I can handle now, or should I wait until later? Do I have the resources to obtain further education? If I do try to find a job, what kind should it be? Should I join the military? How do I find out which occupations are best for me? Where will I likely succeed and be most satisfied?”

To answer those questions, you should find out as much as possible about the many career opportunities that exist, and which ones match your aptitude, interests, abilities, and personal preferences. To do all of that, you will need the following:

- **Information about your aptitude, interests, abilities, and personal preferences.**
- **Information about the world of work, including educational requirements, work environment, and career opportunities for specific occupations.**
- **Information on how to match your personal characteristics to the characteristics of the world of work.**

You must first decide how you will conduct your career exploration, how many hours you plan to take in your search process, and a date when you will make a tentative decision. The time limitations you set are important. It is easy to postpone big decisions. If you commit yourself to a plan, you are less likely to become overwhelmed by such a big decision.

The deadline that you set is there to help you make timely decisions about your future. It does not mean you must make a career decision that is not changeable.

You may even find it helpful to set a time in the near future to review your research. That review will give you the opportunity to see if you are still satisfied with your choices. When looking for a career, it is important to be creative. Explore all possible avenues. Use techniques such as brainstorming, researching, networking, canvassing, testing, counseling, and volunteering to assist you in making your career decisions.

What's Hot in the Career Market

Not sure what kind of career to pursue? You might want to consider the computer or health fields. The number of jobs in these areas is projected to grow very quickly within the next few years. According to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, the ten occupations with the fastest projected employment growth for 1996 through 2006 are the following:

1. Database administrators, computer support specialists and all other computer scientists (118% more jobs by 2006)
2. Computer engineers (109%)
3. Systems analysts (103%)
4. Personal and home care aides (85%)
5. Physical and corrective therapy assistants and aides (79%)
6. Home health aides (76%)
7. Medical assistants (74%)
8. Desktop publishing specialists (74%)
9. Physical therapists (71%)
10. Occupational therapy assistants and aides (69%)

As you can see, the top three careers with projected growth are related to the Information Technology (IT) field. One of the reasons for the interest in the IT field, which involves working with computers, is that it provides the opportunity to work at home by the use of an electronic linkup with a central office, called telecommuting. There are thousands of organizations throughout the country that offer the benefit of telecommuting to their employees. Improved work performance and employee morale, reduced operating costs for items such as office space, and a more efficient work environment, all contribute to the benefits of telecommuting. Employees who **telecommute** are sometimes called **virtual workers** because they are performing work tasks virtually, via the Internet, phone, and fax machine.

Key Note Term

telecommute – to work at home by the use of an electronic linkup with a central office.

virtual worker – employee who telecommutes and performs work tasks virtually, via the Internet, phone, and fax.

Brainstorming

Spend ten minutes listing careers that you know you are not interested in. Next, spend another ten minutes listing all the careers that you think may interest you. Finally, evaluate both lists. Commit yourself to exploring the possibilities you like the most. Set a date to review the list to see if you still feel the same way about the choices you have made. Remember that you can always change your mind at any time during the career exploration process and add or delete choices from your lists as you learn more about those choices.

Researching

Two good resources, which should be available in your school career center or library, are the *Occupational Outlook Handbook* and the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*.

- The *Occupational Outlook Handbook* is a career information resource produced by the U.S. Department of Labor that provides detailed information on about 250 civilian and military occupations.
- The *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* (DOT) defines civilian careers and assigns them a DOT code. As a result of an extensive task analysis performed by the authors of that book, you can link comparable occupations. This capability is particularly important when linking civilian to military occupations, and vice versa, to determine occupational counterparts.

Other resources that you may want to consider for obtaining information about career fields are: Dunn and Bradstreet's Million-Dollar Directory, Thomas Registry of Corporate Profiles, and Standard and Poor's Corporation Registry. These books should also be available in your school career center or library.

Your research should also include the following:

- Visit a local Job Services office. This office has more **job postings** in more occupations than any other single source.
- Use the yellow pages in the telephone book. The yellow pages group companies together according to what they do or make. Try to match your interests or abilities with a company most likely to meet them.
- Read the newspaper ads. These ads list job categories alphabetically. Remember, the type of work you can do may be listed under several different categories.
- Listen to the radio or television and read the business section of the newspaper to find out what new businesses may be opening.
- Visit local Chambers of Commerce, professional societies, or community organizations, attend trade shows, or go to industrial or craft unions.
- Contact city, county, state, and federal personnel offices.

Key Note Term

job posting – a published notice of a job vacancy.

Networking

Networking means meeting people and making contacts. It is one of the most successful ways that people learn about job or career openings. Ask your friends, relatives, or neighbors about possible careers. People who are working often hear about job openings before businesses make them public, and those people may be able to give you “the tip of a lifetime.”

Canvassing

Talk with professionals and the people who visit your school during career day. Attend the career days sponsored at most technical or vocational schools, junior or community colleges, and the major colleges and universities that are in your area. Use these events to learn about the requirements for entering into various occupations.

Additionally, make appointments with managers or other key people in the fields in which you are most interested. Generally, people will gladly take a few minutes of their time to discuss their career field with you.

Testing

There are a variety of tests that can help you determine your aptitude, interests, and abilities. In this lesson, we define **aptitude** as (the capabilities that you have developed so far that indicate your readiness to become proficient in a certain type of activity). This may refer to your capability to learn a particular type of work or your potential for general training—both are measurements that are essential for success in determining a career.

You may have already taken a career test. Career tests match possible careers to your interests and they also give you an idea about the type of job for which you are best suited. You can obtain additional information about career tests from your instructors, the media center, or any of the school counselors.

Counseling

Guidance and career counselors and occupational specialists are available in most schools and communities to help you make decisions about your career. If you think you will have trouble making up your mind about a career, speak to a counselor for assistance. Counselors and occupational specialists can match your aptitude, interests, and abilities with potential jobs or career fields. Remember, it is important to start your career plan early and these counselors and occupational specialists will be able to help you.

Volunteering/Working a Summer Job

After you make a decision about your career, consider volunteering for a job that relates to your career decision or working a summer job in that field. For example, if you want to be a teacher, find a job at a camp or day care center. If you want to be a doctor, volunteer at a hospital. Volunteering and working part-time can help you decide if the career choice you made is right for you.

Although making money may seem important, an **internship** or volunteer work in an area that interests you can be more beneficial in the long run. Besides, a job in itself is a good learning experience.

Key Note Term

aptitude – the capabilities that you have developed so far that indicate your readiness to become proficient in a certain type of activity.

Key Note Term

internship – an advanced student or graduate, usually in a professional field (such as medicine or teaching) gaining supervised, practical experience (such as a hospital or classroom).

mentor – a trusted counselor or guide.

How Will a Summer Job Help My Future?

A summer job can:

- Give you work experience.
- Boost your self-esteem and make you more responsible.
- Give you references for future jobs/careers.
- Give you the chance to meet a role model or **mentor** who can help you plan your future.
- Help you grow and learn your true interests and talents.

When Should I Choose a Career?

Nearing high school graduation, you may be feeling pressured into making a decision about what career to pursue. At this point in your life, however, you may not be prepared to make that kind of a decision. You may not even be aware of all the career possibilities that exist, especially since so many new careers are created yearly! Unfortunately, in the United States, our society does pressure young adults to make career decisions that can have a lasting effect. What happens if you choose the wrong career? What if you want to change your mind after a few years of study?

It may help ease the pressure to know that the U.S. Department of Labor has estimated that “young people of high school age should expect to have an average of fourteen jobs throughout their lifetimes, in possibly six to eight different career fields.” What a change from a generation ago when individuals often began working right out of high school and worked for the same company until they retired!

What does this prediction about the job market mean for you? On the positive side, it probably means you will never be locked into one particular job. You will have the opportunity to try new skills, learn new information, and experience new adventures throughout your life. On the other hand, it will mean you will have to have or develop the skill of being flexible with your career. You will need to learn how to transition from one job to another with minimum time, training, and possibly even education.

If you are unsure about what career you want to pursue, relax. Career counselors will tell you that it is okay not to be locked into a career decision at your high school graduation. In fact, they will most likely urge you to take some time to self-reflect, explore your options, take exploratory classes, and make an informed decision when you feel comfortable doing so.

But, taking the pressure off doesn't mean you should stop thinking about your options now. This is the perfect time to begin exploring what the future holds in terms of employment and to begin reflecting on your personal values, interests, and skills.

What Should I Know about the Future Job Market?

Although no one can predict the future perfectly, you can look at trends and get a general picture of what the job market will be like a few years down the road. The Bureau of Labor Statistics offers the following information for the years 1996–2006:

- **Industry employment growth is projected to be highly concentrated in service-producing industries, with business, health, and education services accounting for 70 percent of the growth:**
 - Health care services will increase 30 percent and account for 3.1 million new jobs.
 - Educational services are projected to increase by 1.3 million teaching jobs.
 - Computer and data processing services will add more than 1.3 million jobs.

Key Note Term

occupation – the principal business of one's life.

- The labor force will become increasingly diverse:
 - The labor force growth of Hispanics, Asians, and other races will be faster than that for blacks and white non-Hispanics, stemming primarily from immigration.
 - Women's share of the labor force is expected to increase from 46 percent to 47 percent.
 - Jobs will be available for job seekers from every educational and training background.
 - Almost two-thirds of the projected growth will be in **occupations** that require less than a college degree. However, these positions generally offer the lowest pay and benefits.
 - Jobs requiring the least education and training—those that can be learned on the job—will provide two of every three openings due to growth and replacement needs.
- Job growth varies widely by educational and training requirements:
 - Occupations that require a bachelor's degree are projected to grow the fastest. All of the twenty occupations with the highest earnings require at least a bachelor's degree. Engineering and health occupations dominate the list.
 - Education is essential for getting a high-paying job; however, many occupations, such as registered nurses, supervisors of blue-collar workers, electrical and electronic technicians, automotive mechanics, and carpenters, do not require a four-year college degree, yet they offer higher-than-average earnings.

These projected trends give only a brief profile of what the future job market will be like. One thing does seem certain: The more technological skills you learn, the better your chances of landing a high-paying job. Figure 9.1.1 illustrates predictions about occupations that will have fast growth, high pay, and largest numerical growth.

Figure 9.1.2 illustrates job growth rates based on education and training.

Don't despair if you are passionate about a career that isn't listed in the top 25 future jobs. If you are passionate about a specific career, you should pursue that goal! Although you might find that you have to work harder at finding a job, that you have to work more than one job until you can pursue your dream full-time, or that you don't earn as much money as others, you will be happy in your **profession**. Greater job satisfaction will reflect positively in other areas of your life.

Additionally, if you diversify your skills, have a well-rounded background, and continue to be a lifelong learner, you will find that you have more opportunities, and that it is easier to move into a wide variety of jobs.

Key Note Term

profession – a principal calling, vocation, or employment.

Exploring Careers

As a high school student, this may be the first time you've seriously explored your career options; however, career exploring and planning may occur many times over the course of your life. As society advances, new opportunities are created. If you continue to explore careers and keep up-to-date with your skills and education, you will be ready when something new and challenging comes along.

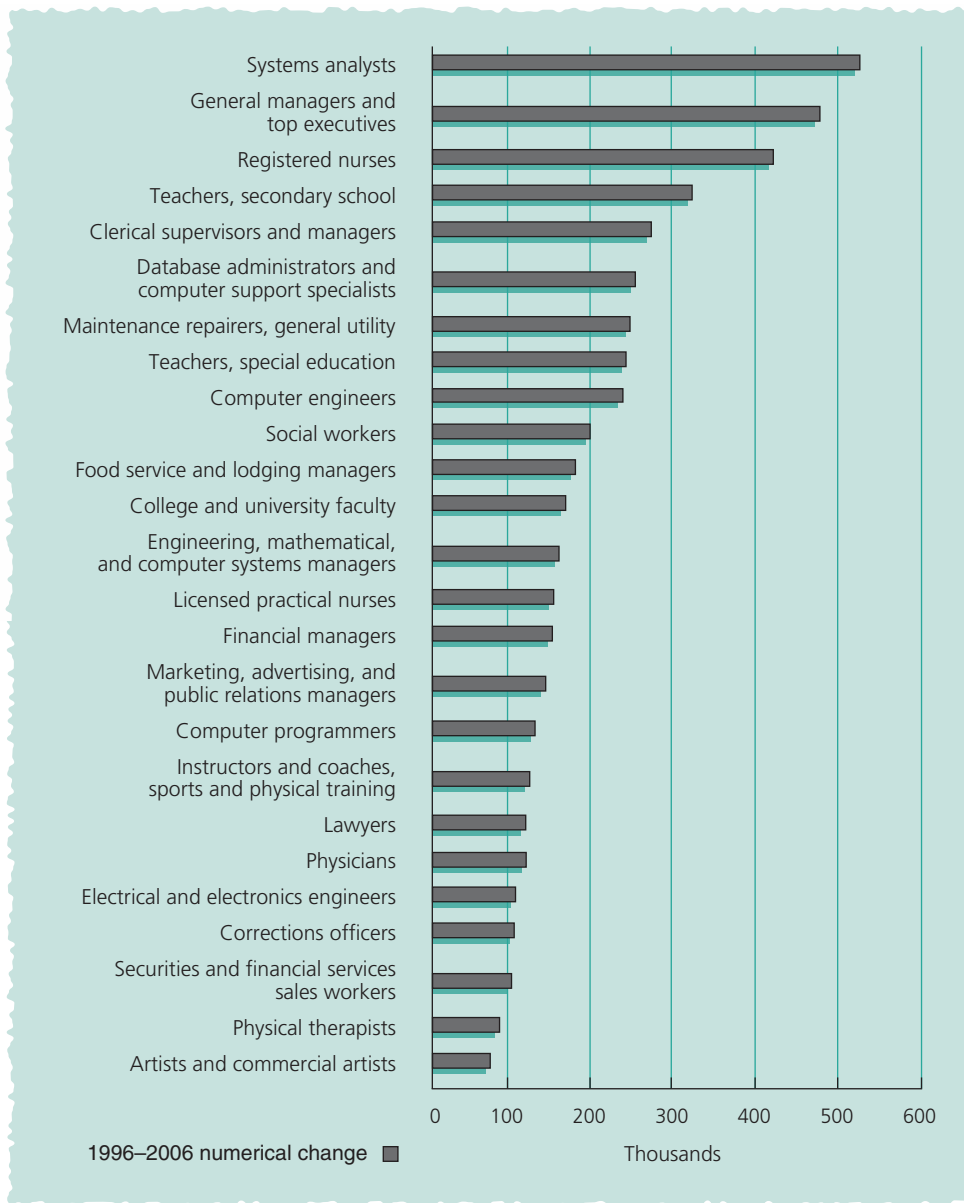
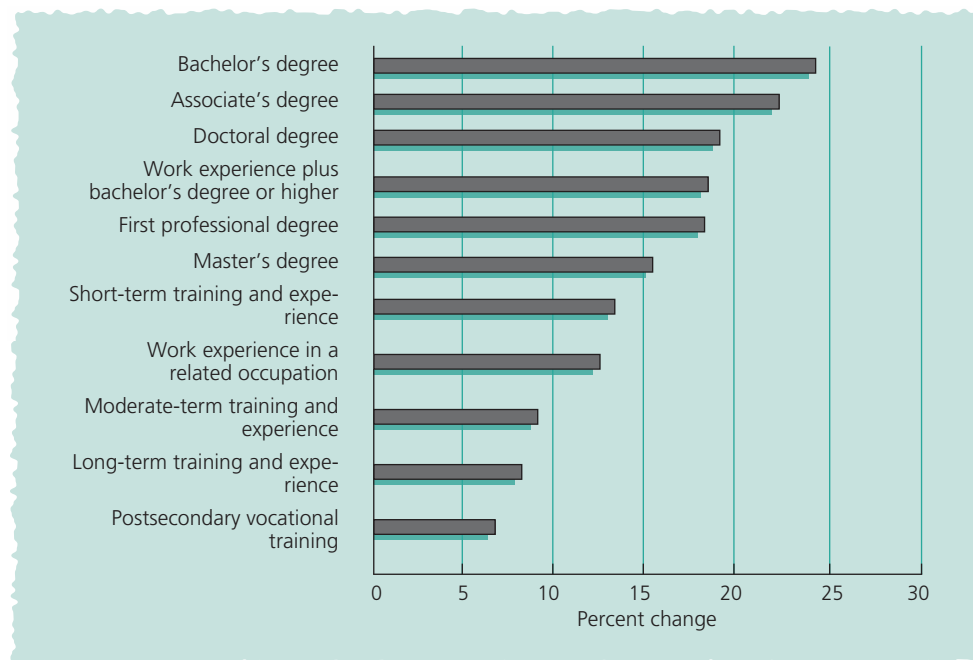


Figure 9.1.1: Occupations with largest numerical growth.

One of the most important points to remember right now is that you do have time. In fact, the first two years of college are generally spent fulfilling general education requirements such as math, writing, communications, arts, science, and social sciences. These freshman and sophomore-level classes give students an opportunity to strengthen critical-thinking skills and develop a solid background in the basics, which will help them succeed in upper-level classes and give them the opportunity to explore various fields of study.

As you begin college, you will have several opportunities to meet with an academic advisor to discuss career goals and academic planning. If, at an advising session, you are given a degree plan that you are uncertain about, don't worry. You are not

Figure 9.1.2: Growth rates by education.



locked into pursuing that degree. Advisors often give you this degree plan, or a number of degree plans, to get you to think about your college and career goals. These degree plans list all of the courses a student in that field of study is required to complete to earn a certificate or degree. After you have declared a major, these degree plans act as a contract between you and the college. If you are following an established degree plan and the school revises and changes the degree plan, you will probably not be required to take additional classes, only the classes listed on your original degree plan. Often, the first two years of any degree plan are similar because every student is completing the general education requirements.

Although you are free to change degree plans whenever you want, you should be advised that the best time to change majors is before you take a great number of upper-level courses. Often, the credits for one degree don't match those for another, so you end up taking extra semesters to complete your degree. If you are using financial aid to pay your college expenses, the money may run out, and you will have to pay for the extra classes on your own.

Choosing a degree plan, or career, can be a difficult task; however, you can begin the exploration process right now so that the decision becomes less complicated. Two steps you should consider are self-assessments and occupational research.

Self-assessments

Self-assessment tools are created to help individuals gather information about themselves. Some assessments focus on your personality, values, interests, and work styles; other assessments focus on skills and competencies. Examples of available self-assessments include the following:

- **Campbell Interest and Skill Survey**—matches interests and skills to occupations.
- **Career Skills**—a computerized program that determines the type of skills a student would like to use in his or her work.
- **Choices**—a computerized interest and skills inventory.
- **Compass**—measures basic skills.
- **Discover**—a computerized guidance tool that assesses interests, abilities, values, and skills and matches those with the world of work.
- **FOCUS II**—identifies interests, skills, and values and relates them to occupations.
- **Myers-Briggs Type Indicator**—determines personality and matches it to work styles.
- **Self-Directed Search**—matches interests and abilities to career fields.
- **SIGI Plus**—a computerized guidance tool that looks at interests, personality, values, and occupational options.
- **Strong Interest Inventory**—matches interests to occupations.

Another valuable self-assessment tool is the Prentice Hall Self-Assessment Library on CD-ROM.

These assessments will ask you questions about yourself, your interests, your values, and your skills. Your high school counseling office, the U.S. Department of Labor, or the career counseling office at any college can provide you with a number of self-assessments.

You can also choose to create your own self-assessments. For example, you could:

- **Look at your personal mission statement to reflect on your personal values.**
- **Create a table that lists all your accomplishments. For each accomplishment, list the skills you used in that activity.**
- **Journal write about the things that interest you, your aspirations, and people you admire.**
- **Compare jobs you have had or would like to have. Create a list of pros and cons associated with each job.**
- **Create a list of your personal traits and characteristics, and think about what jobs might match them.**
- **Join activity clubs and organizations to see what interests you. Evaluate what you like or dislike about your experience.**
- **Take a class that focuses on career exploration. Your high school, local adult basic education, community education center, or local college may offer these courses.**
- **Complete a personality-style inventory, and compare the results to various job requirements.**

The process of self-assessment is ongoing because you grow and change with each new experience. What you value now may not be as important in a few years, and you need to take these changes into account when you are considering careers.

After completing one or more self-assessments, you should have a self-profile that you can match to various jobs. If you work through specific programs in career centers, your self-assessment tool may give you a computer-generated list of suggested careers that would suit your profile. Think of this as a starting place for more specific types of research about careers and occupations.

Occupational Research

In addition to self-assessments, you should also plan to spend time researching occupations. Your research may include looking through books and occupational guides, but you may also want to interview someone in the job you are considering, shadow someone in the job, take on part-time work in that field, volunteer, or try a cooperative education experience.

There are specific points of information you should gather during your research. For example, you will want to find out answers to the following questions:

- **How much knowledge or training would I need to be hired for this job?**
- **What kinds of other skills would I need to learn (communication skills or team-building skills, for example)?**
- **What kinds of responsibilities would I have in this job?**
- **What are the working conditions of this job?**
- **What opportunities for **advancement** would I have in this job?**
- **What is the salary range for this job?**
- **What is the future outlook for this job?**
- **What are similar jobs that I might consider?**

The place to begin researching jobs is your high school counseling office or library. Most likely, it will have specific occupational guides that you can browse through, as well as numerous books, videos, and computer programs that offer comparable information. As you complete your research, take notes and compare the various jobs you research, but don't feel pressured into making a decision immediately. Leave your options open as you work through the exploration stage of **career** planning.

Interviewing people performing the job you are interested in is a great way to obtain more information and makes the information from the books real for you. You can ask questions that might not have been answered in your previous research, as well as questions that pertain to specific geographic jobs. For example, the research might show you that there are a large number of available jobs nationwide, but in an interview, you might discover that there are a very limited number of job openings in your city or state. Interviews can also open the door for you to shadow someone performing the job.

Job shadowing is an opportunity for you to work side by side with someone who is hired in that profession. Depending on the type of job, you might find yourself observing others, or you may even get the chance to help. Benefits of job shadowing include discovering both the good and bad aspects of a particular job, learning about the job environment, and making contacts with others in the profession. Job shadowing may also open the door for you to be hired in part-time employment.

Key Note Term

advancement – a promotion or elevation to a higher rank or position.

career – an occupation or profession; the course or progress of a person's life.

One of the best ways to find out if a particular type of work is suited to you is to do it. There are several ways: part-time or full-time paid work and volunteer work. At this point in your education, you may find that you are too busy with academic and extracurricular activities to take on a job, and that's okay—you are learning valuable skills in school, organizations, and sports. But, when you evaluate your time, you may discover that you could work one or two days after school or one day of the weekend. You don't want to overload yourself, but even a minimal amount of work experience will certainly help you decide whether you like certain jobs and teach you work-related skills such as communication, leadership, team building, and problem solving. You may even get referrals for future jobs.

Cooperative education provides you with the opportunity to have paid employment in positions that complement your academic program. Although most co-op positions are obtained at the college level, more and more high schools are taking the initiative and offering high school students co-op positions. In these cases, students generally take classes for half a day and work for half a day.

If you have the opportunity to complete a co-op program, make the most of it by developing learning objectives in consultation with your supervisor, monitoring your progress, and making changes to your goals and strategies, if necessary.

However you choose to research occupations and careers, take time to reflect on your experiences. What do you like or dislike about the job? Do you like the work environment and the pace of the job? Do you have the skills, or can you easily learn the skills, to make you successful in the job? Does the job challenge or bore you? Would you be happy in the job for more than a few years? Does the career offer multiple yet similar job opportunities that you could take advantage of?

As you analyze these questions, consider whether you want to pursue this type of job. If not, consider yourself lucky that you discovered that answer now, not five or ten years down the road. If you do think this is a career worth pursuing, it may be time to think about what to major in at college.

How Are Careers and Majors Related?

After you have decided on the type of career you want to pursue, you should research the type of skills and education you will need. The required education will indicate what type of degree you will need and what you will need to major in. A major is a group of classes that are required to earn a degree in a specific area. Some careers, such as heating and air-conditioning technology or business and office technology, may only require a one-year certificate or a two-year degree. These types of careers take very specialized training and education, so you will need to declare your major early in your academic career so that you can get into the classes you will need.

Some careers don't require specific majors in entry-level positions. For example, a person entering a career in marketing might major in marketing, accounting, communications, or public relations. As you research your career options, find

out what type of major or degree is required so you can plan accordingly. Additionally, this information should help you decide what type

Understanding the Differences Between a Job and a Career

Key Note Term

job – a position of work or employment that is performed regularly in exchange for payment; a task or undertaking; a specific activity or piece of work.

attitude – a feeling, emotion, or mental position regarding a fact or state.

Throughout this book, you will see the words “job” and “career,” so these words need to be defined because there is an important difference between them. Basically, a **job** is a series of tasks or activities that are performed within the scope of what is called work. These tasks relate to a career in that a career is a series of jobs. But more than jobs, a career is a sequence of **attitudes** and behaviors that are associated with work and that relate to your total life experience. A career is really an integration of your personality with your job activities. Therefore, your career becomes a primary part of your identity or your self-concept. This is illustrated in Table 9.1.1.

Table 9.1.1: Job vs. Career

What Is a Job	Example
A piece of work, task or undertaking	Babysitting, Mowing Lawns; duty done by agreement to pay
What Is a Career	Example
A principal business or profession	Teacher, Engineer, Writer; occupation or lifework

Although they are often used interchangeably, the words “career” and “job” have different meanings. Jobs can be both the individual pieces of a career or random, isolated events in a person’s work history. Careers are formed over time; they consist of related jobs that build upon one another. One job does not make a career; several jobs do.

Working behind the counter at a fast food restaurant until you can do something else is a job. If, however, your goal is to become a manager and invest in franchises someday, it is the first step in a career. The knowledge and skills gained from working behind the counter are a foundation on which you can continue to build as you move up in the fast food industry.

In the past, people chose a career early in life, and they tended to stay in it most of their lives. Farmers worked on their farms, secretaries stayed in the office, and teachers taught until retirement. More recently the trend in America has shifted

toward multiple careers. You can now expect to have four or more careers in your life. Furthermore, with the rapid changes in society as well as in economic conditions, jobs, and technologies, many traditional jobs are becoming obsolete.

This is markedly different from the world in which your family worked. Thus, the expectation that after you find a job, you are home free, secure, or set for life is no longer realistic. The traditional **employee** contract, although unwritten, implied an honest day's work for an honest day's wage, employee loyalty in exchange for job security, and raises and **promotions** in return for seniority. Today's new employee contract simply implies continued employment for individuals who possess skills that continuously meet a business need.

More than ever it is important to give considerable thought to what you want to do and structure your training and education to be relevant both to your interests and to trends in the job market. You will find it beneficial to assess your skills and identify those that are transferable from a previous career to a newly emerging field with a minimum amount of retraining. Knowing yourself and developing a plan of action based on both your needs and the needs of the job market will help you embark on the career most satisfying for you rather than just following the latest trends in one field or another.

Demands in the job market rapidly come and go. Some time ago, teachers were in great demand. Then, for about a decade, there was a glut of teachers on the market. Now there seems to be a renewed need for teachers in the workforce. The same is true of engineers. If you base your career decision primarily on current trends, by the time you obtain the training necessary to get into the hot field, it may well have cooled down. This strategy leaves you with slim prospects for a job that can lead to a career, and quite possibly with skills and training in a field that you weren't terribly excited about in the first place (except as a quick opportunity).

You have the potential to be satisfied in any number of occupations. Getting to know yourself better through self-assessment will help you identify careers that are best suited to your personality. People who are not prepared for change allow that change to make decisions for them. They are often frustrated and unhappy because they are forced to work at jobs they don't enjoy. They may never have realized that they have choices, or perhaps they never took the time or energy to become aware of their preferences. They settle for less than what might be best for them. Dad says "get a job in business" even though his child has a special talent in art. The high school adviser recommends engineering because scholarships are available. The employment department directs a job applicant into an electronics training program because there's an opening. By knowing your own preferences, you will be ready to manage your career path instead of merely following others' suggestions.

Striving for Career Satisfaction

Survey after survey on job satisfaction among American workers indicates that well over 50 percent are dissatisfied with their jobs. In a study for U.S. News & World Report, people were asked to name the three things that contribute most to their quality of life. The top categories for men and women were "job/career satisfaction," "relationship with family," and "money." Because people may be changing jobs and

Key Note Term

employee – one employed by another, usually for wages or salary.

promotion – the act or fact of being raised in position or rank.

careers several times in their lives, it is more important than ever before to have accurate knowledge about yourself and the world of work.

In its annual Labor Day survey for 1999, the Gallup Poll indicated that only 39 percent of workers are completely satisfied with their jobs. In another Gallup survey, two-thirds of a group of adults said if they were starting all over, they would try to get more information about their career options. You will face the need to continually reevaluate yourself and your career path. It is useful to know about the changing world of work and which occupations allow you to best express yourself and best use your strengths and talents. When analyzing your personal assets, it is to your advantage to ultimately think about the total job market. Search for jobs that will lead you into a career. You will benefit greatly from identifying a variety of alternatives that allow you to express your personality. Once you have looked within yourself and identified what you want and need in a job, changes will be easier to make because you'll know when you have outgrown one job and need a new one.

For most people, career planning is not a simple, straightforward, linear process in which they follow certain prescribed steps, end up at a specific destination, and live happily after. It is instead a feedback loop that continues to self-correct as you add information about your changing self and the world around you. You are constantly revising your career plan as you grow and change. This means that there isn't any one "right" career. Instead, there are many careers in which you could be equally happy, equally successful, equally satisfied.

You are looking, then, not for the one right career but for the series of alternatives and career options that seem to make sense for you, given your background, your personality, your career and life stages, and the changing world.

Choosing and Changing Careers

Each one of us, regardless of our stage in life, is in some phase of career development. You may be starting your first job or looking for a job. You may be planning for your first career, reentering the job market after some time at home, considering your next career, planning for part-time employment, or looking for meaningful volunteer experience.

Because there is no crystal ball that will predict the one right career for you, you will want to consider several options as you explore career development. It is possible to survey your needs, values, interests, skills, aptitudes, and sources of information about the world of work to create a broader career objective. Some careers do have established or common career paths. Teachers, for example, often start out as tutors, work up to student teacher, and then become an assistant teacher before taking on the task of a full-time teacher. In the marketing profession, people often start in sales; therefore, you need to think about career goals in the sense of their being both short term and long term. A short-term career goal is one that can be rather quickly attained. For instance, in the process of career planning, you may discover you want to be a lawyer. Law is considered a long-term career option

because it generally takes many years of study and preparation; however, a short-term career goal related to law might be obtaining a job as a legal secretary or a paralegal. Either of these would give you the opportunity to work in an environment that excites and energizes you long before you actually achieve your final and ultimate career goal. In addition, relevant experience enhances your appeal to future employers.

Real Life Stories

Sandra was 17 when she started her first secretarial job. By luck, it was in a legal office. For 10 years she was happy being a secretary involved with the legal profession. This left her time to raise her family. But her employers encouraged her to continue her education. Not only did she attend evening courses, but she also became involved with the Professional Secretaries' Association. By the time her children were grown, she had completed a two-year college degree program, served as president of her association, started a training course to become a paralegal, been promoted to legal assistant, and is now teaching legal terminology at a local community college.

There is a final, important reason that this effort at personal assessment is crucial as the first step in your career-planning process. After you know who you are and what your preferences and talents are, you can better make sense of the information that continually bombards you regarding the world of work. It's almost impossible to read a newspaper, listen to a news broadcast, visit a Web site, or watch a television show that does not have some implication for you and your career. In fact, you may feel you suffer from information overload. Looking at the want ads and reading about employment projections and trends can cause confusion, frustration, and often discouragement about what place you might have in this elusive job market.

One of the best ways to achieve a sense of control and perspective on this constant stream of information is to know who you are, so that when you are listening, reading, watching, and experiencing, you will have a means of processing information through your consciousness, through your personality and preferences, and through your values and skills. Eventually, you will be able to recognize and reject information that does not apply to you, and to internalize and add to your career plan information that does. If a group setting such as a career class is available to you, all the better! The opportunity to discover yourself and expand your horizons is multiplied by the added benefit of group interaction.

Conclusion

This lesson explained the importance of career exploration skills and career planning. Specifically, it introduced a career exploration strategy, discussed how to link information about yourself to specific occupations, and showed you how to use that

strategy in making career decisions. You should be able to organize information about yourself and the world of work and be able to see which occupations best fit your aptitude, interests, abilities, and preference.

Many people never work at jobs or careers that use their full talents and abilities or that interest them. You do not have to work at a boring job. You can do something that interests you and still make good money.

By answering the following two questions that career seekers must answer, you are on your way to a satisfying and personally meaningful career:

What do you want to do?

What are you suited to do?

Lesson Review

1. Explain the difference between a job and a career.
2. What are some of the experiences you've had that might lead you to your career?
3. How can networking help you determine the career you want and find a job?
4. What kind of job or career would you like to have? What do you need to do to get it?

Lesson 2

Career Development Portfolio



Key Terms

employment application
interview
networking
portfolio
resume
success

What You Will Learn to Do

- Assemble a personalized career portfolio

Linked Core Abilities

- Communicate using verbal, non-verbal, visual, and written techniques
- Take responsibility for your actions and choices

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain along the Way

- Explain the importance of developing and maintaining a career portfolio
- Identify components to include in a career portfolio
- Identify what best represents personal achievements and goals
- Describe documents to include in a career portfolio
- Define key words contained in this lesson

Chapter 9

Introduction

What do you want to become? What are you suited to do? What do you need to do to prepare? These questions and many more like them are what you must try to answer to prepare for your future. This lesson focuses on the career development portfolio, its importance, and its development and maintenance.

The better you prepare, the better your chances of achieving success and doing something that you enjoy. A career portfolio is a tool that helps you document evidence of your successes. The portfolio provides information about you and your achievements over time. It is a type of scrapbook that contains evidence of your accomplishments, your educational development, and your career growth.

By maintaining an up-to-date portfolio, you will be able to quickly reference needed information when applying for jobs, colleges, or scholarships.

What Is a Career Portfolio?

A portfolio is a file that contains an organized collection of your work based on your personality, goals, and aspirations. It provides insight and information on you and your achievements and growth over time. It presents an in-depth picture of your skills and competencies. It also provides you a means to reflect on important areas of your life development and the impact of education on future lifestyle and career choices. It contains information that promotes what you want others, specifically future employers and schools, to know about you.

Why Create a Career Portfolio?

There are many good reasons to create and maintain a career development portfolio. A portfolio is tailored to meet your needs and requirements. It serves as your record of achievement. It will:

- **Serve as an on-going record of your completed work. Your portfolio will contain copies of good work from all of your classes, including information on projects in which you are involved that will be ongoing from year to year. It will provide you with a historical record that you can apply to other projects.**
- **Allow you to evaluate and see your improvement and growth, including how much you have done over the course of a nine-week period, semester or quarter, this year, or all the years of your high school experience.**

- **Serve as evidence of your accomplishments, even if you transfer from one school to another.**
- **Update your parents on your progress.**
- **Furnish you with a record of areas in your growth and development that may require additional work.**
- **Help you with the application process for future jobs and/or enrollment in colleges or universities.**
- **Prepare information for school and job interviews.**

Your Personal Career Portfolio

The following sections show you how to create a career development portfolio that suits your own personality, goals, and aspirations. As you begin to use this information, you will be able to see how important pieces of your life fit together so that you can feel confident and optimistic about your future. During the development and use of your career portfolio, you are encouraged you to talk with your parents, instructors, counselor, and other supportive people in your life. They can best advise you on the type of information that you should save in your portfolio information that promotes what you want others to know about you.

Creating Your Career Portfolio

By now, you may be able to pause and reflect on certain things you have learned, your likes and dislikes about them, your personality, your dreams for yourself, the things you wonder about, the things that frustrate you, and especially the things that you like most about yourself. When creating your career development portfolio, apply these thoughts and reflections to the areas of:

- **Self-knowledge/self-analysis**
- **Your life roles**
- **Past, present, and future educational development**
- **Career exploration and planning**

Although portfolios will vary based on the needs of the individual and the audience, there are some basic requirements to all portfolios. They are as follows:

- **A personal cover page**
- **A table of contents**
- **A personal statement**

- A resume
- Letters of reference—as many as possible
- Transcripts (optional)
- Samples of your school work from different subject areas to include why they are significant
- References and contact information

Key Note Term

networking – meeting people and making contacts; the exchange of information or services among individuals, groups, or institutions.

Your career development portfolio is still missing one essential element: an address book. The names, addresses, and phone numbers found in an address book represent the contacts that a person makes and develops over many years of **networking**. Fellow JROTC cadets, other classmates, teammates, your parents' friends, your friends' parents, people met at camp, church, or acquaintances made while traveling are contacts that may become an important part of your future. They may be future clients, customers, colleagues, or employers.

Evaluating Your Career Portfolio

A **portfolio** is not complete unless you evaluate it thoroughly. Remember that the portfolio represents you, so the following are some questions you should ask yourself to ensure that you have developed a quality product.

- Are the required documents included?
- Have you edited it to make sure that there are no errors?
- Is the portfolio neat and organized?
- Is the portfolio labeled properly?
- Is it pleasing to the eye?
- Does it represent you as a person?

Key Note Term

portfolio – a document that contains a student's achievement over time and provides an in-depth picture of the student's skills and competencies.

Maintaining Your Career Portfolio

You should review the information in your portfolio at least three times per year and remove anything that is outdated. Your objective is to keep your career development portfolio as responsive to your future needs and interests as possible. This portfolio should be the best record of your school and work accomplishments.

When Should I Begin to Build a Portfolio?

You may be saying to yourself, “Why do I need to worry about creating a portfolio now? I’m not going to apply for jobs until after graduation.” That may be true, but because there are so many uses for portfolios, the time to start building one is now. Remember that a portfolio is a collection of your work and accomplishments, so you need to collect those documents as you complete them.

The wrong time to start building a portfolio is the night before a deadline. Building a professional-looking portfolio takes time. As you are applying for admission and scholarships, you will need to collect specific documents, such as transcripts and test scores. Because you are collecting these documents from various sources, the process may take weeks.

Start today by requesting any documents you may need and by reflecting on what you have done that will demonstrate the kind of person you are. Find the evidence that will prove your abilities.

What Information Can Be Found in a Portfolio?

There isn’t just one set of guidelines for assembling and using portfolios. As you go through life, you will need to customize your portfolio, depending on its purpose. Not only might the contents change, but also the form of the portfolio.

All portfolios are different, depending on their purpose. For example, a person who is using a portfolio for promotion purposes has much different information in the portfolio than a person who is applying to serve in the Peace Corps.

Furthermore, your portfolio may take on different forms. Someone who is applying for a job as a Webmaster for a large corporation would probably choose to create a digital or electronic portfolio; a person applying for an accounting position in the same corporation may have a more traditional portfolio.

Additionally, you may choose to customize your portfolio based on the way you use it. As you are searching through scholarships to apply for, you will want to note not only their required documents but also the values they desire. When you are aware of your audience and their expectations, it is easy to tailor your work to their desires. This is not to say that you will lie in your portfolio, but rather that you will emphasize some skills or accomplishments over others, and you may even choose not to include some material.

For example, if you are applying for a scholarship that is based on academic merit, you would naturally want to showcase achievements in that area. However, if you are applying for a scholarship that is based on service to the community, you would

want to discuss how you've volunteered at the local Boys and Girls Club, led a campaign to introduce a recycling program in your neighborhood, and participated in a fund-raiser for juvenile diabetes. See Table 9.2.1 for questions you should consider when customizing your portfolio.

Table 9.2.1: Customize Your Portfolio

Purpose	Why are you creating this portfolio?	Application to a particular school or academic program? Is it for a job? A scholarship? An award?
Audience	Who will be reading this portfolio?	Will it be supervisors? A scholarship committee made up of faculty, staff, and students? Peers? Faculty? Community members?
Format	How should I present this information?	Should it be presented in a notebook? A folder? Electronically?
Required	Have I included all the required documents that have been requested?	Can I, or should I, include other relevant documents? Will I be penalized for including additional documents? Have the documents been revised or updated?
Other Information	What information should be contained in a cover letter that explains the portfolio?	Do I need multiple copies of the portfolio? Who are the individuals I can contact if I have questions?

You may feel like you have little to put in your portfolio at this time. After all, perhaps you've never had a paying job or won any state competitions. Don't let that stop you. If you've been actively participating in academics and in your school activities, you probably have plenty to include. Following are suggested ideas that you might include in your personal portfolio, depending on its purpose and audience.

- **A copy of your personal mission statement and long- and short-term goals.** An admissions counselor, scholarship committee, or prospective employer would already know a great deal about you and what you value by reading your personal mission statement. Having stated goals and a plan of action for reaching those goals impresses others. It shows you have reflected on what is important to you (your values) and made decisions about how to live your life according to those values.

- **A copy of your resume.** Even though you may not have had many paying jobs, you should include those you have held, as well as any volunteering you have done and projects you have worked on for organizations you belong to. For example, if you were the recording secretary for an organization for two years, you should list that. It demonstrates your commitment to the organization, as well as your leadership potential, organizational skills, and communication skills. Your resume doesn't need to be elaborate, but it does need to be clearly written so that others can glean information about you from it.
- **Copies of transcripts, your diploma, and any certifications you have earned.** This information would be appropriate when applying for admission and scholarships; however, it might not always be appropriate. Use your best judgment when including this information.
- **Copies of any awards you have received.** If needed, include an explanation about the award. Often the award itself is explanation enough and is telling evidence of your personal character and abilities.
- **Copies of recommendation letters.** If you have excelled in particular classes or have done exceptional work for an individual, consider asking for a letter of recommendation. These letters could be rather general letters that describe the relationship you have with the individual (this person's student for two years, for instance), a description of the work you have accomplished, your skills, and general information about your character. If you need specific information for a specific purpose, don't hesitate to tell the person so the letter can be most effective.
- **Copies of names of references and their contact information.** References are people who will vouch for you and your skills. They may be contacted and asked specific questions about your abilities. Make sure the contact information—phone numbers, mailing address, e-mail address—is kept current. Also make sure you get permission to use them as references. It is an uncomfortable situation for someone to be called and asked to give a reference when that person is not expecting it. The opposite is also true: if the person named as reference is expecting to be called, he or she can be prepared to discuss your achievements and give a strong, positive profile of you.
- **Copies of your work samples.** Admissions counselors, scholarship committees, and prospective employers often want specific examples of work you have completed. Outstanding writing samples are very helpful, so you might consider including a copy of an essay or article you wrote. Group projects are also appropriate if you include a description of your participation and leadership in the project. Also consider including a piece of work that demonstrates your level of critical and creative thinking. Perhaps you designed an advertising campaign for your yearbook. Include copies of some of the work you created.
- **Any other requested information or materials that will showcase your skills.** For example, if you are planning on majoring in early childhood education, you would want to find a way to demonstrate your skills in working with children. You might write a summary of your experiences that describes how you've learned to effectively manage caring for children of various ages, how you've learned to solve problems, and how you completed a study on children's nutrition and snacks.

Key Note Term

resume – a short account of one's career and qualifications prepared typically by an applicant for an employment position.

Your portfolio might look a little different every time you use it. Keep in mind the purpose of the portfolio when you are selecting items to include in it.

Following are some other suggestions to keep in mind:

- **If you are sending your portfolio to someone, include a cover letter that explains why you are sending the portfolio and a brief description that highlights the contents.**
- **Put your materials in a logical order. If you are responding to a specific scholarship application that asks for specific materials, put the materials in the order in which they are listed on the application.**
- **Include the appropriate information and the appropriate amount of information. You want the person reviewing your portfolio to get a clear and complete profile of you, but you don't want to overwhelm that person. If you make him or her wade through excessive information, that person may not bother to look at any of it. Be complete, but don't go over the limit.**
- **If you include a great deal of information, find a way to make it accessible. For example, you might include tabs or staple sections separately.**
- **Keep your materials current. As you grow as a student, the work you produce will reflect that growth. Your thinking, writing, and leadership skills will strengthen, and you want the work in your portfolio to reflect that growth. Exchange your old examples for new ones.**
- **Keep your references current. For example, as you eventually move through college and get ready to enter the job market, you will replace the letter from your high school forensics coach with a letter from a college instructor. Likewise, when you work for different employers, always ask them for letters of recommendation or for permission to use them as references.**
- **Make sure your portfolio looks neat and professional. With today's easy access to computers, there really isn't a reason to include handwritten cover letters, resumes, or other information. This will be especially true when you approach graduation from college and will use your portfolio in the job market.**
- **Have your portfolio critiqued by an individual who can give you good advice. The process of assembling a portfolio is much the same as writing an essay. You should go through the process of having the portfolio critiqued and revised in order to present a high-quality profile of yourself.**

Building a Portfolio

Do you remember that old adage, "Rome wasn't built in a day"? The same is true for effective portfolios. You may have tried to write a paper the night before it was due or study for a test an hour before taking it. What was the result? Was the paper the best it could be? Did you get every question on the test correct? Probably not. Building a strong portfolio also takes time, and like a paper you write for your English class, it probably will need to be revised—possibly more than once.

As you begin to create your portfolio, think of its purpose in general terms. This should be a collection that you can pick and choose from when you are assembling portfolios for specific reasons.

You should probably consider investing in a small file in which you can keep your materials. Most of the time, you will want to send copies of documents, instead of originals, so you should have separate folders for each document. Make sure you mark the original in some way so that you won't accidentally send it away. Keep a few copies of the original ready in case you need to assemble multiple copies of the portfolio at one time. This is especially helpful if you are going to apply for admission to several different colleges or for multiple scholarships.

You should spend some time brainstorming your accomplishments and activities. At this point in the process, don't edit yourself or leave anything out. It's best to gather as much information as possible before you decide what is important and what isn't. When law enforcement agencies are investigating a crime, they are required to collect every type of information possible before they actually present the case. Think of your portfolio as evidence that proves your abilities; you also should collect as much information as possible before presenting your case.

Following are suggestions for collecting information:

- **Fine-tune your personal mission statement, and keep a copy in your files. Even if you don't use it in all the portfolios you send out, having it and using it will keep you focused on your goals.**
- **Get copies of transcripts and test scores from your school.**
- **Begin drafting your resume. If you don't know how to write a resume, check with your counselor or English teacher, who should have a packet of information for you. Or, you can purchase one of the many how-to books at your local bookstore.**
- **Consider carefully whom you might ask to write a letter of recommendation for you. Choose three or four individuals, and talk to them personally about what your goals are and why you would like them to write a letter for you. You might consider asking teachers, employers, club or activity sponsors, or adults who know you well. When they have written their letters, be sure to thank them.**
- **Make a list of all the awards you have earned, and make copies of the certificates that accompany the awards. Don't forget to include community service recognition as well as school activities.**
- **Sort through completed school assignments that demonstrate your academic abilities. Choose ones that emphasize your thinking and writing abilities.**

After you have a collection of materials ready, create a sample portfolio that you can have critiqued. Teachers or counselors who know you well would be good people to ask because they may remember something you've done but haven't included. After they have looked at it and given you suggestions for improvement, begin to revise. If your reviewers are willing to look at it again, let them. When you are happy with the materials, file them away until you need to assemble a portfolio for a specific purpose.

After completing your portfolio, you should be able to reflect on your accomplishments with a sense of pride and confidence. You will discover how valuable your work as a student, volunteer, participant, and leader has been. By creating a portfolio, you showcase not only your accomplishments as an individual but also your qualities and character. This should give you the motivation and self-confidence to move ahead with your life.

Keeping Your Portfolio Strong

Even when you get accepted into college or get the scholarship or a job you want, your work with your portfolio won't be over. You should consider your portfolio a living document that needs to steadily grow as you do. As you improve your skills and your thinking and as you participate in new experiences, you should document these accomplishments and add this evidence to your growing portfolio file. And as your older material becomes out-of-date and irrelevant, remove it from your files.

One way to keep your portfolio growing is to create and then take advantage of opportunities that you excel in. For example, you could find a campus organization to participate in and volunteer to be an officer, or you could join a community service organization. And, of course, you could take a co-op, internship, or job that will prepare you for the career you want after college graduation.

Creating a portfolio now will keep you organized and ready for any opportunity that may come your way.

Preparing a Winning Resume

The purpose of the resume is to get an interview. Similar to an advertisement, the resume should attract attention, create interest, describe accomplishments, and provoke action. Brevity is essential; one page is best, and two are the limit. The resume tells the prospective employer what you can do and have done, who you are, and what you know. It also indicates the kind of job you seek. The resume must provide enough information for the employer to evaluate your qualifications, and it must interest the employer enough so that you will be invited for an interview.

Writing a well-constructed resume requires that your research be completed before compiling the resume. You need to keep in mind the type of employer and position as well as the general job requirements in order to tailor your resume to the specific requirements and personality of the employer. To be most effective, your resume should be designed to emphasize your background as it relates to the job being sought. It should also look neat, clean, and organized. This means word-processed with no errors, and then laser-printed or photocopied on high-quality paper.

Portfolios

The portfolio is an expanded resume. It is usually a folder containing the basic resume and samples of your work related to the job objective. It is a good idea to be storing work samples now. For instance, a marketing specialist will send a potential employer a resume along with fliers, brochures, and ads created in past jobs. For a marketing student with limited experience, the folder could include copies of term papers, proposals completed for classes, and homework assignments related to the job objective. Portfolios are useful to have during information interviews, when you are at association meetings and networking, or upon request in an interview.

Preparation for Composing Your Resume

Although stating an objective is considered optional by some experts (because it can be stated in your cover letter), it is to your advantage to include it on the resume. In actuality, one resume should be designed for each job objective. Remember, there are no jobs titled “anything.”

The job objective is a concise and precise statement about the position you are seeking. This may include the type of firm in which you hope to work, such as a small, growing company. A clear objective gives focus to your job search and indicates to an employer that you’ve given serious thought to your career goals. When time does not allow you to develop a resume for each of several different jobs that interest you, the job objective may be emphasized in the cover letter, which will be discussed at the end of this chapter, and omitted from the resume.

A job objective is sometimes referred to as a goal, professional objective, position desired, or simply objective. It can be as specific as “community worker,” “personnel assistant,” or “junior programmer”; it can be as general as “management position using administrative, communications, and research skills” or “to work as an administrative assistant in a creative atmosphere and have the opportunity to use my abilities.” The more specific the objective statement, the better, because a clear objective enables you to focus your resume more directly on that objective. The effect is pointed, dramatic, and convincing.

A resume summarizes your particular background as it relates to a specific job. It summarizes your career objectives, education, work experience, special skills, and interests. Visualize a pyramid or triangle with the job objective at the top and everything beneath it supporting that objective.

Figure 9.2.1: Front and back of the resume index card. The format can be easily adapted for use in creating a computer file.

Elaine's Espresso House		April 2000–December 2000
555 Stevens Circle		
Roanoke, VA 23640		
(540) 555-1211		
Supervisor:	Position:	
Joe Smith	Bookkeeper & Shift Supervisor	
Skills Utilized:		
Related well with continuous flow of people. Attentive to detail; organized; energetic.		
Bilingual—Spanish/English		

Functions:	
Management	—Coordinated service with customer needs, payroll, scheduled employees.
Communications	—Welcomed guests. Directed staff in performing courteous and rapid service. Responded to and resolved complaints.
Bookkeeping	—Maintained records of financial transactions. Balanced books. Compiled statistical reports.

In writing the rough draft of your resume, prepare 5" x 3" index cards for each job you've held (see Figure 9.2.1).

The front of your index card should contain the following information:

- **Name, address, phone number of employer, and immediate supervisor at work site**
- **Dates employed (month/year to month/year)**
- **Job title**
- **Skills utilized**

The back of the card should show the duties divided into functional areas.

When choosing information to include in your resume, avoid anything that may not be considered in a positive light or that has no relationship to your ability to do the job, such as marital status, number of children, political or religious affiliation, age, photos. When in doubt, leave it out.

Using Action Words

Remember that your writing style communicates the work activity in which you have been involved. Use phrases and document experiences that both involve the reader and make your resume outstanding and active. Following are basic guidelines for selecting your “power” words:

- **Choose short, clear phrases.**
- **If you use sentences throughout, keep them concise and direct.**
- **Use the acceptable jargon of the work for which you are applying. Remember: You want your prospective employer to READ your resume.**
- **Avoid general comments such as “My duties were . . .” or “I worked for . . .” Begin with action words that concisely describe what your tasks were; for example:**

Developed more effective interviewing procedure.

Evaluated training program for new employees.

- **List the results of your activities; for example:**

Reduced office filing by 25 percent.

Developed interview evaluation summary form.

Increased efficiency in delivering services.

- **Don't dilute your action words with too many extraneous activities. Be SELECTIVE and sell your BEST experiences.**
- **Target your words to the employer's needs.**

The following are examples of action words that could be used in your resume:

accomplished	evaluated	negotiated
achieved	expanded	organized
analyzed	facilitated	oriented
arranged	guided	planned
built	implemented	processed
controlled	improved	produced
created	increased	proved
demonstrated	initiated	raised profits
designed	inspired	reduced costs
developed	interpreted	researched
directed	invented	sold
effected	led	supervised
encouraged	managed	supported
established	motivated	wrote

Using the Correct Key Phrases

In many large companies, human resources personnel now scan resumes into computer files and databases for storage and later retrieval. According to a poll by a management consulting firm, 31 percent of 435 human resource professionals indicated their firms used resume banks for recruiting. Many experts say the percentage of large and midsize companies using such programs is far higher, with employers such as Walt Disney World Company and MCI Communications Corp. leading the way in their use of resume banks. A growing biotechnology firm, Amgen, Inc., receives more than 225 resumes a day, about 60 percent in conventional paper format and 40 percent by e-mail or fax. All end up in an automated tracking system. The manager of employment systems at Amgen, Inc., says automated tracking allows the company to consider all applicants for all available jobs—which is especially important in a growing company. When an opening occurs, employers search their banks and databases for resumes using certain key phrases relevant to the position. For example, a company looking for “B.S., Information Systems, dBase, Lotus 1-2-3” would first retrieve resumes containing these key words.

Depending on the field in which you hope to work and the type of companies to which you will apply, this information may be vital to your writing a resume that gets retrieved during a key word search. In such cases, the appearance and style of your resume will be less significant than the manner in which you describe your specific skills: be certain to use concrete nouns to summarize past experience.

References

The expression “References available upon request” is usually sufficient on a resume and is typically placed at the end. Although you don’t have to list specific names on the resume, you should have at least three people in mind who can talk about your work habits, your skills, and your accomplishments. When you are job hunting, ask these people in advance if you may use them as references, informing them of your job objective so that they will be prepared if a prospective employer calls. Many college placement centers act as a clearinghouse for the collection of resumes and references. You establish a file, and the center sends out your resume and references when you make a request. The placement center often makes this service available for alumni, and it may have reciprocal agreements with other colleges across the country.

The Appearance of Your Resume

The appearance of this document is important. Your resume must be typed clearly, spaced well, and visually attractive. Remember that many employers skim only the first page of a resume. Thus, it is crucial that your material be strategically placed so that what is most likely to be read is most relevant to the job desired. Employers have been known to receive hundreds of resumes each day, giving them only minutes to review each one. Therefore, even if you must use two pages, the first is more

crucial. Experts advise against using a resume preparation service. An employer can usually spot a canned resume and might assume that the applicant lacks initiative or self-confidence. The time you spend writing your resume will be time well spent. It will give you the opportunity to summarize what you have to offer to an employer.

Personal computers and resume writing or word processing software can help turn an average-looking resume into a class act. If possible, store your resume and cover letter on a floppy disk or in hard-drive memory for easy retrieval and updating. Many duplicating shops have personal computers available for an hourly fee.

Although offset printing was once the preferred method of producing resumes, quick copies made at professional copy centers are now acceptable if they are reproduced on high-quality equipment and are clean and free of smudges. Use an attractive bond paper for these copies of your resume; usually a neutral color such as ivory or white is best. Copy centers typically have a wide selection of stationery available. It is often useful to have a career counselor, potential employer, family member, or friend review a draft of your resume before duplicating your final copy. Ask for a careful check of content, format, grammar, spelling, and appearance. Even if you plan to send your resume electronically via computer, make sure it is completely error-free.

Electronic Resumes

Whether you prepare your resume yourself or have it prepared professionally, after you have a document you can be proud to send to potential employers, you will need to make slight modifications to create the scannable version. Electronic resumes are entered into a resume bank, which means they are subject to electronic, as well as human, scanning. You may need to create two or more versions of your resume, emphasizing various skills and key words.

Guidelines for preparing and submitting electronic resumes

- Your resume will be viewed with 80-character lines and 24 lines to a screen page.
- Use an 8 1/2" x 11" page format. (If you plan to fax it, print it on white paper.)
- Use an easy-to-read typeface (font), such as Times, Helvetica, or Palatino, at a point size of 10 or 12.
- Avoid tabs (use the space key), underlines, boxes, columns, italics, and shading.
- Use boldface type and bullets to emphasize words.
- Use key skill words from a job description or advertisement.
- Some resume banks offer fill-in-the-blank templates, complete with instructions.
- E-mail a copy of your resume to yourself to see what it looks like. (You can do this from an Internet site that allows you to create your own resume using its format.)

You will find this process easier if your resume is on computer disk. You are then free to copy it and make changes to the copy. This allows you to keep your hard work safe and protected in the original file. If your resume is prepared professionally, you may also want to have the service prepare an electronic version. It will provide you with a disk containing the file, so you may create the electronic version yourself if you feel competent to do so. The key is to work from a copy—not the original.

Another reason to have your resume on disk is that employers and online resume distribution services often have different requirements for file formats and design specifications. The Web site for an online resume distribution service or potential employer will provide you with company-specific details; it may also offer assistance in preparing this very important promotional piece about you. The human resources department of a potential employer may also be able to provide you with electronic resume information.

Although it is highly recommended that your traditional resume be no more than one page, your electronic resume may be longer. The computer will easily scan more than one page. It uses all the information on your resume to determine if your skills match available positions. The computer searches for key words. Those key words can often be found in a general job description matching the position title for which you are applying. They also appear in classified ads and job postings. Or you may be able to glean some during information interviews. Be sure to write your resume to reflect the skill needs of the position—another reason why you may want to prepare multiple versions of your resume.

Refer back to the Guidelines for Preparing and Submitting Electronic Resumes sidebar for detailed how-to information. You may want to learn more about electronic resumes. Your career center will have many books on the subject, and resume Internet sites are excellent sources for additional information.

Types of Resumes

To reiterate, there are three general types of resume: functional, chronological, and combination. Comparing the following two sample work experience entries will give you some idea of the basic difference between functional and chronological resumes, which are referred to in Figure 9.2.2.

The next part of this lesson discusses all three types in detail. The combination resume, as the name implies, is a combination of functional and chronological.

The Functional Resume

A functional resume presents your experience, skills, and job history in terms of the functions you have actually performed rather than as a simple chronological listing of the titles of jobs you have held. Similar to any resume, it should be tailored to fit the main tasks and competencies required by the job you are seeking. Essentially,

NAME	
Address	
Phone Number	
Job Objective	State and describe as specifically as possible. Refer to the <i>Dictionary of Occupational Titles</i> for appropriate descriptive vocabulary.
Education	<p>Depending on your job objective and the amount of education you have had, you may want to place this category directly after Job Objective. (However, if your job experience is more relevant to the position being applied for or if your education is not recent, you will want to list job experience prior to education.) Most recent education should be listed first. Include relevant credentials and licenses.</p> <p>Example: As employers, educational institutions are usually more concerned with appropriate degrees than other employers. Include special workshops, noncredit courses, and self-taught skills when they are appropriate to your job objective.</p>
Experience	<p>Describe <i>functionally</i> (by activities performed) your experience relevant to the particular job for which you are applying; start with the most relevant and go to the less relevant. Include without distinction actual job experience, volunteer experience, your work on class projects, and school and class offices held. Alternatively, show your experience <i>chronologically</i>, listing your most recent professional experience first.</p> <p>There is no need to stress dates unless they indicate that you have been continuously advancing toward this job objective.</p> <p>Use action verbs; do not use full sentences, unless you decide to write your resume as a narrative.</p> <p>Use the <i>Dictionary of Occupational Titles</i> to help you describe accurately what you have done, always keeping in mind how your experience relates to your job objective. Remember to use words and skills related to your job objective to describe yourself in the cover letter and during the interview.</p>
Special Skills	<p>Put this optional category directly after Job Objective if you feel that your professional experience does not adequately reflect the talents you have that best support this job objective.</p> <p>Examples: Facility with numbers, manual dexterity, patience, workshops you have led, writing ability, self-taught skills, language fluency.</p>
References	<p>Available on request.</p> <p>(Use references only if you have space and if the names are well known to potential employers.)</p>

Figure 9.2.2: Resume Guidelines.

you redefine your past experiences according to the functions in the job for which you are applying. You should select and emphasize those activities from previous employment that relate to the specific job sought and deemphasize or omit irrelevant background.

For example, an administrative assistant might perform some administration, communications, and clerical functions. A secretary for an elementary school rewrote his resume to highlight these categories. To better define the skills used in his secretarial job, he researched the job description of executive secretary and office manager in his school personnel manual and located the description of administrative assistant in the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*. (See the section “Suggestions for Job Descriptions” that follows.) He then compiled his resume to show how his executive secretarial responsibilities related to the administrative assistant position desired. Assess how your past work or life experience can be described in such categories as marketing, human resources, finance, community services, or research and development.

Suggestions for job descriptions

Descriptions in the Dictionary of Occupational Titles and in some personnel manuals provide a source of helpful phrases and statements to use in describing your own job history and experience. The following two descriptions, for example, would be useful to you in composing a functional resume for a job in business. However, you would use only relevant sentences, adapting them to your personal background.

Office Manager

Coordinates activities of clerical personnel in the organization. Analyzes and organizes office operations and procedures such as word processing, bookkeeping, preparation of payrolls, flow of correspondence, filing, requisitioning of supplies, and other clerical services. Evaluates office production, revises procedures, or devises new forms to improve efficiency of work flow. Establishes uniform correspondence procedures and style practices. Formulates procedures for systematic retention, protection, retrieval, transfer, and disposal of records. Plans office layouts and initiates cost reduction programs. Reviews clerical and personnel records to ensure completeness, accuracy, and timeliness. Prepares activity reports for guidance of management. Prepares employee ratings and conducts employee benefits and insurance programs. Coordinates activities of various clerical departments or workers within department.

Administrative Assistant

Aids executive in staff capacity by coordinating office services such as personnel, budget preparation and control, housekeeping, records control, and special management studies. Studies management methods in order to improve work flow, simplify reporting procedures, and implement cost reductions. Analyzes unit operating practices, such as recordkeeping systems, forms control, office layout, suggestion systems, personnel and budgetary requirements, and performance standards, to create new systems or revise established procedures. Analyzes jobs to delineate position responsibilities for use in wage and salary adjustments, promotions, and evaluation of work flow. Studies methods of improving work measurements or performance standards.

If you are applying for a specific job, ask the human resources department for a copy of the job description; then tailor your resume to the skills listed in that description.

Creative functional resume

Beginning or returning workers who have had no paid experience often find it particularly hard to make their activities sound transferable to the world of work. They dismiss their experience as academic work or homemaking, which they mistakenly think differs markedly from work in business; however, they usually

have been performing business functions without realizing it. People without paid work experience and people returning to the job market after taking time out to be homemakers can persuade employers to recognize their ability and practical experience if they describe their life in categories such as these:

Management

- Coordinated the multiple activities of five people of different ages and varying interests, keeping within tight schedules and continuous deadlines.
- Established priorities for the allocation of available time, resources, and funds.

Office Procedures

- Maintained lists of daily appointments, reminders, items to be purchased, people to be called, tasks to be accomplished.
- Handled all business and personal correspondence—answered and issued invitations, wrote stores about defective merchandise, made hotel reservations.

Personnel

- Recruited, hired, trained, and supervised household staff; negotiated wages.
- Motivated children to assume responsibilities and helped them develop self-confidence.
- Resolved problems caused by low morale and lack of cooperation.

Finances

- Established annual household budget, and monitored costs to stay within expenses.
- Balanced the checkbook and reconciled monthly bank statements.
- Calculated take-home pay of household staff, made quarterly reports to the government on Social Security taxes withheld.

Purchasing

- Undertook comparison shopping for food, clothing, furniture, and equipment, and purchased at various stores at different times, depending on best value.
- Planned meals according to savings available at different food stores.
- Shopped for insurance and found lower premiums than current coverage, resulting in substantial savings.

Pros and cons of the functional resume

The functional resume is especially useful if you have limited work experience or breaks in your employment record, or if you are changing fields. You need not include dates or distinguish paid activities from nonpaid volunteer activities. By omitting or deemphasizing previous employers' names, you downplay any stereotyped assumptions that a prospective employer may make about previous

employers (McDonald's, the PTA, a school district). Similarly, highlighting skills and de-emphasizing job titles help direct the future employer to the fact that you are someone with specific abilities that may be useful in the present job opening. This format also can emphasize your growth and development.

To use this format effectively, you must be able to identify and write about your achievements. This sometimes requires the assistance of an expert resume writer. Additionally, some employers may prefer resumes that include exact dates and job titles.

The Chronological Resume

The chronological resume is the traditional, most often used resume style. It lists your work history in reverse chronological order, meaning the most recent position or occupation is listed first. The work history should include dates employed, job title, job duties, and employer's name, address, and telephone number.

Pros and cons of the chronological resume

The chronological resume is most useful for people with no breaks in their employment record and for whom each new position indicates continuous advancement or growth. Recent high school and college graduates also find this approach simpler than creating a functional resume.

As dates tend to dominate the presentation, any breaks or undocumented years of work may stand out. If your present position is not related to the job you desire, you may be eliminated from the competition by employers who feel that current experience is the most important consideration in reviewing resumes. However, if you emphasize skills in your present job that will be important to the new position, this will be less of a problem.

The Combination Resume

If you have major skills important for success in your desired job in addition to an impressive record of continuous job experience with reputable employers, you can best highlight this double advantage with a combination of the functional and chronological styles of resume. This combination style usually lists functions followed by years employed with a list of employers. The combination style also satisfies the employer who wants to see the dates that you were actually employed.

Cover Letter Guidelines

One sure way to turn off a prospective employer is to send a resume with no cover letter. Or send a form letter addressed to Personnel Manager. Or address your letter Dear Sir, only to have it received by a female manager.

A cover letter is used to announce your availability and introduce the resume. It is probably one of the most important self-advertisements you will write.

The cover letter should indicate you have researched the organization and are clearly interested in a position there. Let the person to whom you are writing know what sources you used and what you know about the firm in the first paragraph—to get his or her attention and show your interest.

You may have heard people say, “It’s not what you know, but who you know that counts.” This is only partly true, but nonetheless important. You can often get to know someone with only a little effort. Call or, better yet, visit the organization and talk to people who already hold the job you want. Be tactful and discreet, of course. You’re not trying to take their position from them. Ask about training, environment, salary, and other relevant issues; then in your cover letter, mention you talked with some of the firm’s employees, and these discussions increased your interest. You thereby show the reader you took the initiative to personally visit the company and that you know someone, if only casually.

Basic principles of letter and resume writing include being self-confident when listing your positive qualities and attributes, writing as one professional to another, and having your materials properly prepared. Figure 9.2.3 shows resume cover letter guidelines.

	Address City, State Zip Date
	Name of Person Company Name Street Address or P.O. Box City, State Zip
Salutation:	(Dear M _____: or Greetings:)
	The first paragraph should indicate what job you are interested in and how you heard about it. Use the names of contact persons here, if you have any.
Sample Entry	Your employment advertisement in Tuesday's <i>News Chronicle</i> indicating an opening for an administrative assistant is of special interest to me. Mary Smith, who is employed with your firm, suggested I write to you. I have heard that Rohn Electronics is a growing company and needs dynamic employees who want to learn and contribute to the firm.
	The second paragraph should relate your experience, skills, and background to the particular position. Refer to your enclosed resume for details, and highlight the specific skills and competencies that could be useful to the company.
Sample Entry	During the last five years, I worked as office manager. In this position, I improved office efficiency by investigating and selecting word processing equipment. I understand that your opening includes responsibilities for supervising and coordinating word processing procedures with your home office. I was able to reduce my firm's operating costs over 30 percent by selecting the best equipment for our purposes.
	The third paragraph should indicate your plans for follow-up contact and that your resume is enclosed.
Sample Entry	I would appreciate the opportunity to apply my skills on behalf of your company. For your examination, I have enclosed a resume indicating my education and work experience. I will call your office early next week to determine a convenient time for an appointment to further discuss possible employment opportunities.
	Sincerely,
	NOTE: Don't forget to sign the letter.
	Your first and last name
	Enclosure (or Attachment)

Figure 9.2.3: Resume cover letter guidelines.

If at all possible, address your letter to a specific person, name spelled correctly and with the proper title. These details count. Your opening paragraph should contain the “hook.” Arouse some work-related interest. Explain (very briefly) why you are writing. How did you become interested in that company? Summarize what you have to offer. Details of your background can show why you should be considered as a job candidate. The self-appraisal that went into preparation of your resume tells what you can and like to do and where your strengths and interests lie. Your research on the prospective employer should have uncovered the qualifications needed. If your letter promises a good match—meaning your abilities matched with the company’s needs—you’ve attracted attention.

Keep your letter short and to the point. Refer to your resume, highlighting relevant experiences and accomplishments that match the firm’s stated needs. Ask for an interview. Indicate when you will be calling to confirm a convenient time for the interview. Let your letter express your individuality but within the context of the employment situation.

The cover letter should be individually typed for each job desired. Always review both cover letter and resume for good margins, clarity, correct spelling, and accurate typing. Appearance does count.

Application Forms

Key Note Term

employment application – a form used in making a request to be considered for a job position.

A final type of form, accepted sometimes as a substitute for a resume, is an application form. The **employment application** is a form used by most companies to gain necessary information and to register applicants for work, as shown in Figure 9.2.4. This information becomes a guide to determine a person’s suitability for both the company and the job that needs filling. You should observe carefully the following guidelines.

You will probably be asked to fill out an employment application form, usually before the **interview** takes place. With this in mind, it is good practice to arrive at the employment office a little ahead of the time of your interview. Bring along a pen and your resume or personal data sheet. You will be asked to provide your name, address, training or education, experience, special abilities, and possibly even your hobbies and interests. Practically all application forms request that you state the job you are seeking and the salary you have received in the past. Most firms require an applicant to complete an application form.

Many times the employer wants to make certain rapid comparisons and needs only to review the completed company employment application forms on file. For example, Ms. Ford needed a stenographer who could type fast. She examined many application forms of people who had word processing skills. By referring to the same section each time, she quickly thumbed through dozens of applications, eliminating all candidates who had only average speed. Thus, there was no need for her to examine resumes or read dozens of letters to find out exactly how fast each candidate could type.

Key Note Term

interview – a formal face-to-face meeting, especially one conducted for the assessment of an applicant.

Date _____

PERSONAL INFORMATION:

Name _____
 Last First Middle

Address _____
 Street City State Zip

Telephone Number (____) _____ Are you over 17 years of age? ☐ Yes ☐ No

POSITION WANTED:

Job Title _____ Date Available _____ Salary Desired _____

Check any that apply: ☐ Full Time ☐ Part Time ☐ Day Shift ☐ Night Shift

EDUCATION:

Begin with high school; include any military school you may have attended:

NAME OF SCHOOL	LOCATION OF SCHOOL	DEGREE OR COURSE OF STUDY
_____	_____	_____

List any Academic Honors or Professional Associations: _____

WORK EXPERIENCE:

List last three employers. Start with the current or most recent.

Name and Address of Employer _____

Dates Worked _____ Pay _____ Reason for Leaving _____

Job Title _____ Job Description _____

Name and Address of Employer _____

Dates Worked _____ Pay _____ Reason for Leaving _____

Job Title _____ Job Description _____

Name and Address of Employer _____

Dates Worked _____ Pay _____ Reason for Leaving _____

Job Title _____ Job Description _____

Computer Skills (describe) _____ Typing Speed _____ wpm
 (if applicable) (if applicable)

Do you have any physical condition or handicap that may limit your ability to perform the job applied for? ☐ Yes ☐ No
 If yes, what can be done to accommodate your limitation? _____

Have you ever been convicted of a felony? ☐ Yes ☐ No If yes, give kind and date.
 A conviction will not necessarily disqualify you from employment.

Are you legally entitled to work in the U.S.? ☐ Yes ☐ No Can you provide proof of citizenship after employment? ☐ Yes ☐ No

Are you a veteran? ☐ Yes ☐ No If yes, give dates: _____

List the names of three references whom we may contact who have knowledge of your skills, talents, or technical knowledge:

(1)	(2)	(3)
Name and Relationship (Supervisor, Teacher, etc.)	_____	_____
Address	_____	_____
Telephone & Area No.	_____	_____

I certify, by my signature below, that any false or omitted important facts in my answers on this application may be cause for dismissal.

Applicant's Signature _____ Date _____

Figure 9.2.4: Sample employment application.

Neatness Counts

The way in which an application form has been filled out indicates the applicant's level of neatness, thoroughness, and accuracy. If two applicants seem to have equal qualifications but one's form is carelessly filled out, the application itself might tilt the balance in favor of the other applicant. Unless your handwriting is especially clear, print or type all answers. Look for "please print" instructions on the form.

Sometimes you may apply for a job by mail, and a form will be sent to you. The application form should be carefully, completely, neatly, and accurately filled out. You should then return it to the company, and you may also attach a copy of your resume. When you have completed the application, go over it again. Have you given the information asked? When an item asked for is not applicable, have you written in N/A (not applicable or not available)?

Filling out application forms

1. Fill out the application form in ink—or use a typewriter.
2. Answer every question that applies to you. If a question does not apply or is illegal you may write N/A, meaning not applicable, or draw a line through the space to show that you did not overlook the question.
3. Give your complete address, including zip code.
4. Spell correctly. If you aren't sure how to spell a word, use the dictionary or try to use another word with the same meaning.
5. A question on job preference or “job for which you are applying” should be answered with a specific job title or type of work. Do not write “anything.” Employers expect you to state clearly what kind of work you can do.
6. Have a prepared list of schools attended and previous employers. Include addresses and dates of employment.
7. Be prepared to list several good references. It is advisable to ask permission of those you plan to list. Good references include:
 - a. A recognized community leader
 - b. A former employer or teacher who knows you well
 - c. Friends who are established in business
8. When you write or sign your name on the application, use your formal name—not a nickname. Your first name, middle initial, and last name are usually preferred.
9. Be as neat as possible. Employers expect that your application will be an example of your best work.

Conclusion

This lesson provided various examples of resumes, cover letters, letters of introduction, and application form reminders. Putting the resume together is now your job. With a little work and some advice from family and friends, you can put together a professional-looking resume and cover letter that will “Wow” a potential employer.

Lesson Review

1. What are the different types of resumes covered in this lesson?
2. Why do you need different resumes for different job applications?
3. What information should you include in a cover letter?
4. What is the point of an employer having you fill out an application, even though you have a resume?

Lesson 3

Military Career Opportunities



Key Terms

active duty
commissary
counterpart
enlistment
exchange
prerequisite
recruiter
Reserves

What You Will Learn to Do

- Relate the military to your career goals

Linked Core Abilities

- Build your capacity for life-long learning
- Take responsibility for your actions and choices

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain along the Way

- Explain the difference between the three career paths available in the U.S. Armed Forces
- Identify four ways to become a commissioned officer
- Identify basic enlistment qualifications and processes to enter the military
- Describe benefits provided to enlisted members of the military
- Describe the purpose of the Selective Service
- Define key words contained in this lesson

Chapter 9

Introduction

The military is one of the largest employers of high school graduates in full time positions. The U.S. armed forces hires over 365,000 enlisted and officer personnel each year. The military is one more career option to consider in your career planning. Serving in the armed forces allows you to contribute to your own advancement and to your country at the same time. In this lesson, you explore military careers and benefits. You match military opportunities to your career interests.

Key Note Term

enlistment – to engage a person for duty in the armed forces.

Note

For more information on military **enlistment** and education programs, go to <http://www.militarycareers.com>.

Types of Military Career Paths

The military offers three career paths for its members: the noncommissioned officer path, the warrant officer path, and the commissioned officer path. The following sections introduce you to these career paths.

Noncommissioned Officers

Noncommissioned officers (NCOs) are enlisted personnel who have advanced above the first three entry-level positions and hold supervisory positions over other lower ranking enlisted members. Within the Army, NCOs are known as “the backbone of the Army” because they actually supervise the details involved in accomplishing the unit’s mission.

Noncommissioned officers’ ranks start at pay grade E-4. They are better known as corporals in the Army and Marine Corps, petty officers third class in the Navy and Coast Guard, and sergeants in the Air Force; however, there are E-4s who are not noncommissioned officers. They are specialists in the Army and senior airmen in the Air Force. Specialists and senior airmen are technicians in their field and, as such, do not supervise lower grade personnel.

Warrant Officers

A warrant officer ranks between an enlisted person and a second lieutenant in the Army, Air Force, and Marine Corps or between an enlisted person and an ensign in the Navy and Coast Guard. As technical specialists, each branch of service primarily assigns them to duties in their area of expertise.

Commissioned Officers

Commissioned officers are the professional leaders of the military. The President of the United States appoints them and the Senate confirms them to hold positions of authority in the armed forces. Officers range from second lieutenant in the Army, Air Force, and Marine Corps (or ensign in the Navy and Coast Guard) to General of the Army or Air Force and Fleet Admiral of the Navy or Coast Guard. An officer's role is similar to that of a manager or executive in the civilian world. Officers are typically responsible for setting and meeting objectives by managing lower grade officers and enlisted personnel.

Military Career Groups

Within the three types of military career paths mentioned in the previous section, you can find a variety of career groups. The following introduces you to these groups.

Noncommissioned Officers

Noncommissioned officers specialize in 1 of 12 military career groups. These 12 groups are:

- **Human Services Occupations**
- **Media and Public Affairs Occupations**
- **Health Care Occupations**
- **Engineering, Science and Technical Occupations**
- **Administrative Occupations**
- **Service Occupations**
- **Vehicle and Machinery Mechanic Occupations**
- **Electronic and Electrical Equipment Repair Occupations**
- **Construction Occupations**
- **Machine Operator and Precision Work Occupations**
- **Transportation and Material Handling Occupations**
- **Combat Specialty Occupations**

Of these 12 categories, all have civilian **counterparts**, except Combat Specialty Occupations. A specialty is a particular branch of a profession or field of study to which its members devote or restrict themselves. The military offers over 2,000 job specialties within these 12 broad areas from which enlisted personnel can choose.

Key Note Term

counterpart – something that is similar or comparable to another, as in function or relation.

Warrant Officers

Warrant officers also specialize in a single area of expertise. This area is generally in one of the 12 military career groups covered earlier in this lesson.

Commissioned Officers

Officers have two areas of concentration or specialties. The primary area of concentration is further divided into fields such as combat arms, combat support, and combat service support. The secondary or functional area of concentration is a career field unrelated to the primary area of concentration. Each branch of the service normally assigns a secondary specialty to their officers after they have become qualified in their primary specialty.

Military Career Paths—Prerequisites

Key Note Term

prerequisite – a requirement or condition you must meet or achieve before being able to move on to your goal.

To follow your chosen military career path, you must meet certain **prerequisites**. This means that you must meet specific qualifications before reaching your military goal. This might include working your way up through the ranks, taking a training course, or completing a degree program.

Noncommissioned Officers

You become a noncommissioned officer by advancing through the enlisted ranks. Competition among your peers is the basis for promotions within the NCO corps. Ability, job performance, skill, experience, and potential are the major considerations for advancement; however, at each grade level, there are certain minimum requirements for promotion such as time in service, time in grade (present level of work), and successful completion of skill level examinations. Also, in some cases, there are military educational requirements which an NCO must meet.

Warrant Officers

In some branches of the service, personnel must first work their way up through the enlisted ranks; then, after meeting the required prerequisites, they may apply to become a warrant officer. However, some of the services also require you to be a certain rank before you are eligible to apply and they prefer their warrant officers and warrant officer applicants to have an Associate's Degree or the equivalent. In the Army, one way you can become a warrant officer is by enlisting for the Warrant Officer Candidate School in its Aviation Program.

Commissioned Officers

There are four main pathways to become a commissioned officer:

- **Completion of ROTC**
- **Graduation from a service academy**

- **Completion of Officer Candidate School (OCS) or Officer Training School (OTS)**
- **Direct appointment**

Reserve Officers' Training Corps (ROTC)

The Reserve Officers' Training Corps is a course that you can take while in college. The Army refers to its course as the Senior ROTC program (or SROTC). SROTC is a two- to four-year program that has extensive military training both on campus and at summer camps.

Many colleges and universities across the country offer one or more ROTC programs for the Army, Navy/Marine Corps (the Marines do not have their own program), and Air Force. In some cases, you may be eligible for a military scholarship (where the military pays most of the educational costs plus a monthly stipend of \$150 for up to 10 months per year), or financial aid while participating in ROTC. After graduating from college and successfully completing the ROTC training, you become a commissioned officer. This commission will incur an eight-year service obligation. Participants must be younger than 27 years of age for the Army—25 for the other services—when commissioned.

Service Academies

There are four service academies for which you can apply and receive a commission in the U.S. armed forces. Applicants for the U.S. Military Academy at West Point, NY (for Army applicants), the Naval Academy at Annapolis, MD (for Navy and Marine applicants), and the Air Force Academy at Colorado Springs, CO, must be nominated, usually by a member of Congress, to be considered. Nominations for the Coast Guard Academy at New London, CT, are made competitively on a nationwide basis—that is, congressional nominations are not required.

Each academy is a four-year program in which you can graduate as a military officer with a Bachelor of Science degree. At these academies, the government pays your tuition and expenses. In return, you are obligated to serve six years on **active duty** and two years in an inactive reserve status. Applicants must be at least 17 years of age but not older than 22; a U.S. citizen; of good moral character; able to meet the academic, physical, and medical requirements; not be married or pregnant; and not have any legal obligations to support family members. Acceptance to an academy is highly competitive. Each year, they receive between 10,000 and 12,000 applications. Of those who qualify, only about 1,200 receive appointments.

Officer Candidate/Officer Training Schools

If you are a college graduate with a four-year degree and do not have any prior military experience, you may join the service of your choice with a guaranteed option to attend Officer Candidate School (OCS) or Officer Training School (OTS). Course lengths vary by service, but they are normally less than six months. Then, after successfully completing the training, you are eligible to become an officer.

If you earn a degree while serving on active duty, you may apply for OCS or OTS. You must first meet all of the prerequisites and your unit commander must approve

Key Note Term

active duty – a condition of military service where members are on full duty, or subject to call, at all time to respond quickly to the nation's emergencies.

your request. Additionally, each state National Guard has its own Officer Candidate School that takes applicants directly from its own units. If they successfully complete the training, they are commissioned and are usually sent back to the unit from which they came to serve as officers.

Direct Appointment

A person in a professional field, such as medicine or law, may receive a direct appointment and become a commissioned officer even without prior military training. The grade that a professional receives upon entering into the military depends upon two factors: years of schooling and prior experience in that profession. For example, a professional could start out at the grade of captain. The appointment of professionals accounts for the majority of the direct appointments made by the services.

Within the U.S. Army, over 70 percent of its new officers come from ROTC each year. Within the other branches of the armed forces, about 15 percent of the military's new officers come from the service academies, 25 percent from officer candidate/training schools, 45 percent from ROTC, and 15 percent from direct appointment.

Enlisted Commissions

Selected enlisted personnel from each service may qualify for appointment to one of the four service academies or may be eligible to attend an ROTC program. Other enlisted commissioning programs include:

- **The Army's Green to Gold program**
- **The Navy's BOOST (Broadened Opportunity for Officer Selection and Training) program**
- **The Army Medical Department's Enlisted Commissioning Program**
- **The Navy Enlisted Commissioning Program**
- **The Marine Corps Enlisted Commissioning Education Program**
- **The Airman Education and Commissioning Program**
- **The Coast Guard's Pre-commissioning Program for Enlisted Personnel**

In the last five programs of the previous list, qualified enlisted personnel may collect full pay and allowances while attending college full time. Those who graduate and finish an officer candidate program receive their commissions.

An enlisted person may also receive a direct appointment as an officer if that person demonstrates performance far above the standards called for in his or her occupational field and does not have a disciplinary record.

Note

Appointments of this nature are extremely rare.

Remember, to join the military as an officer, you must have a Bachelor's degree. Certain scientific and technical fields, such as medicine or law, require advanced degrees.

If you are interested in any of the options discussed in this lesson, your JROTC instructors, the school guidance or career counselors, and/or service **recruiters** will be able to give you the information you need.

Key Note Term

recruiter – a member of the armed services who enlists new members into the armed forces.

Benefits of Military Service

The military can offer an exciting and rewarding career. It is important to research the career options that are available to you. When you enter the military, you must sign a contract that commits you to serving a specific amount of time. In return, the military offers you a variety of benefits. Table 9.3.1 summarizes most of those benefits.



Figure 9.3.3: Participating in sports and other recreational activities is just one benefit.

Table 9.3.1: Summary of Employment Benefits for Enlisted Members

Benefit	Description
Vacation	Leave time of thirty days per year
Medical, Dental, and Eye Care	Full health, medical, hospitalization, dental, and eye care services for enlistees and most health care costs for family members; in remote sites, this care is available from civilian sources (dental care, especially for family members, is with civilian care under a dental plan)
Continuing Education	Voluntary educational programs for undergraduate and graduate degrees, or for single courses, including tuition assistance for programs at colleges and universities
Recreational Programs	Programs include athletics, entertainment, and hobbies, such as softball, basketball, football, swimming, tennis, golf, weight training, and other sports Parties, dances, and entertainment Club facilities, snack bars, game rooms, movie theaters, and lounges Active hobby and craft clubs, and book and music libraries
Exchange & Commissary Privileges	Food, goods, and services at military stores are available, generally at lower costs and tax free, although the commissary does charge a small surcharge
Legal Assistance	Many free legal services for help with personal matters

Key Note Term

exchange – a store at a military installation that sells merchandise and services to military personnel and authorized civilians.

commissary – a supermarket for use by military personnel and their dependents located on a military installation.

Selective Service

It is the legal obligation of young men to register with Selective Service when they turn 18 years of age. Failure to register can result in jail time, a fine, and other serious consequences. Not knowing about Selective Service registration is not a justifiable excuse under the law.

Who Must Register

The *Military Selective Service Act* states that male U.S. citizens and male aliens residing in the U.S. who are between the ages of 18 and 26 must register in a manner prescribed by proclamation of the President. The proclamation under which registration is presently required was signed on July 2, 1980. It provides that young men must register with Selective Service within 30 days of their 18th birthday.

A man is exempt from registering while he is on full-time active duty in the U.S. Armed Forces. Cadets and midshipmen at service academies are included in the exemption. Members of the National Guard and **Reserves** not on full-time active duty must register unless they have reached age 26 or are already registered.

Lawfully admitted non-immigrant aliens (for example, those on visitor or student visas and members of diplomatic or trade missions and their families) are not required to register. Parolees and refugees who are aliens residing in this country must register.

Those who are unable to register on schedule due to circumstances beyond their control—for example, those that are hospitalized, institutionalized or incarcerated—do not have to register until they are released. After release, they have 30 days in which to register. Handicapped men who live at home must register if they are reasonably able to leave the home and go into a public place. A friend or relative may help a handicapped man to fill out the form if he is unable to do so by himself.

The fact that a man is required to register does not mean that he is certain to be drafted. If Congress should authorize a draft, a registrant within the group subject to induction would have his eligibility for service determined based on his individual situation at that time.

Key Note Term

Reserves – a military force withheld from action for later decisive use; forces not in the field but available; the military forces of a country not part of the regular service.

Frequently Asked Questions About Selective Service Registration

- Q. What is Selective Service?
- A. The Selective Service System is a government agency. Its job is to provide men for service in the Armed Forces if there is a national emergency.
- Q. What is Selective Service registration?
- A. When you register, you add your name to a list of all men in the nation, ages 18 to 25. The Selective Service would use this list to identify men for possible military service in a national emergency.
- Q. Do females have to register?
- A. No, by law they do not.
- Q. What happens if there's a draft?
- A. There has not been a draft since 1973, but if there was an emergency, and Congress ordered another draft, Selective Service would conduct a birth date lottery to decide the order in which to call men. The Selective Service would first call men who turn 20 in the calendar year in a sequence determined by the lottery. If the military needed more, the Selective Service might then call those men who are 21 to 25, youngest first.
- Q. Do I have to register?
- A. Yes, it is the law. If you do not register and the government prosecutes you, it could send you to jail for up to five years and/or fine you up to \$250,000. Not registering hurts you in other ways, too. You would not qualify for federal student grants or loans, job training benefits, or most federal employment.

Q. Is registration hard?

A. No, it is simple. Just go to any post office and ask for a Selective Service registration card. Fill in your name, address, telephone number, date of birth, and Social Security number. Then, give the card to the postal clerk. The clerk will ask to see some identification so bring your driver's license or some other piece of identification. It takes only about five minutes.

Q. Do I have to register at a post office?

A. Maybe not. You may receive a registration card in the mail, or you can obtain a card from your local recreation or social service center. If so, just fill it out and mail it to Selective Service. Check with your JROTC instructors; they may be able to register you over the Internet. Finally, check with your school's guidance office; you may be able to register there.

Q. When should I register?

A. Register within 30 days of your 18th birthday. If you are applying for federal student aid or job training, you can register up to 120 days before you turn 18 to avoid delays. If you cannot register on time because you are in a hospital or prison, you do not have to register until you are released. You then have 30 days in which to register.

Q. What if it's more than 30 days after I've turned 18 and I haven't registered?

A. Register at a post office immediately. Selective Service will accept a late registration, but the longer you wait, the longer you are breaking the law.

Q. Do all men have to register?

A. To make the system fair, the law requires all 18-year-old men to register. The only young men exempt from registration are foreigners who are in the U.S. temporarily as tourists, diplomats, or students; personnel on active duty in the Armed Forces; and students at U.S. service academies. Immigrant non-citizen males, 18 to 25 must register.

Q. How do I prove I registered?

A. After you register, Selective Service will mail you a card. Keep it as proof that you have registered. You may need it if you apply for federal employment, federal student aid, or job training. If you do not get your card within 90 days of registering, write to: Registration Information Office, P.O. Box 94638, and Palatine, IL 60094-4638. Or, call 1-847-688-6888.

Q. What if I change my address?

A. Notify Selective Service of your new address on a Change of Information form. You can get one at any post office. Or, you can use the Change of Address form that comes with your acknowledgment card.

Conclusion

Serving in the armed forces allows you to contribute to your own advancement and to your country at the same time. The Army, Navy, Marine Corps, Air Force, and Coast Guard combined offer numerous opportunities each year for high school graduates in positions similar to those found in the civilian sector. Remember, the military is one more career option to consider in your career planning.

With “fast facts” and “frequently asked questions,” this lesson provided pertinent information for young male adults about the *Military Selective Service* Act and Selective Service registration. This lesson pointed out that it is not hard to register and that there are numerous ways that men can register. The main thing for males to remember—when you are within 30 days of your 18th birthday, register.

Lesson Review

1. Compare and contrast the different career paths offered in the military.
2. Which noncommissioned career group interests you the most? Why?
3. What are the prerequisites for becoming a warrant officer?
4. Who must register for the draft? When must they register?

Lesson 4

College Preparation



Key Terms

academic
admissions
aptitude test
college
distance education
financial aid
grants
registration
scholarships
tuition
university

What You Will Learn to Do

- Create a College Preparation Action Plan

Linked Core Abilities

- Take responsibility for your actions and choices

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain along the Way

- Discuss different types of colleges
- Describe the admissions process
- Explore ways to finance college
- Identify educational institutions and majors that fit personal needs
- Define key words

Introduction

This lesson helps you prepare for college. It tells you what you need to know about the different types of colleges, the admission process and requirements, and ways to finance college.

Deciding Whether College Is Right for You

Before you can begin preparing for **college**, you have to ask yourself a few questions. “What are my reasons for attending college?” “What are my reasons for not attending college?”

Attending college is not the only way to attain your career goals. It is possible that certain careers can be pursued without a traditional four-year college program. Take nursing for example. You must earn either a two-year associate degree or a four-year baccalaureate degree to qualify for a job as a registered nurse. However, in a two-year program at a community college, you would not take the courses in management and public health found in the four-year counterpart, but you would get more clinical experience.

If a traditional **college** or **university** does not cover your career choice, you might explore the opportunities that a business, trade, or technical school has to offer. The length of study at these schools varies from a few weeks to a few years. You can learn a particular skill or trade and earn a diploma, certificate of completion, or a license of some sort following the completion of the program. Some examples of occupations for which these schools can provide instruction are court reporting, hairstyling, computer repair, and cooking.

Another alternative to a four-year college program is e-learning, or **distance education**. Distance education has its advantages. The reduced need for buildings, housing, and personnel costs may make **tuition** more affordable.

Online classes through distance education institutions or universities are often more convenient and can be taken at different times and places. Other distance education programs may make use of other technologies, including the following: video, audio, audiographics, text-based correspondence, radio, broadcast TV, and so on. Additionally, many employers offer distance classes on the job.

If your career choice does not require going to college, you need to first identify the workplace skills and experiences necessary to pursue your career goals and then find the resources that help you reach them.

Key Note Term

college – an independent institution of higher learning offering a course of general studies leading to a bachelor’s degree; a part of a university offering a specialized group of courses; an institution offering instruction, usually in a professional, vocational, or technical field.

university - an institution of higher learning providing facilities for teaching and research, and authorized to grant academic degrees; specifically, one made up of an undergraduate division that confers bachelor’s degrees, and a graduate division that comprises a graduate school and professional schools, each of which may confer master’s degrees and doctorates.

Key Note Term

distance education – learning that takes place via electronic media linking instructors and students who are not together in a classroom.

tuition – the price of or payment for instruction.

Key Note Term

admissions – the act or process of admitting.

The Admissions Process

The process of applying to college should begin in the fall of your high school senior year. If you are applying to more than one college, the process can become overwhelming. It is important that you are organized and have your career development portfolio up to date.

The following steps outline the major tasks involved in the **admissions** process.

1. **Gather applications from the colleges you are considering.**
2. **Know the application deadlines for each college.**
3. **Complete and mail each admission application.**
4. **Apply for financial aid (keep in mind application deadlines).**
5. **Apply for scholarships (keep in mind application deadlines).**
6. **Apply for campus housing if you are not living at home while you attend college.**
7. **Make your college choice, enroll, and register for classes.**

General Admission or Entrance Requirements

Admission or entrance requirements can differ from one college to another; however, there are basic criteria that are required for the majority of colleges.

One of the basic admission requirements is that you must have graduated from an accredited high school or have earned a GED (General Equivalency Diploma). Many colleges require specific coursework or curricula from high school. For example, a college could require that you have four years of English, three years of Math, two years of History and Science, as well as a required number of course electives. Some colleges look at your grade point average, your rank-in-class (this is usually found on your school transcripts), and/or standardized test scores such as ACT (American College Test), or SAT (Scholastic Aptitude Test.)

Key Note Term

aptitude test – a standardized test designed to predict an individual's ability to learn certain skills.

Ways to Finance College

You have your list of colleges that you would like to attend. Everything is perfect, from the exact major you want, to the size of the campus, to a picture perfect location. Your next step is to look at the costs and figure out which ones you can afford. For most students, the tuition and other higher education expenses require seeking funding from someplace other than parents. There are two forms of **financial aid** funding for college: gift aid and self-help aid. Ask your instructor about the JROTC Financing College CD that provides an outlined plan to help you learn about all available college financial options.

Key Note Term

financial aid – a grant or subsidy to a school or individual for an educational or artistic project.

Gift Aid

Gift aid does not have to be paid back. It can come from a variety of sources: businesses and foundations, community groups, and the colleges and universities to which you apply. There are two forms of gift aid:

- **Grants** that are awarded based on your financial need
- **Scholarships** that are awarded based on your **academic** merit

Self-help Aid

You or your parents may need to borrow money for your college education. Loans are normally repaid with interest. Some loans do not need to be repaid until you have graduated or left college for some other reason.

Student employment is another form of self-help aid. There are three common forms of student employment:

- **Federal and state work-study programs**
- **Teaching assistantships and research assistantships**
- **Regular part-time employment during the academic year or the summer months**

Finding college funding can be a complicated and confusing process. Following a few ground rules will give you an advantage in navigating the process.

- **Make contact with your college's financial aid office early.**
- **Have all of the verification information you need by submittal deadlines.**
- **Organize your information and keep your portfolio files updated.**

Choosing an Educational Institution that Fits Your Needs

Choosing a college is probably one of the first major decisions you will make in your life. This is where the work that you put into your career development strategy begins to pay off. You have a plan and it will help you make the best possible decision as to which college to attend.

The following tips will help you choose the right college.

- **You will most likely receive brochures from colleges through the mail. Read them and if you are interested, request more information.**
- **Request information from other colleges in which you are interested.**

Key Note Term

grants – monetary awards based on financial need that do not need to be paid back to the grantor.

scholarships – grants-in-aid to a student, as by a college or university.

academic – belonging or pertaining to higher education.

- **Talk to your parents, friends, and other family members about college, the colleges they attended, and their personal experience with college.**
- **Write down what you are looking for in a college.**
- **Make a “wish list” of colleges you would like to attend.**
- **Complete the process by narrowing down the list to three to six schools.**
- **Apply to each of these colleges.**

Degree Programs

Clearly, a student should select a college that is going to serve his or her needs in the best way possible. One of the first options you should research is whether a college you are considering offers majors in your area of interest. Not all colleges offer all types of majors—that would be redundant and impossible. Often, state institutions offer programs that emphasize majors that are different from those of other institutions in the state. For example, one state college may emphasize medicine, another may emphasize engineering, while yet another college may emphasize education. If you are not yet sure what you want to major in, you should select a college that most closely emphasizes your interests. Remember that two- and four-year degree programs have general education requirements, and students take those classes in their first two years. During this time period, you will have the opportunity to more thoroughly explore majors, and if it is necessary, you can transfer to a different college that offers the degree you desire.

Transfer Options

Students sometimes choose to attend a two-year community college the first two years. This is a viable option to consider when selecting a college. If you do plan to attend a two-year college and then transfer to a four-year college, you need to be very careful in selecting classes. Two-year colleges generally have articulation agreements, which means that the four-year colleges will automatically accept credit for specific classes taken at two-year schools. It is your responsibility to get in writing a list of classes that can be easily transferred. After you have this list, don't stray from it; otherwise, you will find yourself repeating classes, incurring additional costs, and delaying your graduation.

Faculty Reputation and Research

Depending on your major area of study and the type of degree you are pursuing, faculty reputation and research may be a concern for you. If you are interested in knowing about the faculty, the best way to get some answers is to visit them! Make appointments to see them and talk to them about their work—this will let them know that you are a prospective student who is serious about your future!

If, however, you are not able to visit faculty in person, you should visit through the college home pages on the Web. Many instructors post not only office information but also course syllabi, schedules, and specific assignments. These sites will at least give you a general idea of what to expect if you should enroll in one of those classes.

Accreditation

All legitimate colleges go through an accreditation process. They are evaluated by independent accrediting agencies that periodically review the school's curriculum, standards, and results.

Additionally, programs within the college should be accredited in their specific discipline. Specific professional programs should be accredited by the appropriate accrediting agency in their field. For example, a nursing program should be accredited by the National League for Nursing, or an EMT/paramedic program should be accredited by the Joint Review Committee on Educational Programs for the EMT-paramedic. If you can't find information about the accreditation, you should ask. Making sure you are in a top-notch program is ultimately your responsibility.

If the college you are considering is not accredited by a regional accrediting association or the programs within the college are not accredited, you should probably consider a different college.

Scholarship, Work-study, Internship, Co-op, and Job Placement Opportunities

Because college is a costly venture, you should find out what types of financial aid and employment opportunities each college provides and how to apply.

Scholarships can help a great deal when you are faced with college expenses because they provide financial assistance that does not need to be repaid. Some scholarships are based on financial need; other scholarships may be based on special talents or academic performance. Generally, you must submit financial aid applications to apply for any type of financial aid. After you've received the required paperwork, apply for as many scholarships as possible. Even small scholarships can help pay for books and supplies that you will need.

Work-study jobs are another way to help with college expenses; in addition, you may get lucky enough to land a job that will look good on your resume when you graduate. These jobs are located on the college campus, and the supervisors often attempt to work around students' class schedules. Work-study jobs may range from five to twenty hours a week. When you visit a campus, check out the campus job board and see if you might qualify for any. These jobs go quickly, so the sooner you apply, the better chance you will have.

Academic Considerations

Does each college provide the following academic considerations?

- The academic degree that I want.
- Faculty who focus on students and who are current in their professional field.
- Appropriate accreditations.
- Scholarships, work-study opportunities, internships, co-ops, and job placement programs.

Intern and co-op positions give students an opportunity to work in the career field in which they are studying. Although internships and co-ops are all different, the point of these programs is to give students an opportunity to apply the knowledge they have gained in the classroom while gaining on-the-job experience. Intern and co-op programs place students in jobs in the community and in work with professionals in their field. Many positions pay very well, and students are sometimes offered full-time positions when they graduate. A college with a healthy intern or co-op program is worth serious consideration—it demonstrates that the college has a realistic view of employer expectations and employment opportunities.

Finally, in terms of academics, you should research the school's job placement rate. Find out how many graduates are employed after graduation. If there is a high job placement rate, it indicates that the school is well-respected from an employer's point of view.

Student Services and Activities

The quality and quantity of student services and activities can tell a prospective student a great deal about the college. Student services that cater to special needs and populations should be obvious, and a variety of activities that build a sense of community should appear on a campus calendar.

Student Services

Some student services are basic to every college campus—advising centers, financial aid offices, tutorial services, career development and placement services, counseling centers, and libraries. These are key offices to visit when making your college selection. Personnel in these services who are clearly student-friendly, professional, knowledgeable, and up-to-date reflect a campus with the same qualities.

A thorough investigation also includes researching auxiliary student services and organizations. Auxiliary services might include a student health center, eating facilities, technological laboratories, and cultural programs. Certainly if you are interested in pursuing a degree in computer science, you want to attend a college that is committed to technology and provides up-to-date computer labs and software. Likewise, if you want to major in Latin American studies, you should attend a campus that clearly reflects a commitment to cultural studies and programs.

Student Organizations

Student organizations can be a key factor in your college experience. Becoming involved in student organizations is one way to connect with your campus and make you feel a part of that community. Because there is such a wide variety of student organizations, you should be able to find one that interests you. For example, you may want to join a fashion merchandising club, a technology club, a drama club, or an intramural sports team. Your involvement in student organizations demonstrates your commitment to an idea and allows you the opportunity to work with other

individuals with similar beliefs and values. Furthermore, student organizations provide key opportunities to strengthen your leadership skills, and future employers may be very interested to hear about your involvement.

Student Athletics

For some students, athletic programs have no weight in making a decision about which college to attend; for others, however, athletics are a major factor. If you are basing your decision on athletics, you should consider the following:

Graduation rates for athletes

How many athletes in the college have graduated during the last five years? If there is a low graduation rate, that school probably isn't the best choice. After all, what good is going to college if you don't get a college degree? A few athletes have the ability to turn professional, but most don't; in the long run, you would be better off to be on a team that has a sound reputation and record for stressing academics and graduation.

Program completion time

How long does it take most athletes to complete a program of study? Although it is common for athletes to take longer than regular full-time students to complete a program of study, that time shouldn't be excessive. If student athletes are taking longer than five or six years, it's a good bet that academics aren't stressed until after eligibility has expired.

Scholarships

What kinds of scholarships are available for student athletes? If you truly have a talent to offer the university and are capable of successfully completing your academic commitment, you should expect that university to offer some scholarship or financial assistance. An athletic recruiter should be able to answer your questions about financial assistance clearly—get it in writing before you sign any letters of intent.

NCAA probationary status

What is the National Collegiate Athletic Association probationary status of the team you are considering? If you find yourself being recruited by a team that is serving probation because of violations, find out the cause of the probation. If this team has broken rules under the current coaching staff, you should probably not spend a great deal of time considering this team. If, however, the violations occurred under a different staff, you may be okay. Perhaps they are in the process of rebuilding a program, and you could be instrumental to the team.

Athletic status

What will your athletic status be as a first-year student? Will you be redshirted? Or will you be an active team member? These are questions that may affect financial aid and scholarships, so you should have a clear idea about your status before you commit to a team.

Special student athletic services

What types of special services are given to student athletes? Because of demanding practice and traveling schedules, student athletes can have difficulties keeping up with academic demands. It is important to find out if your team offers services such as tutorial programs designed especially for athletes.

Practice and traveling schedules

How long will you be expected to practice each day, and how extensive are the travel schedules? If you discover that your schedule will be difficult, you may need to make a tough decision about whether you want to participate in collegiate athletics. After all, your goal is to get a solid education and degree, so decide where you are willing to concentrate your efforts.

Student Activities

In addition to student organizations, a college should sponsor student activities that provide a sense of campus community. Perhaps there are homecoming celebrations, holiday events, special concerts, or movie nights. Although these activities might not be the deciding factor in your college decision, they do play an important role in campus living and provide not only entertainment but a sense of campus pride.

Tuition

Cost is a fundamental concern when selecting a college or university. One of the two major expenses is tuition, the price your courses will cost you per credit hour. A few things to keep in mind when looking at tuition costs include full or part-time tuition and in-state or out-of-state tuition.

Tuition expenses can range from very low to tens of thousands of dollars and are usually presented in two different ways: the total cost of tuition for full-time students and the cost of tuition per credit hour for other students.

Full-time Status

College classes are presented by credit hours, depending on the amount of time spent in class, and a full-time student takes at least twelve credit hours per semester—usually four classes. If a full-time student chooses to enroll in more than twelve credit hours, there is usually no extra charge for the extra credit hours unless a student takes eighteen or more credit hours—not something a first-year student should even consider. Additionally, health and activity fees are also included in the cost of full-time tuition. Depending on the college, these fees may cover the cost of such privileges as using the campus health center; attending sports, music, and theater events; and using special campus facilities such as computer labs. Meal plans may be available, but the price of the meal plan is not included in the tuition fee, nor is the price of textbooks.

Part-time Status

If you will not be able to attend classes on a full-time basis, you will pay your tuition fees by a credit-hour rate. For example, if you take two classes that are each three credit hours, you will pay for six hours of tuition. If the tuition costs \$150 per credit hour, you will pay \$900 to take those two classes. Health and activity fees are not included in the credit-hour rate but may be available at an additional fee.

In-state Tuition

In-state tuition simply means that you will be attending a college located in the state in which you reside. These fees are substantially lower than out-of-state tuition. For example, one college lists its in-state tuition as \$1,200, but out-of-state tuition at the same college is \$4,100.

Out-of-state Tuition

Out-of-state tuition is sometimes referred to as nonresident tuition. Residential requirements vary from state to state. For example, colleges located on state borders may have special agreements to accept students from neighboring cities in the adjoining state, so if you are considering attending a college in a different state, be sure to find out these requirements. Out-of-state tuition may be four or five times more expensive than in-state tuition, so it may be financially beneficial to attend an out-of-state college on a part-time basis until residency has been established. Additionally, some colleges offer special scholarships to be used specifically to cover this added expense.

Does Tuition Reflect the Quality of Education I Will Receive?

Although a \$30,000-a-year school is likely to be viewed as more prestigious than a \$10,000-a-year school, does a degree from a prestigious school really give a graduate a substantial competitive edge in the job market? Opinions differ, but you should remember that employers are looking for well-educated applicants, not applicants with expensive degrees. What you choose to do with your educational opportunities is more important than the price tag of your tuition. Many successful individuals have started their college careers at less expensive community colleges and then transferred to a four-year college.

Housing Options and Expenses

Tuition may seem as though it should be the largest expense you pay, but the biggest expense is often housing if you choose a campus in a different city or state than where you live. As an in-coming first-year college student, your housing options may be limited. Some campuses require that first-year students live on campus and in specific dorms; however, other campuses may not have these types of requirements. Before deciding where you want to live, you should consider the pros and cons of all options.

Residential Halls

Although some students groan at the thought of living in the residential halls, or dorms, the reality is that residential life offers many advantages for first-year students. Living in the residential halls allows you to meet and make new friends, participate in residential team-building activities, and live in a protected and safe environment that is close to all your collegiate activities.

Residential regulations vary from campus to campus, but generally there are several options from which students can choose. For example, you may be able to live in a room that you share with only one roommate, or you may choose to live in a suite with several other students. Additionally, residential halls are sometimes reserved solely for certain groups of students, such as athletes, women, or honor students.

If you are a person who needs a great deal of privacy and solitude, the residential halls may not be the best choice for you. But for many students, the residential halls give them the opportunity to make lasting friendships, to connect with student tutors and mentors, and to sharpen people skills.

Fraternity and Sorority Houses

Although images from the movie *Animal House* may come to mind when you think of living in a fraternity or sorority house, fraternities and sororities do offer a viable housing option that rarely reflects the movie. This option, however, may not be available until your sophomore year or even later, depending on the fraternity or sorority. And there are varying eligibility requirements for joining fraternities and sororities that should be taken into consideration before considering this an option.

The living arrangements in fraternity and sorority houses are often similar to residential halls in which you have two or more roommates. In some instances, the members reside in “sleeping porches,” very large rooms that house all members.

The cost of living in a fraternity or sorority is sometimes comparable to living in residential halls but can sometimes be much more expensive, depending on the organization. Be sure to thoroughly research this expense if you do decide to pledge.

Apartments

Most students are excited at the prospect of living in an apartment for the first time, and with careful shopping and planning, apartment living may be the least expensive housing option. Apartments can offer privacy and independence that residential halls and fraternity or sorority houses can't, but that privacy and independence can come with a higher price tag than is expected. For example, you may have to pay utilities, security deposits, and transportation costs to get to and from school, and you may have to pay extra for a furnished apartment.

Apartments can cost you in other ways, as well. For example, if you are a first-year student in a new city, you may not know any other students. Living alone in an apartment does not offer you the opportunity that you would have in a residential hall to easily meet other students. And, by living in an apartment, you may have to sacrifice some of the safety that comes with living on campus. If you share the

apartment with one or more roommates, however, these financial and social expenses may seem reasonable, and apartment living might be your best choice.

Parents' or Relatives' Homes

The very least expensive housing option is to continue to live at home with your parents or to live with a relative. Often, you can live free and have the added bonus of having meals with your family and access to conveniences such as laundry facilities. Even if you are required to pay rent, it is usually much less than you would have to pay elsewhere.

One disadvantage of living at home or with relatives may be the lack of the degree of independence that other students have. For example, if your friends are living in the residential halls and have freedom to stay out as long as they want, you may be tempted to do the same. Sometimes parents aren't willing to give college students that much independence.

If you choose to live at home or with a relative, it is imperative that you sit down and discuss expectations before problems arise. Parents may be more willing to compromise and bend their rules if you discuss this with them prior to following through with your plans.

Because housing is one of the greatest expenses you'll encounter as a college student, it is important to research the options carefully for each college you consider. Your choice needs to be livable—both financially and socially. For example, if you are a person who is extremely shy and it is difficult for you to meet others, living in an apartment could further isolate you and make your college experience unbearable. Weigh your options carefully and be fair to yourself.

Table 9.4.1 shows some important questions you should ask yourself before making a decision about housing.

Table 9.4.1: University Housing Choices

Options	Questions to consider
Residential Hall	Will I live with someone I know or someone I haven't met before? How will I manage distractions from other residents?
Fraternity or Sorority House	Will I be able to manage my schoolwork, time, money, and fraternity activities effectively? Will I be able to say no to fun activities when I have tests to study for and papers to write?
Apartment	Will I share the apartment with a roommate? How will I meet friends and get involved in campus life?
Home	Will I have the same freedoms that I would have if I were living elsewhere? Will I be expected to pay rent or have other household responsibilities?

Resources for Making an Informed Decision

Collecting the information you need to make an informed decision may seem like an overwhelming task; however, most of the information can be found in a few key places.

Much of the initial information can be found in college catalogs, which list detailed information about degree programs, classes, tuition and housing expenses, and some student services. This type of information can also usually be found online by clicking on the colleges' home pages.

Many online services exist for the sole purpose of helping you compare institutions. These services are free and provide a wealth of information. If you use an online service, carefully check its sources of information, data collection methods, and sponsors. The following sites can help you make informed decisions:

Petersons—www.petersons.com

College Board—www.cbweb1.collegeboard.org/cohome.htm

CollegeNET—www.collegenet.com

U.S. News & World Report's College Ranking—www.usnews.com/usnews/edu/college/corank.htm

The Princeton Review Online—www.review.com/college/templates/temp2.cfm?topic=rank&body=rank/index.cfm&Link=rank.cfm&special=College.cfm

Money Online: Value Rankings for Colleges—www.pathfinder.com/money/colleges98/article/rankindx.html

www.fastweb.com

University of Illinois Library Collection—www.library.uiuc.edu/edx/rankings.htm

After you have narrowed your choices, it is imperative that you visit the college campuses and meet with individuals who can answer specific questions for you. Before arriving, you should make appointments to see representatives in the offices such as financial aid, student advising, housing, and your major area of study. These individuals can help answer your questions and provide you with key information that will help you make the most informed choice.

After you've selected the college of your choice, you will have to complete a series of steps before you can actually attend. This process may seem like a giant maze with one hurdle after another, but getting organized and understanding the steps will help you accomplish your goal.

In this section, you explore answers to the following questions:

- **What are the common admission requirements?**
- **How do I complete the admission process in an organized manner?**
- **What does early admission mean, and what are its advantages?**
- **What do I need to know about financial aid?**
- **How will I register for classes?**

Common Admission Requirements

One of the first steps you need to take is to apply for admission. Most colleges require similar information before admitting you, but it is important to find out exactly what your college requires so that your admission process is smooth and expedient.

Admission Definitions

Colleges offer one of two types of admission: open and competitive. Open admission means that the college will accept any incoming freshman who has earned a high school diploma or GED and who has placed within the required range of scores for tests such as the American College Testing Program (ACT) or the Scholastic Assessment Test (SAT). Students with low test scores or GPAs may be admitted on a provisional status until they successfully complete developmental courses that will increase their skill level, or they may be directed to attend a community college to take developmental courses there. Competitive admission means that the college demands specific requirements before admitting a student. Those requirements might mean a higher-than-average GPA, a high class ranking, or recommendations from professionals in the field.

Commonly, colleges have open admission but competitive admission within specific programs. For example, a college may have open admission for freshmen, but when a student completes the sophomore year, that student may have to apply to enter a particular program such as social work or education.

Minimum Required Information for Admission

Even colleges with open admission policies require a record of your past academic performance. You should begin a permanent file that contains the following documents:

- **High school transcripts and documentation of grade point average**
- **College transcripts if you've taken courses while still in high school**
- **Documentation of class ranking (usually found on transcript)**
- **Documentation of ACT or SAT scores**

Keep this file current and in a convenient place so that your documents are easily accessible if you want to apply to more than one college.

Transcripts

Transcripts are a permanent list of classes and the grades you've earned in those classes. High school transcripts may also contain information about overall grade point average, attendance, and class ranking. College transcripts will list all classes you enroll in and the grades you earn. It will list classes you withdraw from and audit, as well. Grade point averages, earned degrees, and graduation honors will also be listed on college transcripts.

High School Grade Point Averages

Even colleges with open admission policies demand that students have completed a precollege curriculum and have earned a GPA that meets their minimum standards. This baseline varies from college to college, so research your college's admission standards to see if you qualify.

A somewhat common GPA minimum standard is 2.5; however, if students don't have a 2.5 GPA or if they've earned a GED, a college may accept that if the student has earned a higher-than-minimum score on ACT or SAT composite scores.

Precollege Curriculum

Preparatory curriculum varies from state to state, but, in general, colleges with open admission policies insist that incoming college students have completed specific requirements in the core academic areas. Commonly, those requirements include completing four units of English, three units of math, three units of social science, three units of natural science, and two units of foreign language. If you are nearing graduation and haven't completed a precollege core of classes, you might want to consider summer school.

Tests

As part of their admission process, colleges generally require the scores of a standardized test. The two tests that are most common are the American College Testing Program and the Scholastic Assessment Test. The scores of these tests are used differently by colleges that have competitive admission than by colleges with open admission.

Colleges with competitive admission use these scores as one means of selecting students. Students with high ACT or SAT scores may be accepted to a number of colleges while students with average to low ACT or SAT scores may have difficulty getting accepted to schools with competitive admission.

Colleges with open admission use ACT and SAT scores to determine if students meet basic academic competency. If a student scores low in specific areas, that student may be admitted on a provisional basis until the deficiency can be corrected by taking basic developmental courses.

Occasionally community colleges will not require that you submit ACT or SAT scores; however, these colleges will require that you take a placement test at the college. These scores are used to place students in courses that are best suited for their academic abilities. If the college you are considering requires that you complete a placement test, make sure you know when and where you take the test because these tests are required before you can enroll in classes.

Students who have completed precollege curriculum, earned high GPAs, and scored in the above-average to high range on the ACT or SAT may want to consider taking the College Level Examination Program (CLEP) test. CLEP tests will determine whether a student has college-level knowledge about a particular subject. When a student "CLEPs" out of a class, this means the student will get credit and will pay for the class but will not have to actually take the course.

Although tests are an important part of the admission process, admissions counselors understand that test scores are only one indicator of how well a student may do. If you have lower-than-expected test scores, you should emphasize other strengths you have as a student.

Completing the Admission Process in an Organized Manner

Even though colleges require the same general information for admission applications, there is a great deal of information to keep organized. Starting a filing system early will help you through the process. We suggest you keep separate files for copies of all the general information we've discussed.

In each file, keep three or four copies of each document, and label the original so you don't accidentally mail it. Most colleges only require photocopies of documents until admission has been approved. At that time, colleges can request that you send official transcripts. Sending copies will save you a great deal of money if you are applying to several colleges.

Also keep a file that contains a copy of your admission application for each college you apply to. Attach to each application a list of all documents you have submitted. When you have received notice of your admission status, place that notice in your file until you have made your decision.

When you apply for admission to a college, do so in an organized manner, as shown in the "Applying for Admission sidebar," to make a good first impression:

- **Write a cover letter that discusses required information for competitive admission colleges.**
- **Complete every question on the application.**
- **Attach all required documents in order.**

Some colleges provide online admission applications on their Web pages. If you choose to apply electronically, don't forget to follow up with the appropriate documents.

Applying for Admission

- Obtain admission application through your counselor, directly from the college, or from its online resource.
- Obtain copies of high school transcripts.
- Obtain copies of test scores, such as ACT or SAT.
- Complete and mail application and required documents.

Advantages to Early Admission

Early admission has two different meanings. In some cases, high school students can apply for early admission to a college and take classes while still in high school. There are often specific requirements for this type of early admission that may include a specific grade point average, an interview process, and referrals from high school officials. Clearly this type of early admission is advantageous because it allows students to get a feel for college to see if they would like to attend there after high school. It is also a way to complete general education requirements and take time to explore personal interests.

The other definition of early admission is simply completing the admission process early in the year prior to attending. For example, students planning to attend college in the fall may complete an early admission process in the spring or early summer. This type of early admission also has its advantages. Besides having a larger selection of classes from which to choose, a student who applies early may also be able to take advantage of special orientations or introductory sessions. These orientations may give students one-to-one mentoring, a stay in campus housing, special advising sessions, and social time to meet other new students.

Financial Aid

While you are in the process of applying for admission to the colleges that you are considering, you should also apply for financial aid. Seeking help from various sources of financial aid has become a way of life for much of the student population. Education is an important but often expensive investment. The cost for a year's full-time tuition only (not including room and board) in 1995–1996 ranged from \$900 to \$15,000, with the national average hovering around \$2,100 for public institutions and over \$11,000 for private ones.

Not many people can pay for tuition in full without aid. In fact, almost half of students enrolled receive some kind of aid.

Most sources of financial aid don't seek out recipients. Take the initiative to learn how you (or you and your parents, if they currently help to support you) can finance your education. Find the people on campus who can help you with your finances. Do some research to find out what's available, weigh the pros and cons of each option, and decide what would work best for you. Try to apply as early as you can. The types of financial aid available to you are loans, grants, and scholarships.

Loans

A loan is given to you by a person, bank, or other lending agency, usually to put toward a specific purchase. You, as the recipient of the loan, then must pay back the amount of the loan, plus interest, in regular payments that stretch over a particular period of time. Interest is the fee that you pay for the privilege of using money that belongs to someone else.

Loan Applications

What happens when you apply for a loan?

- 1. The loaning agency must approve you. You (and your parents) may be asked about what you (and any other family members) earn, how much savings you have, your credit history, anything you own that is of substantial value (such as a car), and your history of payment on any previous loans.**
- 2. An interest charge will be set. Interest can range from 5 percent to over 20 percent, depending on the loan and the economy. Variable-interest loans shift charges as the economy strengthens or weakens. Fixed-rate loans have one interest rate that remains constant.**
- 3. The loaning agency will establish a payment plan. Most loan payments are made monthly or quarterly (four times per year). The payment amount depends on the total amount of the loan, how much you can comfortably pay per month, and the length of the repayment period.**

Types of Student Loans

The federal government administers or oversees most student loans. To receive aid from any federal program, you must be a citizen or eligible noncitizen and be enrolled in a program of study that the government has determined is eligible. Individual states may differ in their aid programs. Check with the financial aid office of the colleges you apply to to find out details about your state and those colleges in particular.

Following are the main student loan programs to which you can apply if you are eligible. Amounts vary according to individual circumstances. Contact your school or federal student aid office for further information. In most cases, the amount is limited to the cost of your education minus any other financial aid you are receiving.

Perkins loans

Carrying a low, fixed rate of interest, these loans are available to those with exceptional financial need (need is determined by a government formula that indicates how large a contribution toward your education your family should be able to make). Schools issue these loans from their own allotment of federal education funds. After you graduate, you have a grace period (up to nine months, depending on whether you were a part-time or full-time student) before you have to begin repaying your loan in monthly installments.

Stafford loans

Students enrolled in school at least half-time may apply for a Stafford loan. Exceptional need is not required. However, students who can prove exceptional need may qualify for a subsidized Stafford loan, for which the government pays your interest until you begin repayment. There are two types of Stafford loans. A direct Stafford loan comes from government funds, and an FFEL (Federal Family Education Loan) Stafford loan comes from a bank or credit union participating in the FFEL program. The type available to you depends on your school's financial aid program. You begin to repay a Stafford loan six months after you graduate, leave school, or drop below half-time enrollment.

Plus loans

Your parents can apply for a Plus loan if they currently claim you as a dependent and if you are enrolled at least half-time. They must also undergo a credit check to be eligible, although the loans are not based on income. If they do not pass the credit check, they may be able to sponsor the loan through a relative or friend who does pass. Interest is variable; the loans are available from either the government or banks and credit unions. Your parents will have to begin repayment sixty days after they receive the last loan payment; there is no grace period.

For a few students, a loan from a relative is possible. If you have a close relationship with a relative who has some money put away, you might be able to talk to that person about helping you with your education. Discuss the terms of the loan as you would with any financial institution, detailing how and when you will receive the loan as well as how and when you will repay it. It may help to put the loan in writing. You may want to show your gratitude by offering to pay interest.

Grants and Scholarships

Both grants and scholarships require no repayment and therefore give your finances a terrific boost. Grants, funded by the government, are awarded to students who show financial need. Scholarships are awarded to students who show talent or ability in the area specified by the scholarship. They may be financed by government or private organizations, schools, or individuals.

Federal Grant Programs

There are a number of federal grant programs available to part- and full-time students, depending on their needs. These grants include the Pell grant and Federal Supplemental Educational Opportunity Grant.

Pell grants

These grants are need-based. The Department of Education uses a standard formula to evaluate the financial information you report on your application and determines your eligibility from that score (called an EFC, or expected family contribution, number). You must also be an undergraduate student who has earned no other degrees to be eligible. The Pell grant serves as a foundation of aid to which you may add other aid sources, and the amount of the grant varies according to the cost of your education and your EFC. Pell grants require no repayment.

Federal Supplemental Educational Opportunity Grants (FSEOG)

Administered by the financial aid administrator at participating schools, FSEOG eligibility depends on need. Whereas the government guarantees that every student eligible for a Pell grant will receive one, each school receives a limited amount of federal funds for FSEOGs, and after it's gone, it's gone. Schools set their own application deadlines. Apply early. No repayment is required.

Work-study

Although you work in exchange for the aid, work-study is considered a grant because a limited number of positions are available. This program is need-based and encourages community service work or work related in some way to your course of study. You will earn at least the federal minimum wage and will be paid hourly. Jobs can be on campus (usually for your school) or off campus (often with a nonprofit organization or a local, state, or federal public agency). Find out who is in charge of the work-study program at the colleges where you apply.

Make Financial Arrangements

- Obtain financial aid forms from your high school counselor or directly from the college you are applying.
- Completely fill out forms, sign the forms, and mail to the appropriate address.
- Determine how to apply for scholarships, and follow through on the instructions.
- Apply for part-time on campus jobs, if necessary.
- Apply for bank loans if necessary.
- Apply for and put down appropriate deposit or down payment for residential halls or apartments.
- Check on fees for other expenses such as meal plans, parking, activities, and insurance.

There is much more to say about these financial aid opportunities than can be discussed here. Many other important details about federal grants and loans are available in the 2005–2005 Student Guide to Financial Aid. You can check out this guide at http://studentaid.ed.gov/students/publications/student_guide/2004_2005/english/index.htm. You might also find this information at a college financial aid office, or you can request it by mail, phone, or online service:

Address:	Federal Student Aid Information Center P.O. Box 84 Washington, D.C. 20044
Phone:	1-800-4-FED-AID (1-800-433-3243) TDD for the hearing-impaired: 1-800-730-8913
Web site:	www.ed.gov/prog_info/SFA/StudentGuide

Scholarships

Scholarships are given for different kinds of abilities and talents: some reward academic achievement, some reward exceptional abilities in sports or the arts, and some reward citizenship or leadership. Certain scholarships are sponsored by federal agencies. If you display exceptional ability and are disabled, are female, have an ethnic background classified as a minority (such as African-American or Native-American), or are a child of someone who draws benefits from a state agency (such as a POW or MIA), you might find scholarship opportunities geared toward you.

All kinds of organizations offer scholarships. You may receive scholarships from individual departments at your school or your school's independent scholarship funds, local organizations such as the Rotary Club, or privately operated aid foundations. Labor unions and companies may offer scholarship opportunities for children of their employees. Membership groups such as scouting organizations or the YMCA might offer scholarships, and religious organizations such as the Knights of Columbus or the Council of Jewish Federations might be another source.

Sources for Grants and Scholarships

It can take work to locate grants, scholarships, and work-study programs because many of them aren't widely advertised. Ask at your school's guidance office or a college's financial aid office. Visit your library or bookstore and look in the section on college or financial aid. Guides to funding sources, such as Richard Black's "The Complete Family Guide to College Financial Aid" and others, catalog thousands of organizations and help you find what fits you. Check out online scholarship search services. Use common sense and time management when applying for aid—fill out the application as neatly as possible, and send it in on time or even early. In addition, be wary of scholarship scam artists who ask you to pay a fee up front for them to find aid for you.

After you have completed the financial aid process and have decided which college to attend, you will register for classes.

Registering for Classes

After you have been accepted to the college you will attend, you will need to go through the **registration** process for classes. Even though many colleges allow students to register for classes online, you should set up an appointment with an advisor the first time so that you have a clear understanding of the classes you will need to complete in order to earn a degree. In fact, the safest move is to meet with your advisor every semester so that your progress will be monitored.

Key Note Term

registration – the act of registering.

When you meet with your advisor, you will receive a degree plan. This is a list of courses you will be required to successfully complete in order to graduate with a specific degree. Keep this list. A degree plan acts as a legal document between you and the college. Should the college decide to change the degree plan before you graduate, you probably will not be required to take additional classes if you are clearly progressing on an approved degree plan.

Register for Classes

- Meet with an advisor (this may be a faculty member or a staff member who works in student services) to determine which classes you will enroll in.
- Create a class schedule that will be based on your academic needs, as well as your personal needs. Take into consideration extracurricular activities or jobs you might be involved with.
- Take registration documents to the appropriate office.
- Pay registration fees or a down payment to hold your classes.

After you have registered for classes, you will be on your way. There may be other decisions you will need to make, including housing, meals, and transportation. These, too, are important decisions and will have an impact on your college experience, so work through these decisions carefully.

When you begin your college experience, continue to evaluate and refine your personal mission statement and your long- and short-term goals, as well as your personal skills and study skills. These are skills you can take with you on your journey of lifelong learning.

Keep Track of Information

In your search for the right school, you will be visiting several campuses and checking out many options. With all the information you have to gather, it would be easy to get confused or forget what one college offers as compared with another. Use Table 9.4.2 to help compare and contrast different schools, what they offer, what they cost, what they require for admission, and what activities interest you.

Table 9.4.2: College Comparison Worksheet

	College 1	College 2	College 3
Location <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • distance from home 			
Size <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • enrollment • physical size of campus 			
Environment <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • type of school (2 yr., 4 yr.) • school setting (urban, rural) • location & size of nearest city • co-ed, male, female • religious affiliation 			
Admission Requirements <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • deadline • tests required • average test scores, GPA, rank • notification 			
Academics <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • your major offered • special requirements • accreditation • student-faculty ratio • typical class size 			

(continued)

Table 9.4.2: College Comparison Worksheet *(continued)*

	College 1	College 2	College 3
College Expenses <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • tuition, room & board • estimated total budget • application fee, deposits 			
Financial Aid <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • deadline • required forms • percent receiving aid • scholarships 			
Housing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • residence hall requirement • meal plan 			
Facilities <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • academic • recreational • other 			
Activities <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • clubs, organizations • fraternity/sorority • athletics, intramurals • other 			
Campus Visits <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • when • social opportunities 			

Conclusion

After you have gone through the process of picking a major, applying for financial aid, choosing and applying to a college, you now wait to get accepted. After you are accepted, you will need to contact your chosen school to find out its registration procedures. There are no guarantees in this process, but you can be assured that if you followed the suggestions in this and the other lessons in this chapter, are committed to the process, and motivated to succeed, you will reach your career goals.

Lesson Review

1. How will you determine if college is right for you? What are your options?
2. What options are available to you to pay for your education?
3. What are the differences between a loan, a grant, and a scholarship?
4. Define the term “distance education.”

*Planning Skills and
Social Responsibility*

Chapter 10

Lesson 1

Making the Right Choices



Key Terms

criteria filter
idleness
intuition
routinization

What You Will Learn to Do

- Apply effective decision-making processes to personal situations

Linked Core Abilities

- Build your capacity for life-long learning
- Take responsibility for your actions and choices

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain along the Way

- Relate how decision-making impacts life
- Distinguish between decision-making and problem solving
- Distinguish among effective and ineffective decision-making strategies
- Identify the features and benefits of the decision-making processes
- Define key words contained in this lesson

Introduction

Making the right or wrong decisions can shape your life. Whether you make these decisions consciously or unconsciously, they represent how you respond to the opportunities, challenges, and uncertainties of life. You will have many decisions to make as you go through your life—decisions such as:

- **Will I go to college?**
- **What college will I select?**
- **What will I study?**
- **Where will I live?**
- **When will I get married?**
- **Who will I marry?**
- **When will I change jobs?**
- **How will I invest my money?**
- **When should I retire?**

Asking and answering these questions establishes your future. You will fulfill many roles in your life, from student to career person, from homeowner to parent. The decisions you make in those roles define your successes and failures.

Use a Decision-Making Process

Even more important than what you decide is *how* you decide. The way to increase your odds of making a good decision is to learn to use a good decision-making process—one that helps you get to a solution with a minimum loss of time, money, energy, or comfort.

An effective decision-making process will:

- **Help you focus on what is important**
- **Be logical and make sense for you**
- **Allow you to think of both the factual and the emotional consequences of your actions**
- **Not require an unreasonable amount of research**
- **Allow you to have an informed opinion**
- **Be easy to use and flexible**

An effective decision-making process will be valuable to you both for major decisions as well as the minor, more common decisions. The more you use a process to make decisions, the more it will become a natural part of your problem solving, and the more efficient you will become. As you grow more skilled in decision-making, it will become second nature to you. Others may even start asking you for help with their decisions.

The F-I-N-D-S Decision Process

Faced with a decision you have to make, you may do a lot of worrying. Worrying about making a decision generally does not accomplish anything.

You need to separate the issues, examine the facts, and work toward reaching a decision. The important thing is to follow a process. One such decision-making process is a simple five-step plan called the F-I-N-D-S plan.

The F-I-N-D-S Decision-Making Model consists of:

- **Figuring out the problem**
- **Identifying possible solutions**
- **Naming the pros and cons of each choice**
- **Deciding which is the best choice and then act on it**
- **Scrutinizing the decision**

Figure Out the Problem

You cannot solve a problem until you have clearly defined the problem. Try to identify the problem in clear and precise terms.

For example, suppose you decide that you are unable to go to a concert. Simply stating the problem in vague terms, “I am not able to go to the concert Saturday night,” won’t get you there. Did you make another commitment for the same night? Are you unable to borrow the car for the evening? Are you grounded for the week of the concert? Or maybe you just don’t have the funds for the ticket.

If the money for the ticket is what is keeping you from the concert, state the problem as, “I need to come up with \$45.00 for the cost of the ticket.” This is a much clearer statement of the problem.

Identify Possible Solutions

You can brainstorm by yourself, or involve others to create a list of possible solutions. The more people you can question about your problem, the more likely it is that you will hit upon the best solution.

Every idea that comes up should be considered. Sometimes the best answers are developed from an idea that does not seem feasible when you first hear it. Make an initial list of possible solutions. Look at your list. See if any other ideas come to you, evolving from something on the initial list.

When you are satisfied that you have a good number of possible solutions, you are ready to narrow down the possibilities.

Name the Pros and Cons of Each Solution

After you have come up with a list, take each possible solution and think about what it would take to accomplish that solution. Think of the consequences of each idea.

In the concert ticket example, you may be able to earn the money, borrow the money, steal the money, or use your savings. Obviously, stealing the money is eliminated when you think of the consequences and the morality issue. You may decide to borrow the money from your parents or a friend and then pay it back over the next month from the money you earn at your part-time job. Perhaps the concert is important enough for you to use money from your savings. Maybe your job will pay enough between now and the concert for you to purchase the ticket.

While you are considering your choices, ask yourself some questions:

- Will I feel good about this choice?
- How will my family feel about this choice?
- Will certain risks be involved?
- Am I willing to take such risks?
- Will this choice be satisfying to me?
- How will I feel about this choice when I look back at it in the future?

After you have considered the possibilities and the consequences, you are ready to make a decision.

Decide Which Is the Best Choice and Then Act on It

The list of possibilities and consequences should clearly indicate one or more “best choices.” Don’t worry if there are several good answers. There will be situations in which more than one decision will get you to your goal. About that concert ticket—taking out a loan or using your savings may both be equally good decisions. Don’t be afraid to make a decision and stick with it.

There are techniques you can use to simplify the choices. Depending on the type of choice you are making, one of the following techniques may help you narrow down your choices:

- **Criteria Filter**—There may be some fixed set of criteria that the alternatives must meet. For example, if you were choosing a car, there may be a maximum amount that you can spend.
- **Idleness**—You may decide to do nothing, let others decide for you, or just wait and see what happens. You will have identified the consequences of this choice, and will have to deal with those consequences. Sometimes, however, not making a decision is actually making a decision. For example, if you decide not to go on a trip to France, you are actually deciding to stay home.

Key Note Term

criteria filter – a standard, rule, or test on which a judgment or decision can be based.

idleness – passing time without working or while avoiding work.

Key Note Term

intuition – instinctive knowledge or perception without conscious reasoning or reference to a rational process; keen insight.

routinization – a process or decision that you have routinely used in the past that helps you in current situations because you have established a decision-making pattern.

- **Intuition**—Sometimes you follow your heart and make a decision based on your feelings and emotions. You go with what your gut tells you. For example, when you are offered two part-time jobs with equal pay and benefits, you may decide to go with one because “it just feels right.”
- **Routinization**—There may be a decision that you have routinely made in the past, which may help you now. For example, if you always study for your Friday math quiz on Thursday afternoon, you will have an easy time figuring out when you will need to study each week.

After you have made a decision, it is important to monitor the results. Both right and wrong decisions can teach you something for the future decisions you make.

Scrutinize the Decision

This is where the learning takes place. If the result was successful, you will know that this was a good solution if the problem should come up again. If the decision did not lead to success, you will know that it would be best not to make that decision again.

Conclusion

The ability to make good decisions takes a lot of practice. Using a process (such as F-I-N-D-S) may seem like a large amount of work just to make a decision. Like many other things, after you start using the process—whether it is on major or minor decisions—you will find that solving problems and making decisions will become easier and easier. You will learn from the wrong decisions as well as the right decisions. With a good process, you increase the odds that your decisions will be well thought out and the results will be positive.

Lesson Review

1. What roles do you think you will play in your life? How can a decision you make about one role affect how you respond to another role?
2. What are the decision-making components of the F-I-N-D-S model?
3. Why is it important to include others in your decision-making process?
4. After you make a decision, what would be the consequences if you change your mind?

Lesson 2

Goals and Goal Setting



Key Terms

goal
goal setting
long-term goal
mid-term goal
short-term goal

What You Will Learn to Do

- Develop a personal goals action plan

Linked Core Abilities

- Build your capacity for life-long learning
- Take responsibility for your actions and choices

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain along the Way

- Define goals
- Differentiate between short, medium, and long-term goals
- Analyze goals to determine what makes them meaningful
- Identify criteria for well-defined goals
- Define key words contained in this lesson

Chapter 10

Introduction

Have you ever gotten into the car and started driving with no destination in mind? How would you know which route to take if you didn't know where you wanted to go? How would you know when you had arrived?

Think of a **goal** as your destination. The most efficient way to get from one place to another is to identify the final destination and follow a map that will guide you in your journey. Goals give you direction and keep you focused on a purpose. If you go through life without goals, you will probably waste a lot of time and energy. Time wasted can never be recaptured.

Setting and achieving goals is one way to achieve a more fulfilling life. This lesson not only introduces you to types of goals and to the concept of **goal setting**, it also explains why goals are important and how to set them.

Key Note Term

goal – an aim or purpose; an end to which effort is directed.

Key Note Term

goal setting – planning done to reach a desired goal.

What Is a Goal?

A goal is an end to which an effort is directed. In other words, you establish a target and then take careful aim and shoot for it. A goal should also be something that is important to you and consistent with your values. Some goals are more difficult and time-consuming than others, and sometimes you may initially fail to achieve your goal. When this happens, you can modify the goal somewhat, and try to hit it again. You cannot succeed if you do not keep trying.

Writing Goals

It is important to write your goals down. A written goal can be read over and over again until it becomes imprinted on your brain. If a goal exists only in your head, it is just a dream and may be forgotten; but a written goal statement is a declaration of the outcome one plans to achieve. For a goal to be effective, however, it must be **Specific, Positive, Achievable, and Measurable**. You can use the acronym S-P-A-M to evaluate the goals you set against the following criteria.

- **Specific.** It must be explicit, clearly defined and have a specific plan of action. For example, “I will be a better student” is too vague to be a useful goal; however, “I will get an A on my next history exam” is more specific and, therefore, a much better goal.
- **Positive.** You are telling yourself that you will do something, not that you *might*, or you *think* you can. For example, “I want to do 60 sit-ups in a minute” is only a desire; however, “I will do 60 sit-ups in a minute” is a positive goal. A positive goal statement is very powerful.

- **Achievable.** The goal has to be within your power to make it happen through your own actions. It must be something you have a reasonable chance of achieving.
- **Measurable.** The goal must be defined in terms of results that are measurable, or actions that can be observed. If your goal is not measurable, you will not know if you have attained it.

Why Goals Are Important

If you allow only outside forces to rule your life and set goals for you, you might feel bored, overwhelmed, or unsure of the decisions you face. By setting and achieving your own goals; however, you have the means to establish a framework that will build confidence, reduce stress, and ease decision-making.

Some goals may seem overwhelming; however, by setting interim goals you can break down a goal into tasks that are more manageable, reducing your level of stress and anxiety. This process also enables you to explore and plan out all the steps necessary to reach the goal. When you have a map, the journey does not seem as daunting.

As you accomplish the goals you set for yourself, it gives you a good feeling, and builds self-confidence. You can feel proud of a job well done. This is another benefit of setting goals. By setting goals, you can avoid wasting your time, energy, and effort. Goal setting makes the difference between mediocrity and excellence.

Types of Goals

Goals are divided into three categories: **short-term**, **mid-term**, and **long-term**. You can accomplish short-term goals in an hour, a day, or a week. They may often be the beginning steps to mid-term or long-term goals. Short-term goals do not require much planning, as you can usually accomplish them in very little time. An example of a short-term goal would be, “I will complete my homework assignment for algebra class and turn it in on time.”

Mid-term goals are of intermediate length that often require more time and planning than short-term goals, especially if they lead to another goal. A mid-term goal may also be a step that leads to achieving a long-term goal. An example of a mid-term goal would be, “I will get an A in algebra this semester.”

Long-term goals require a lot of time and planning to accomplish. They are usually your life goals. Setting a goal to become a doctor is a long-term goal. The planning for these goals may begin early in your life, even if you do not realize it. These goals may even begin as things you wish for instead of things to do. An example of a long-term goal would be, “I will get accepted to a top-rated engineering school.” As you can see, this goal would take years of planning and work to fulfill.

Key Note Term

short-term goal – a goal that can be accomplished in a short period of time; often without much planning or effort.

mid-term goal – an intermediate goal; sometimes a step to a long-term goal.

long-term goal – a life goal; a goal that requires lots of time and planning to accomplish.

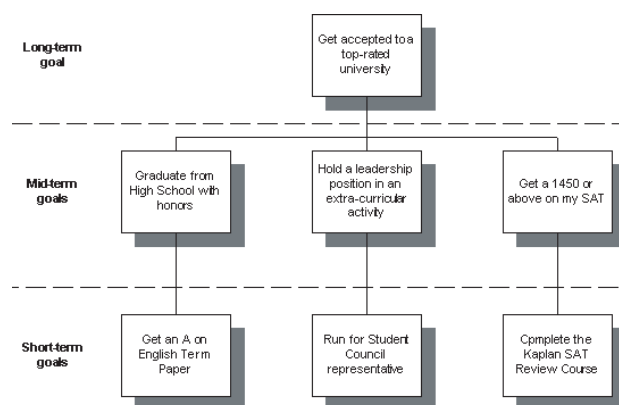
Learning to Set Goals

Think about what your life would be like if you had everything you wanted. If that was ever the case, you would not have any goals to accomplish . . . and without goals, life would not have any direction or commitment. By setting goals, you are able to direct your life and commit to that direction. The kind of life that you have in the future is closely related to the goals you set today. Therefore, you must constantly strive to set meaningful and realistic goals for yourself, and to do your best to achieve them.

Developing a goal plan begins with deciding which goals are important to you. After you have clearly defined a goal (consistent with S-P-A-M criteria), you need to begin planning how to achieve it. If a goal is too big, plan various smaller, interim steps that will enable you to reach the long-term goal. Never put yourself in a position where your goals are overwhelming; you may fail simply because the steps involve too much effort at one time. Keep your goals challenging, but realistic. The feeling of accomplishment that comes with completing each small step can inspire you to reach your larger, long-term (or life) goals. Figure 10.2.1 shows one way to write out a plan for achieving your goals.

Goal setting is an ongoing process. Because goals get you through every day of your life, you must continually re-evaluate your goals. Some mid- or long-term goals require sacrifices now so that you can achieve them later. You must discipline yourself to reach those long-term goals, resulting in greater happiness and self-fulfillment.

Figure 10.2.1: Writing out and mapping your goals can help you succeed.



Conclusion

Goals are very important to your life's development—without them, you would have no direction or commitment. Goals fill the need for disciplined work, play, study, and growth. They provide a framework that will help you organize and prioritize the events in your life. When you set and achieve a goal, you feel a sense of personal satisfaction and pride.

Lesson Review

1. Why is it important to write down and list your goals?
2. Compare and contrast short, mid, and long-term goals.
3. List three personal goals—one short, one mid, and one long-term goal.
4. Why are the three goals you just listed important to you?

Lesson 3

Time Management



Key Terms

agenda
procrastination
time management
time wasters

What You Will Learn to Do

- Develop a personal time management plan

Linked Core Abilities

- Take responsibility for your actions and choices
- Apply critical thinking techniques

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain along the Way

- Distinguish between time efficiencies and time wasters
- Relate time management to your personal goals
- Develop daily, weekly, and quarterly time management plans
- Define key words contained in this lesson

Introduction

Think back to this morning. How was it for you? Did you get up on time? Did you have breakfast? Did you have time to do what you expected to do—or what your parents expected you to do? Now, think back to last evening. Did you finish your homework? Did you take care of your share of the household chores? Did you watch your favorite television program?

Frustration creeps in when you do not manage time well. On a scale of one to ten (one being poor use of time and ten being great use of time), how well did you manage your time yesterday? If you can honestly answer nine or ten, give yourself an “A.” If you answered seven or below, you need to organize your day better in order to gain control of your time and your life.

Every day you are given a precious gift—the gift of time. You get twenty-four hours, but how you choose to use this time makes all the difference. When you take responsibility for your time—by planning your day and building a schedule to achieve your goals—you are practicing **time management**.

This lesson teaches you how to plan your day, and how to execute your plan. Planning your day will help you target academic and personal goals, manage the increasing demands on your time, reduce stress, increase successes, and achieve greater satisfaction and enjoyment of life.

Key Note Term

time management – the process of effectively using time to gain control of events, conditions, and actions.

The Perfect Day

You can divide the day into five blocks of time: before school, during school, after school, before bed, and bedtime.

Before School

Consider the morning as that part of the day from the time you wake up until the time you leave for school. What is a perfect morning?

- **What time would you get up?**
- **How long would you need to take care of your personal hygiene, grooming, and dressing?**
- **How much time would you need to take care of your other responsibilities, like helping to get your younger sister or brother ready, feeding the pets, or taking out the trash?**
- **What other activities must you complete before school and how long do they take?**

Before Bed

Back up for a moment. To have a perfect morning, you must definitely get some things accomplished in the evening, after dinner, and before you go to bed on the preceding day.

- **How much time should you spend doing homework and chores?**
- **How much time is left for talking on the phone or watching television?**
- **What is your nighttime ritual before going to bed? Do you choose your clothes for the next day, pack your book bag, or prepare your lunch? How long does all that take?**
- **What time do you need to go to bed to get your “forty winks” of sleep? For most of us, eight hours of sleep is almost essential.**
- **What else do you need to do after dinner and before bed? Planning a perfect evening sets the stage for a perfect tomorrow.**

After School

Take a moment and back up some more. Consider what goes on after school. Do you participate in a club, in a sport, or in the band? Do you work after school?

Is there time before, during, or after practice or work to accomplish something meaningful? If you do not practice or work everyday, what would be the best use of your time after school and before dinner? This period can amount to between two to four hours, and it should include meaningful activities as well as leisure time and time to rest.

The time in your life that is within your control is the time before school, after school, and before bed if you take the school day and your sleeping time out of the equation.

Creating a Daily Activity Matrix

Before you can begin to manage your time effectively, you need to know how you currently spend your time. Completing a daily activity matrix, shown in Figure 10.3.1, can help you in this endeavor.

Examine the matrix. If you take the total time spent on these activities and subtract that from 1,440 (the number of minutes in a day), you end up with the number of minutes you spend in unscheduled activities. Is some of this time wasted? Remember that time wasted can never be regained. There are many ways that people waste time each day. Some of the most common **time wasters** are:

Key Note Term

time wasters – activities that do not promote the effective use of time.

Activity	Minutes a Day	Days a Week
School		
School related extracurricular activities		
Playing sports (not school related)		
Homework and studying		
Watching TV		
Playing videogames		
Reading for pleasure		
Shopping		
Work		
Chores and family responsibilities		
Spending time with friends		
Spending time with family		
Church and all related activities		
Eating		
Sleeping		
Other:		

Figure 10.3.1: Daily Activity Matrix.

- **Procrastination.** This is putting something off that needs to be done. For example, you procrastinate writing the essays for your college application because it is burdensome.
- **Poor Organization.** If you spend every morning looking for your backpack before you catch the bus to school, you are poorly organized, and you are wasting time.
- **Crisis Management.** Do you spend a lot of time solving large and immediate problems? For example, you forgot you had a math quiz today, so now you have to drop everything else and cram for your quiz. This is a time waster because if you had planned better, you would not have had a crisis in the first place.

Key Note Term

procrastination – the act of putting off something that needs to be done.

Could your time be better spent elsewhere?

Now that you have thought about it, you are ready to organize your day on paper. You should always write down your plans, keeping in mind that if you fail to plan, you plan to fail.

Daily Planning and Goals

Think about what you want to accomplish in school this year, and what part of it is achievable within the next six weeks. Do you want to:

- **Make the honor roll?**
- **Work toward earning an academic, military, or athletic scholarship?**
- **Write an article for the school newspaper?**

A daily plan should be aligned with your short-term and mid-term goals, which will, in turn, enable you to achieve your long-term goals. When you know that your daily activities are helping you achieve your goals, you will see that there is an increased meaning in the tasks you do every day and you will feel a sense of accomplishment at the end of the day, knowing that you are working toward the achievement of your goals. When you take responsibility for planning your daily activities, you are in control of your own destiny.

The first step toward creating a daily plan, as seen in Figure 10.3.2, is to prioritize your daily tasks, assigning a higher priority to those that are most important to you, and keeping in mind those short-term goals that will enable you to achieve your long-term goals. Prioritizing your daily tasks is very important because you can concentrate on scheduling those activities that are of the highest priority first. Items of a lesser priority can be scheduled around the high priority tasks as they fit into the day. You may find that you do not have time to schedule all of your tasks, but you can be assured that you are going to accomplish the highest priority ones.

After you have prioritized all of your daily tasks, you are ready to create a schedule or **agenda** for the day. Remember to record the task with the highest priority first, and so on. Use this type of written schedule to serve as a reminder of specific events, due dates, responsibilities, and deadlines.

Key Note Term

agenda – a list or program of activities that need to be done or considered.

Figure 10.3.2: Use a daily planner to organize the time in your day.

Daily Planner for _____ Today's Date		
PRIORITY	THINGS TO DO TODAY	DUE DATE

Daily Planner for _____ Today's Date	
TIME	TODAY'S SCHEDULE
6 AM	
7 AM	
8 AM	
9 AM	
10 AM	
11 AM	
12 PM	
1 PM	
2 PM	
3 PM	

The Big Picture

Planning one day at a time is like admiring a beautiful forest, one tree at a time. If the forest is your life, you may need to get an overview to see where the paths through the forest are leading. In the same way, you should plan in larger time frames to ensure your days are leading you toward your goals. The daily plan takes you through 24 hours of life and keeps you active in the here and now. The weekly plan shows you how to balance your life. You will discover that 168 hours is enough time to work, practice, study, attend meetings, spend time with your family, and have fun with your friends, too.

The quarter or semester plans show you the big picture far in advance. You can plan your days and weeks better if you have developed a quarter or semester schedule. They display week by week when all of your tests, projects, mentoring activities, papers, science or math fairs, key social events, athletic or JROTC events, field trips, national test dates, family vacations, and so on are due or will occur. You will be able to determine which weeks are heavily scheduled. You can use the light weeks to start studying and preparing for the heavier weeks.

Plan Your Work, Work Your Plan

The following tips will help you to more effectively know how to plan your work for a day, week, or longer (quarter or semester) and enable you to do better at working your planning process.

- **Make time every evening to review your day and plan your tomorrow.**
- **Re-evaluate your goals every week, and write short-term goals on your planning sheets. Stay committed to your goals.**
- **Prioritize your “To Do” list.**
- **Make a list of things you can accomplish in 15- and 30-minute blocks of time. For example, dusting or emptying the trash, reviewing class notes, learning new Spanish vocabulary (already written on index cards), reviewing mentoring activities, or learning how to work one new math problem. Be ready to fill the in-between times with something useful.**
- **Use a timer to move you along during tight periods, such as mornings before school.**
- **Schedule something fun every day. Do your work first and reward yourself with something fun.**
- **Record your favorite television programs and watch them during planned leisure times.**
- **Be flexible; shift things around when necessary. Do not get discouraged if you are thrown off schedule by unavoidable circumstances.**

- As you finish a task, cross it off your “things to do” list. Plus, add anything you did that was not on the list, then cross it off. Adding and crossing tasks off your list is not only a way of keeping track of what you have accomplished but also a way of acknowledging your accomplishment.
- Enjoy the sense of satisfaction that comes from accomplishing something, no matter how small, and taking definite steps toward your goals.

Conclusion

Few people ever plan to fail, but many people fail to plan. Time is the great equalizer; everyone gets the same amount every day. Whether it is used or abused often determines who rises to greatness and who falls to failure. Daily, weekly, and long-term (quarter or semester) planning puts you in charge of your life. Setting specific goals will give you a track to run on and a course to follow. You will know what it is you want, and you will go for it!

The cadet who routinely plans, reviews the plan, and adjusts it to the ups and downs of life will find this planning process very rewarding. Planning can help you to manage life's increasing demands while targeting academic and personal goals. Daily triumphs, no matter how small, will translate into goal achievements, generating greater satisfaction and enjoyment of life.

Lesson Review

1. What is your favorite time of the day? Why?
2. How can planning your day give you more free time?
3. List three items you'd put in your daily planner.
4. Define the term “procrastination.”

Lesson 4

Cadet Etiquette Guide



Key Terms

comradeship
curtly
dining-in
dining-out
etiquette
martial
monopolize
palate
place cards
protocol
receiving line
repast
sorbet
stag
stilted
tines

What You Will Learn to Do

- Learn proper etiquette for various events

Linked Core Abilities

- Treat self and others with respect
- Apply critical thinking techniques

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain along the Way

- Prepare invitations and thank you notes
- Exhibit appropriate etiquette when making introductions

Chapter 10

- Demonstrate proper dining etiquette
- Define key words contained in this lesson

Introduction

During your high school years, JROTC experience, and life after graduation, there will be occasions when you will be encouraged to interact with people on a social level. By knowing the rules of proper etiquette, you will not only make a good impression, but you will also be more relaxed and confident in these situations.

This chapter is designed to provide information on proper social conduct and behavior, an important element in your character development. Although the lesson concentrates on the etiquette and manners required at your Cadet Ball, this information carries over into other aspects of your life.

Etiquette vs. Manners

Etiquette is a code of behavior or courtesy based on rules of a polite society. Manners are socially correct ways of acting as shown in prevalent customs. Manners are based on kindness, respect, thoughtfulness, and consideration. Good manners are timeless, whereas, the rules of etiquette may vary with the changing times.

As you read this lesson on the rules of proper etiquette and the practice of good manners, remember that social etiquette and good manners are nothing more than common courtesy, sincerity, and consideration for others. It is important to treat others in the same way that we want others to treat us. This is the very foundation on which a polite society is built.

Making Introductions

Introductions should be simple, direct, and dignified, and the act of making them should be an occasion of formality. They should be made whenever people gather socially, even for a short period of time. Introductions should be made automatically and immediately when discovering that two people do not know each other. You may make these introductions or have someone else do it—as in a **receiving line**, but you cannot neglect an introduction without running the risk of being rude or negligent. There is nothing mysterious about making introductions, unless you do not know what to do.

The Receiving Line

Introductions at a formal reception, such as the annual Cadet Ball, may often include a **receiving line**. It is customary, and often mandatory, that all cadets and their guests go through the receiving line upon arrival. The people who would be in the receiving line are listed below:

Key Note Term

etiquette – a code of behavior based on rules of a polite society.

Key Note Term

receiving line – a group of people, including the host and honored guests, who stand in line and individually welcome guests attending a function, as at a formal reception.

- **The host (Senior Army Instructor or commander of the unit holding the reception)**
- **The spouse or guest of the Senior Army Instructor or unit commander**
- **The ranking honored guest, with his or her spouse/guest**
- **Other dignitaries with their guests**

At a reception, such as the Cadet Ball, the lady precedes the gentleman through the receiving line. The gentleman, whether or not he is the Junior ROTC cadet, introduces the lady first then himself to the Cadet Adjutant, who often announces the names of all attendees to the host. A lady or gentleman attending **stag** should introduce him or herself to the adjutant. Even though the adjutant may be a friend of yours, do not shake his or her hand. The adjutant will announce your name to the host as you step in front of him or her. A simple, pleasant greeting and a cordial handshake are all that is necessary when moving through a receiving line. Save lengthy conversation for later. Should your name get lost in the line, repeat it for the benefit of the person doing the greeting.

In the absence of an adjutant, the lady still precedes the man through the receiving line. He introduces her first and then introduces himself directly to the host. After you have finished this line, you may proceed to the serving of refreshments or conversation with other guests and await the signal for the next event. If the receiving and dining rooms are separate, do not enter the dining room until that signal is given.

For the remainder of the event, you will be responsible for making introductions as you move around the room and during dinner. The following guidelines explain what you need to do.

Key Note Term

stag – unaccompanied by someone of the opposite sex; traditionally, a man who attends a social affair without escort of a woman.

Formality of Introductions

When making an introduction, avoid the use of elaborate phrases. Recall that introductions should be simple and direct. The most generally accepted introductions are: “. . . , may I introduce . . .” or “. . . , I would like you to meet. . .” You should not say “. . . , meet . . .

It is a general rule that you introduce juniors to seniors (this applies to age and military rank), gentlemen to ladies, and so on. However, the degree of formality used when making the introduction depends on the position of the persons involved and/or the solemnity of the occasion.

Examples of Formal Introductions

When introducing someone to a dignitary, mention the dignitary first to show respect for the office he or she holds. Ensure that you use the correct formal title or appellation for the dignitary when making the introduction. A few more common titles include:

- **Introduce a doctor, judge, or bishop by their titles.**
- **Introduce members of Congress by Senator or The Honorable.**
- **Introduce a Catholic priest by Father, and an archbishop by Your Grace. Some Protestant clergy use titles such as Reverend, Pastor, or Doctor, whereas others prefer to be addressed as Mr., Mrs., Miss, or Ms. It is best to ask the individual how he or she prefers to be introduced before the introduction is made.**
- **Introduce military personnel by their rank; for example, when introducing your guest to one of your JROTC instructors, you might say “First Sergeant Allen, I would like you to meet Miss Jones.”**

If the situation arose where you had to introduce a teacher to a parent, you would use the teacher's name first. For example, “Major Cooper, I would like you to meet my mother, Mrs. Eastern.” If both of your parents were there, you would introduce the woman first and then the man, such as, “Major Cooper, I would like you to meet my parents, Mrs. Eastern and Mr. Eastern.”

Examples of Less Formal Introductions

When introducing two people who you know very well and who have heard you talk of the other, you may be more casual. For example, to introduce a squad buddy to your sister, you might simply say, “Susie, this is Pete.” In this example, it is perfectly acceptable to make the introduction using the first names of both people; however, do not make an introduction to an adult, senior, etc., using that person's first name.

In some cadet battalions or military academies, cadets have only one formal title as far as introductions are concerned—that of a Cadet. In those situations, the rank structure is not used when addressing cadets socially. For instance, you would say, “Doctor Jones, this is Cadet Draper,” not “Doctor Jones, this is Cadet Lieutenant Draper.” Furthermore, at some schools cadets may be addressed as “Mr. Draper” or “Ms. Draper” during conversations. For example, “Mr. Draper, I am pleased to meet you.”

Methods of Making Introductions

When making an introduction, speak each name slowly and clearly so there can be no possibility of misunderstanding on the part of either person. When you are on the receiving end of an introduction, make a special point of listening to the other person's name. If you forget the name, or did not hear it, ask—with an apology—for the name to be restated; then, use the name several times in conversation. This will help you remember it.

When being introduced, it is proper to return a courtesy such as, “Nice to meet you,” “Hello,” “I am really glad to meet you,” or “How do you do?” If you were the one making the introduction, it is not appropriate to walk off and leave the two people staring at each other. As the person who made the introduction, you should either say something about each person to get a conversation started or excuse yourself so that you and your guest can continue to move about the room or participate in some other event.

When starting a conversation, mention something of common interest to both parties. For example: “Captain Davis, I would like you to meet Michael Knight. Captain Davis is my Senior Army Instructor, Michael. Sir, Michael hopes to enroll in JROTC next year.”

Before taking leave of the person whom you just introduced, your guest should respond with “Good-bye, I am very glad to have met you,” or something to that effect.

Note

In taking leave of a group, it makes no difference if you were introduced or merely included in their conversation; you politely and quietly respond good-bye to anyone who happens to be looking at you, without attracting the attention of those who are unaware that you are leaving.

When and How to Shake Hands

When gentlemen are introduced to each other, they typically shake hands. Additionally, ladies who are JROTC cadets shake hands during introductions. However, as a more general rule, whenever a lady or gentleman extends their hand as a form of greeting, the receiving party should reciprocate the gesture. Nothing could be more ill-bred than to treat **curtly** any gesture made in spontaneous friendliness. At the end of the introduction and/or conversation, those who were drawn into it do not usually shake hands when parting.

A proper handshake is made briefly; but there should be a feeling of strength and warmth in the clasp. At the same time, maintain eye contact with the person whose hand one takes. Do not shake a hand violently, grasp the hand like a vise, keep the handshake going for a long period of time, or offer only your fingertips.

Other Forms of Introductions

If seated, one rises to acknowledge an introduction and remains standing while other members of the party are being introduced to one another. When being introduced to ladies or gentlemen who are seated, you need not rise if rising may inconvenience others at the table.

When being introduced to a lady out-of-doors, a gentleman in civilian clothes may remove his hat. In addition, a gentleman will ordinarily remove his glove to shake hands unless he is a member of a color or honor guard. If he is confronted with a sudden introduction when he has gloves on and it is awkward to remove a glove while the other person has their hand outstretched, it is better to shake hands with the glove on with no apology.

Note

You would also use these rules as part of general public behavior, even in casual situations.

Key Note Term

curtly – rudely brief or abrupt, as in speech or manner.

If you desire to introduce two people who are not near each other, you would typically take the junior to the senior, the young lady to the older person, the gentleman to the lady and so on.

When in doubt whether two people have met, it is perfectly permissible to ask. Be sure to address the senior first, using a courtesy such as “Colonel Smith, have you met Miss Jones?” If they have not met, make the introduction. Usually, most people will consider your question as tantamount to an introduction, and will proceed with the how-do-you-dos. The important thing is not to assume that people know each other. There is no harm in introducing people who have already met; it is, however, quite inconsiderate to have strangers together without an introduction.

It may sometimes be an erroneous assumption that every cadet knows every other cadet. Do not hesitate to introduce cadets if you are not sure they know each other.

Some people have a difficult time remembering names. Not remembering a name is a common failing and can be easily forgiven. However, forgetting a name is not an excuse for not making an introduction. If necessary, ask for the person’s name—with appropriate apologies—before starting the introduction. For example, “I beg your pardon, sir (or ma’am), but I have forgotten your name. Thank you, sir (ma’am). Colonel Smith, I would like you to meet Miss Jones.”

In certain situations, you may find it necessary to introduce yourself to another person. If you are next to someone you do not know and no one is around to make an introduction, it is perfectly acceptable to make your own introduction. Use a greeting such as “Hello, I am Tom Frazier,” while shaking that person’s hand. Do not say, “What’s your name?” A good reply to you would be “Ted Wentworth, nice to meet you.” It is then up to both people to start their own conversation.

Dining Tips

Table manners are an important part of social conduct. Proper manners around the table are not just reserved for special occasions; you should use them whenever you dine. Relaxed politeness is the key to any dining situation. When you know what to do, you can relax and enjoy yourself. This section will help you learn the rules of the table.

Manners and Courtesies Before Eating

A gentleman does not sit down until all the ladies at his table are seated. He can help with the seating by holding the chair, first for his guest, then for other ladies near him if the ladies outnumber the men. He does this by pulling out the lady’s chair from the table far enough for her to move easily in front of it. Then, as the lady sits down, he gently pushes the chair under her until she is seated. When all ladies at the table are seated, he may then take his seat by going around the left side of his chair. Posture at the table should be straight, but not stiff.

If a lady leaves the table at any time, the gentleman who seated her rises. When the lady returns to the table, her escort or the gentleman who seated her rises and the courtesies mentioned in the preceding paragraph are repeated.

The polite dinner guest will not touch anything on the table, not even the napkin, until after the blessing (or invocation) has been said or until it is obvious that there will be no blessing. Then, you may pick up your napkin and partially unfold it on your lap. Do this inconspicuously—do not unfold a dinner napkin completely or above the table.

At a large dinner, there may be a vast array of silverware at the place setting, consisting of one or two knives, two or three forks, and two or three spoons. This is shown in Figure 10.4.1. If there is any doubt about the correct piece of silverware to use for a particular course, one generally starts with the outside piece of silverware and works inward. If you end up without a spoon or a fork, it is appropriate to ask for a replacement.

Specialized pieces of silverware, for which their function is self-explanatory, include: the butter knife, soup spoon, dessert fork and spoon, iced tea spoon, oyster fork, and fish knife and fork. The number of pieces of silverware indicates the number of courses to expect. A six-course meal, for example, might include soup, fish, **sorbet** (a **palate** cleanser), salad, an entrée, and dessert. The placement of the silverware indicates the order of these courses.

Also included will be a water goblet that is located on the right side of the place setting, a dinner plate, and a bread plate that is located on the left side of the place setting.

Wait until the head table (if there is one) is served and for everyone at your table to be served before starting to eat. Courses are served from the left and removed from the right.

Key Note Term

sorbet – a fruit-flavored ice served for dessert or in between courses as a palate refresher.

palate – the sense of taste.

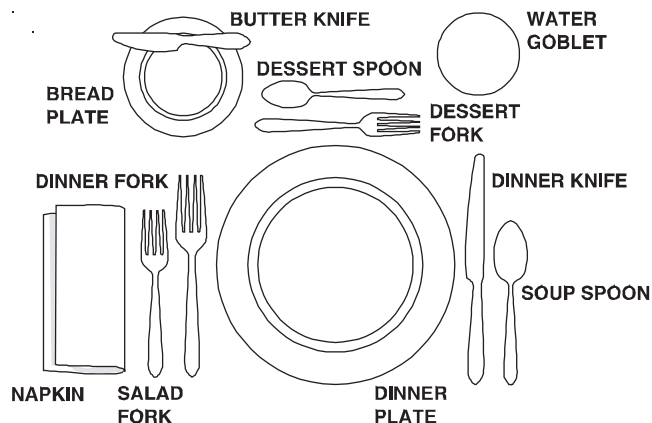


Figure 10.4.1: A place setting can be confusing if you're not familiar with it.

Methods, Manners, and Courtesies of Eating

Different methods, manners, and courtesies of eating exist, depending on various situations. You should be familiar with the proper use of silverware, how to eat with your fingers as well as with a soup spoon, the differences between American and European styles of dining, and more.

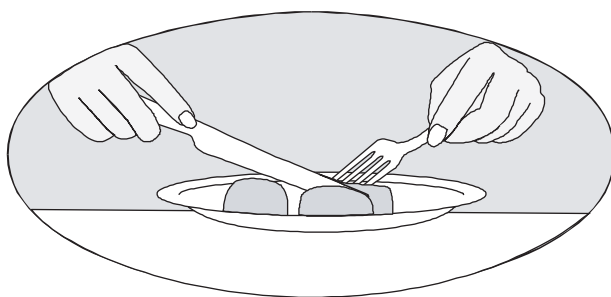
American vs. European Styles of Eating

In the American style of eating, cutting food should be done as shown in Figure 10.4.2, by holding the fork in your left hand, **tines** down with your index finger on the back of the fork, secure the food being cut with the knife, which is held in your right hand. Cut in front of the fork, not behind it. After cutting not more than two or three bites of food, place the knife on the plate and transfer the fork to your right hand. This is called the “zigzag” method.

Key Note Term

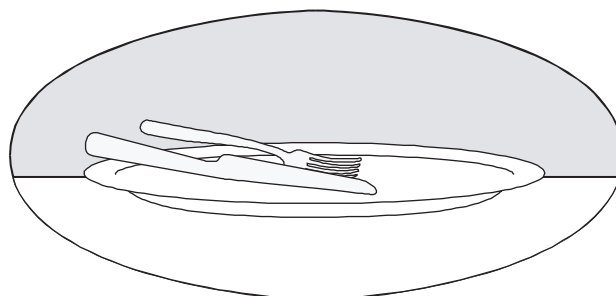
tines – slender pointed parts of a fork; prongs.

Figure 10.4.2: American style of eating.



When not using your knife and fork, place them together across the top of your plate as shown in Figure 10.4.3. This is the resting position. When you have finished the main course, place the knife and fork beside each other on the dinner plate diagonally from the upper left to lower right, or from the 10:00 to the 4:00 position. This is the finished position and indicates that your plate may be removed.

Figure 10.4.3: Resting position, American style.



In the Continental or European style, hold the fork in your left hand and the knife in your right hand. Cut and eat with your fork, tines down, while still holding it in your left hand. The knife can remain in your right hand throughout the meal to cut food or to help push bits of food onto the fork. Only one bite of food is cut and eaten at a time.

When not using your fork, rest it diagonally on the left side of the plate with the tines down and close to the center of the plate. Rest the knife diagonally on the right side of the plate with its point toward the center of the plate. When finished, place them as described in the American style with the fork tines down.

Proper Use of Silverware

Various rules govern how to properly use silverware. These rules include:

- **After you have used a piece of silverware, do not place it back on the table.**
- **Do not leave a used spoon in a cup; place it on the saucer.**
- **Do not leave a soup spoon in a soup bowl, although you may leave it on a soup plate if one is provided; otherwise, place it on the dinner plate when not in use.**
- **Do not lay a knife with the handle on the table and the tip of the blade on the edge of the plate. This also applies to the fork.**
- **Leave unused silverware on the table in its proper position.**

Proper Way to Eat Soup and Finger Foods

When eating soup, the motion of the spoon should be away from you while filling it. Sip from the side of the spoon; do not slurp. If it is necessary to tip your soup bowl, tip it away from you. If your soup is too hot to eat, let it sit until it cools; do not blow on it.

Bread, rolls, biscuits, nuts, fresh fruit, olives, celery, radishes, raw carrots, cookies, and small cakes may be eaten with your fingers. Place finger foods such as these on the bread plate, or in the absence of that plate, on the salad or dinner plates.

As seen in Figure 10.4.4, break your individual servings of bread, rolls, and large biscuits into small pieces before buttering and eating them, one piece at a time. Do not cut these items. Buttering and eating a whole roll or whole slice of bread is also not appropriate.

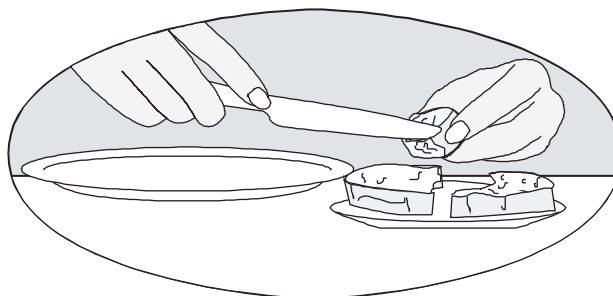


Figure 10.4.4: Break bread, rolls, and biscuits with your fingers before you butter them.

Proper Use of a Napkin

You should not tuck the napkin under your belt or wear it like a bib. Napkins are for dabbing lips, catching spills, and covering sneezes. Do not use a napkin to blow your nose. Never lick your fingers; always use your napkin.

Before taking a drink of water or any other beverage, wipe your lips with your napkin to avoid leaving smears on the glassware. One quick, light pass with the napkin should suffice.

If you must leave the table during dinner, say, “Excuse me, please,” with no explanation, and place your napkin on your chair. When leaving the table after dinner, place the napkin on the table in loose folds to the right of your plate. Do not refold, crumple, or twist it. Also, push your chair to the table on every occasion.

Basic Table Manners

The following are hints regarding table manners. Follow each one in any situation where you might be dining.

Key Note Term

place cards – a name card for a formal dinner.

- If **place cards** are used, do not move or remove them. In addition to indicating the specific seating arrangement, place cards are used to make guests feel welcome and to help people get to know one another in large social settings.
- Take small bites. Large mouthfuls of food are unsightly. Do not chew with your mouth open or make loud noises when you eat. It is not polite to talk with food in your mouth.
- If you burp, say “Excuse me,” to no one in particular and continue eating. Do not make a big deal out of it.
- Hats, gloves, cameras, purses, sunglasses, and so on do not belong on the table. If it is not a part of the meal, do not put it on the table. Hats and gloves belong in the cloakroom. You may place cameras and purses under your chair.
- Your hands should go no farther over the table than is necessary to eat and to pass things. Between courses, place your hands in your lap or at your side. Do not place your elbows on the table.
- If you cannot easily reach something on the table, ask for it to be passed to you with a please and a thank you. If you are the one passing something, place the items on the table for the person to pick them up. When passing salt and pepper, pass them together.
- If food spills off your plate, you may pick it up with a piece of your silverware and place it on the edge of your plate.
- If you drop something, leave it on the floor until the meal is over; then pick it up. If a piece of your silverware falls onto the floor, pick it up if you can reach it and let the server know you need a clean one. If you cannot reach it, tell the server you dropped a piece of your silverware and ask for a clean one.
- Do not season your food before you have tasted it.
- Hold a long-stemmed glass with the thumb and first two fingers of your right hand at the base of the bowl or on the stem.
- It is not appropriate to ask for a “doggy bag” during a formal occasion.

- Do not reprimand a server. Make any complaints to the person (cadet) in charge of the ballroom arrangements.
- If food gets caught between your teeth and you cannot remove it with your tongue without being too noticeable, leave the table and go to the restroom where you can remove the food in private.
- At the end of dinner, and after the host and honored guests have departed; make sure that you say good-bye to everyone at your table before departing.

Table Talk

Conversation is an important part of social interaction around the table. It is perfect for the enjoyment of good companionship and a pleasant meal. A few important tips include:

- Try not to talk too quickly or too slowly.
- Keep the conversation light. Small talk includes casual, unofficial, interesting things in everyday life; such as the weather, music, upcoming events, movies, or sports. Keep topics of conversation safe and non-controversial. Avoid discussions about religion, race or politics, or any controversial issue. Avoid health issues, off-color jokes, and gossip.
- Answer respectfully when addressed.
- Be mindful of engaging in conversation with a person who has just taken a bite of food. Remember; do not talk with food in your mouth.
- Loud voices/laughter can be disturbing to others. Do not yell; use a pleasant tone of voice that can be heard only at your table. Do not use profane, abusive or vulgar language.
- Be a good listener. Give others a chance to talk. Do not **monopolize** a conversation. Pay attention to the person speaking by giving eye contact; do not look at other people when someone is talking to you.
- Do not interrupt. Allow the other person to finish what he or she is saying before speaking. If you and another person start talking at the same time, give way quickly in a friendly manner with a simple, “Go ahead, please.”
- Do not ridicule or laugh at an unfortunate remark or someone’s mistake. Although a good conversationalist does not contradict someone in a social setting, it is okay to disagree. In those instances, start by saying, “I disagree with you because . . .”

Key Note Term

monopolize – to take exclusive ownership or control.

The Cadet as a Guest

When you are invited to attend a social event, which could be a short afternoon visit, a dinner party, or the annual Cadet Ball, you have certain obligations that you must observe as a guest.

Invitations

You must understand the invitation: what you are invited for, where it will be held, when you should be there, and what you should wear. A written invitation will usually spell out most of these things quite clearly. Certain things are implicit in an invitation, as you shall see.

The R.S.V.P.

R.S.V.P. comes from the French expression “Repondez s’il vous plait,” which means “please reply.” On many invitations, you will see the R.S.V.P. followed by a telephone number. In this case, the courtesy of a prompt reply by telephone is required to permit the host, hostess, or planning committee to properly plan the event. Call within two or three days to accept or decline the invitation, and make your call between 9 a.m. and 6 p.m.

Note

R.S.V.P. means that you must reply to the host to let them know if you can or cannot attend the function to which you’ve been invited.

Note

More on telephone courtesies is covered in the section on “Other Courtesies.”

If your plans for that day are unsettled or indefinite, do not pass this problem on to the prospective host or hostess. It would be much better to outright decline the invitation than to give a complicated account of your indefinite social activities. Even if the other arrangement or engagement is tentative; it is best to decline the invitation. After you have declined, however, do not call back if your plans change.

When declining, it is sufficient to say to the host or hostess that a conflicting duty or social engagement prevents you from accepting. You are at liberty to turn down an invitation because you do not wish to go; however, you should exercise good judgment on the invitations you refuse.

If, after you accepted an invitation, an illness or an absolute emergency prevents you from attending, call the host or hostess immediately with regrets and apologies.

You are not at liberty to invite someone else along unless the invitation clearly indicates the number and names of those invited.

There are several variations of the R.S.V.P. that are coming into widespread use, especially on informal invitations. These variations include:

- **“R.S.V.P. Regrets Only.”** This invitation means that the prospective host or hostess is expecting you unless you notify otherwise that you cannot come. If you can accept, you need not reply, just be there on time.

- **Invitations by phone.** When accepting an invitation by phone, it is a good idea to repeat back all of the essential information so that there is no misunderstanding. If you must first check your calendar before answering, get all the details and explain that you will call back as soon as you have done so. Thank the caller for the invitation, make sure you have the phone number, and promise to call right back; then, make sure you do.

Where

Most written invitations will indicate exactly where the function is being held. Some invitations may include a small map for your convenience.

When

Invitations to dinners, receptions, and weddings will usually give a time. For dinners and receptions, this is the time at which you should arrive, no earlier and no later. You will need to plan your timing so that you can be punctual. The time on a wedding invitation is the time the ceremony begins; therefore, you should allow sufficient time to be punctual.

If you are invited to an open house from 3 to 6 p.m., you may arrive any time after three and depart before six. You are not expected to stay the entire three hours. After a dinner party, you should stay at least an hour; otherwise, it hints of “eat-and-run” rudeness.

What to Wear

The invitation may specify what you should wear. For example, cadets would most likely wear their Class A uniform to the annual Cadet Ball. In this situation, male guests should wear a suit while female guests should wear either short or long evening attire.

Some invitations may simply indicate that the dress is formal, informal, or casual. Ensure that you understand what these terms mean. If you are in doubt, ask the host or hostess what to wear when you call to R.S.V.P. As a general rule, use the following guidelines:

- **Formal:** For gentlemen, a suit may be acceptable, although a tuxedo or uniform equivalent is preferred; for ladies, a short or long evening gown may be appropriate.
- **Informal:** For gentlemen, a sport coat and tie is appropriate; for ladies, a dress appropriate for day-time wear or a nice pants suit is acceptable.
- **Casual:** For gentleman, nice slacks and a sport shirt is appropriate; for ladies, a sundress or nice pants and blouse is appropriate. In some situations, jeans or shorts and a nice shirt or blouse may be acceptable.

Courtesies When a Guest at Smaller Functions

When attending an open house or a small dinner party, seek out your host and/or hostess immediately upon arrival and greet them. A crowded room should not keep

you from properly greeting your host and hostess. You should also delay getting any refreshments until after you have properly greeted them.

Because the host and hostess are in charge, let them run things. As a polite, unassuming guest, you should help by making conversation and joining wholeheartedly in whatever activities they have planned.

You should not sit when other guests are standing in your presence.

Prior to leaving, you must thank your host and hostess for a wonderful time. Even if there are still dozens of people present, you must seek them out to say thank you and good-bye.

Thank You Notes

Thank you notes should be written within two or three days, but no more than a week, after you have been a guest at someone's home. A thank you note should be handwritten in ink on quality writing paper. Stationary sets that provide matching paper and envelopes are recommended. Be conservative in the choice of color and design. Plain white is always acceptable. Some of the requirements for a thank you note are:

- **Spell out the month—the notation 3/9/04 is not used socially. Place the date in the upper right corner just below the fold line on the informal notepaper.**
- **Ensure there are adequate margins on both sides of the paper—leave about one and one-fourth inch on the left side and about three-fourths inch on the right, depending on the size of the paper.**
- **Place the salutation, such as “Dear Mrs. Elliott,” at the left margin.**
- **Indent the first line of each paragraph; bring each subsequent line out to the left margin.**
- **Place the complimentary close approximately as far to the right as the date at the top of the page. “Sincerely,” or “Sincerely yours,” with your first and last names are acceptable complimentary closes. Do not use “Yours truly,” and reserve the use of “Love,” for a family member or close friend followed by your first name only.**
- **Do not use “Cadet” or your cadet rank in your signature.**
- **Your return address belongs on the envelope, not under your signature.**

There should be a minimum of three paragraphs in the thank you note. The first expresses your thanks specifically and in detail for the occasion. The last briefly summarizes your thanks. There must be one or more paragraphs in the middle on any topic you choose about the occasion you attended. Do not invite yourself back in your thank you note.

When expressing yourself—be yourself! If you do not normally speak a **stilted** or flowery language, do not sound that way in your note. Sincerity is far more important than eloquence. “I was overwhelmed by the sumptuousness of the **repast** in your exquisite domicile,” is pretty silly from most people. “I enjoyed the dinner in your attractive home,” sounds much more natural. If you particularly enjoyed the soup, or if the chocolate cream pie was out of this world, by all means say so in your note.

Key Note Term

stilted – stiffly or artificially dignified or formal; pompous; lofty.

repast – a supply of food and drink served as a meal.

Sincerity is the first rule in social correspondence. Simplicity is the second rule. You can hardly go wrong with a few simple and direct statements of the things that pleased or amused you. Write just as you would say it to someone you know very well. Also, use correct grammar and spelling and keep it neat.

The thank you note is an individual responsibility. If more than one of you enjoyed a dinner party at someone's home, it is not proper to send one thank you note. Each of you should write your own note.

Follow the example shown below to address an envelope. Ensure that you use a block style; include the proper title with the name (such as Mr., Mrs., Miss, Dr., Colonel, SGM and so on); place the city, two-letter state abbreviation, and zip code on the same line.

Place your return address on the front top left-hand corner of the envelope. You may use an address label for this purpose. You may also include "Cadet" in your title, but not your cadet rank: Cadet John C. Scott is acceptable, but Cadet Captain John C. Scott is not correct.

If you are on the planning committee for the Cadet Ball, you should also send thank you notes to the special guests, the organizations that sponsored the event, and the organizations that provided services and entertainment.

Other Courtesies

Life is full of ways to show courteous behavior towards others. This section shows just a few ways you can act in a thoughtful and civilized manner.

Telephone Courtesies

The telephone is a valuable time-saver and an effective means of communication. Here are some tips for proper telephone usage.

When calling a private residence to respond to an R.S.V.P., it is most proper to call between nine in the morning and six at night. Avoid calling during meal hours. If you are in doubt, ask the person you are calling if this is a convenient time—offer to call back later if necessary. Let the phone ring at least six times to allow the person to reach the phone.

Identify yourself when placing a call. Unlike talking to someone face-to-face, the person on the other end of the phone may not recognize your voice until you identify yourself. While talking on the phone:

- **Be polite. This applies to any conversation.**
- **Speak slowly and clearly. Do not eat, drink, or chew gum.**
- **Do not sneeze or cough into the receiver. Turn your head or excuse yourself.**
- **Do not carry on a conversation with someone in the room while talking on the phone.**

- **Call back immediately if you get disconnected and you placed the call.**
- **When answering a call for someone else, say, “May I ask who is calling?” This sounds better than “Who is this?”**

There is also proper etiquette to follow if you dial a wrong number. No matter how careful you are you may still dial a wrong number. When that happens, apologize to the person who answers. That person is not interested in hearing a story about how you misdialed, just tell him or her “I’m very sorry to have disturbed you,” hang up, ensure you have the correct number, and then try again. It is inexcusably rude to hang up without an apology.

When leaving a message on an answering machine, clearly state your name, the date and time of your call, and a brief message. Leave a phone number only if you need to be called back.

Cellular Phone Courtesies

Because cell phones can be used virtually anywhere, their users need to remember common-sense courtesy. Results from a nationwide survey indicate that wireless users need to improve their phone etiquette and put people ahead of phone calls. A few tips to follow include:

- **Use of wireless phones is prohibited in most schools and at school functions.**
- **Use of wireless phones during social gatherings or appointments is not appropriate.**
- **Do not place a cell phone on the table during a meal.**
- **Do not drive and use a cell phone. If you need to have a conversation while driving, be sure to pull off the road while talking.**
- **Do not use a wireless phone when it will inconvenience or disturb others.**
- **Use should be limited in public places or gatherings to safety or emergency reasons.**

Helping Others

If an older woman or an invalid gentleman wants some support, it is appropriate for you to offer your arm. The cadet does not offer his or her hand. Hand holding in public is not appropriate and is considered a public display of affection, which is improper when in uniform. A cadet may offer his or her hand only when it is not practical to offer the arm, for example, to help an elderly lady or gentleman out of a car. Offer your hand palm up, and do not force it upon the person to whom you are offering it; then, withdraw your hand as soon as it is no longer needed.

When walking with a lady, a gentleman may walk on the curbside, or on her left if there is no curb.

If a gentleman arrives at a door first, he should open it and allow others to pass through. If a lady arrives at the door first and opens it, the gentleman may hold the door for her to continue.

If you are driving or riding to the social in a privately owned vehicle, open the car door for your passenger first on the right side of the car, then go around it and take your seat, either behind the wheel or in the back seat beside your guest. When you reach your destination, walk around the car and open the door for your guest if he or she has not already exited the vehicle.

Being Responsible for Your Guest

Depending upon the nature of the social occasion, cadets should inform their guests about the traditions and courtesies of it before arriving. Using the Cadet Ball as an example, cadets should inform their guests about appropriate dress, conduct, the receiving line, traditions of the mess, and so on. Remember, if you invite a guest, you are responsible for your guest's behavior. If you have duties to perform after you arrive at the social, arrange for someone else to act as an escort for your guest until you are free. Introduce your friends and ensure that your guest's time is fulfilled.

Respect to Seniors

By this time in JROTC, you should not have any difficulty in showing respect to military seniors; in fact, it should be automatic.

You should also show respect for elders, as well as parents, teachers, and others in a position of authority. In short, you should treat all persons with whom you have contact with the utmost respect.

Because it is unacceptable to use slang or poor grammar such as “yeah,” “nope,” or “un-huh” to a JROTC instructor, it is also socially rude to say these things to others.

You may also encounter situations when seniors address you by your first name. Although this may be flattering, under no circumstances should you address a senior by his or her first name unless that person specifically asks you to do so.

Grooming

Nothing less than scrupulous attention to all aspects of personal hygiene will make you socially acceptable. Be certain that you are well groomed every time you make an appearance socially. One dirty or untrimmed fingernail may seem like a small thing to you, but it may be the basis for a negative impression. You will not have a second chance to make a first impression. The following are just a few of the basics you should already be doing to ensure your appearance is up to standards.

- **Ensure your hair is clean, neatly trimmed or styled, and combed at all times.**
- **Shower daily and use a deodorant as part of your daily routine.**
- **Brush your teeth and floss daily. Try to brush after meals.**
- **For young men who already have to shave, if it is necessary for you to do so once or twice a day to be presentable, then do so.**

Good grooming is an individual responsibility. It should not be necessary for an instructor or a senior cadet to tell you to maintain proper personal hygiene. Additionally, for cadets, ensure that your uniform is clean, pressed, and presentable.

Other Everyday Courtesies

Use “please,” “thank you,” “you’re welcome,” “excuse me,” and “I’m sorry” naturally and sincerely in conversations. Say, “excuse me” if you accidentally brush against someone. You should say, “excuse me” or “I beg your pardon,” but do not use the phrase “pardon me.”

You may chew gum in public as long as you do it in a non-offensive way—quietly and inconspicuously. Do not chew gum in formal situations, at work, if you are a host or hostess, or if you are around food.

In public places, do not make a lot of noise with friends that might upset other people.

Do not push ahead of anyone. Wait your turn in line to go through a door, into an elevator, or onto an escalator.

Planning a Cadet Ball

A major prerequisite for ensuring that the Cadet Ball (and for that matter, any social occasion) is successful is careful planning. The first important act is the appointment of a Cadet Ball chairperson by the Senior Army Instructor. This chairperson should have authority to make many of the required planning decisions, although some of these decisions may be subject to the approval of the Senior Army Instructor.

One of the first duties of the cadet chairperson should be to review the reports on file for previous Cadet Balls. These reports will acquaint the chairperson with his or her responsibilities, which include (this list is not all inclusive):

- **Establishing committees, appointing committee leaders, and providing them with the necessary people and other resources. He or she is also responsible for supervising these committees. At a minimum, the chairperson should establish committees for:**
 - Advertising
 - Decorating
 - Entertainment
 - Food
 - Fund-raising
 - Invitations, including the special guests
 - Program and seating arrangements
- **Establishing short and long-term goals, identifying the tasks necessary for the achievement of these goals, and delegating the tasks to committees for execution.**
- **Identifying problem areas and lessons learned from previous Cadet Balls, and preventing them from reoccurring.**

The chairperson and all committee leaders should think through all of the details thoroughly, and develop a plan to get everything done. You should be sure to establish alternative (or back-up) plans where necessary. This way you can be sure of avoiding last minute embarrassment.

Send out invitations as early as possible. If some guests do not accept, you still have time to invite others without offending them with a last minute invitation. Ensure that the invitation clearly states the location, time, and dress requirements. Let your guests know exactly what is being planned and what is expected of them.

Helpful planning tips include:

- **Ensure that all arrangements are carefully made for the special guests.**
- **Select a band that plays an arrangement of music as well as music that does not offend anyone.**
- **Arrange to have a photographer.**
- **Arrange to have several nice door prizes if you can find sponsors to donate them.**
- **Give credit in the program to all sponsors as well as to individuals and organizations that assisted in putting the Cadet Ball together.**
- **Rehearse the Color Guard, the sequence of events, and any special activities at the designated location at least one day prior to the actual event.**
- **Coordinate with the designated location to ensure they prepare the correct number of meals, have the correct number of chairs and tables, and that seating is in accordance with the seating chart.**

History of Military Dining-Ins

You should be familiar with the terms **dining-in** and **dining-out**. These terms refer to formal dinners, which are intended for military members only (dining-in) or to which guests are invited (dining-out). The **protocol** for these affairs often reflects long-standing traditions within a regiment or corps of the armed forces.

Dining-in has its roots in Europe and may extend all the way back to the Roman practice of holding great banquets to celebrate victory and parade the spoils of war. The customs and traditions of our contemporary dining-in come from those of the British Army Regimental Mess. The British mess provided a time for satire, solemn formality, horseplay, an excuse for living beyond one's means, and was an occasion to observe long-standing customs and traditions of the regiment. The first recorded American dining-in occurred in September 1716 when Governor Spotswood of Virginia, along with a company of Rangers, celebrated after crossing the mountains and descending into the Shenandoah Valley.

Even today, there is still ample reason to observe the dining-in tradition. The intent of the dining-in is to promote cordiality, **comradeship**, and esprit de corps. In addition, it is hoped that participation in this worthy tradition will stimulate enthusiasm to prevent it from dying out.

Key Note Term

dining-in – a formal military dinner for military members only.

dining-out – a formal military dinner to which non-military guests are invited.

protocol – a code of precedence in rank and status and of correct procedure in ceremonies; a form of etiquette observed in ceremonies; a combination of good manners and common sense that allows for effective communication.

comradeship – companionship.

Key Note Term

martial – of or relating to an army or military life.

The primary elements are a formal setting, posting of the Colors, invocation, traditional toasts (may be at the conclusion of dinner), a fine dinner, comradeship of cadets, benediction, retirement of the Colors, and **martial** music.

Toasting

The custom of toasting is universal. It is a simple courtesy to the person being honored. It is not proper to drain the glass at the completion of each toast; therefore, know how many toasts are being given so that you will know how much to drink with each toast. It is also not proper to raise an empty glass to make a toast. Toasts are made standing up. One person will present the toast by saying, “Ladies and Gentlemen, the President of the United States” or “Ladies and Gentlemen, I propose a toast to the President of the United States.” All will then raise their glasses and say “The President” or “To the President,” respectively.

On the presentation and retirement of the Colors, face toward the Colors at attention until the ceremony is completed; then, remain standing for the toasts and the invocation at the beginning of the program. You are expected to rise again for the benediction at the end of the program.

Conclusion

Learning proper social conduct is an important part of your growth and character development. Although there are many forms of etiquette that pertain to almost every social occasion that you will encounter in life, the intent of this lesson was to familiarize you with proper manners and etiquette for the single most important social event in JROTC—the Cadet Ball.

Lesson Review

1. What is the difference between etiquette and manners?
2. Explain why it is important to present a good appearance at all times.
3. Compare American-style dining with European style.
4. Give three examples of proper dinner conversation topics; give three examples of improper dinner table topics.

NEFE High School Financial Planning Program

Chapter 11

Lesson 2

Financial Planning: Your Road Map



Key Terms

delayed gratification
goal
needs
SMART goals
values
wants

What You Will Learn to Do

- Determine personal financial goals

Linked Core Abilities

- Take responsibility for your actions and choices

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain along the Way

- Differentiate between needs and wants
- Describe how values can influence decisions
- Compare SMART goals
- Discuss how goals impact actions
- Define key words contained in this lesson

Introduction

Do you ever find that you don't have enough money to buy something or participate in an activity? You may have already found that you need to make choices because your cash supply is limited. In this learning plan you compare your wants and needs. You also set personal financial goals as the first step in creating your own financial plan.

Note

You will find this lesson in your NEFE High School Financial Planning Program Student Guide.

For more information go to www.nefe.org or write to:

NEFE The High School Financial Planning Program

5299 DTC Blvd., Suite 1300

Greenwood Village, CO 80111

Lesson 3

Budgeting: Don't Go Broke



Key Terms

budget
cash management
expenses
Federal income tax
fixed expenses
gross income
income
Medicare tax
net income
payroll deductions
P.Y.F.
Social Security tax
State income tax
taxes
variable expense

What You Will Learn to Do

- Outline a personal budget

Linked Core Abilities

- Take responsibility for your actions and choices

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain along the Way

- Identify the purpose of a budget
- Determine resources available for financial objectives
- Explain how to construct a simple budget
- Define key words contained in this lesson

Introduction

What do you spend your money on? Do you take in more money than you spend, or do you find yourself needing to borrow money to make purchases? A budget is a useful way to help you identify where your money goes and figure out how to make the most of it. When you are in control of your spending, you are able to make your money work for you. In this learning plan you create a personal budget that will match your financial goals.

Note

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Lesson 4

Savings and Investments: Your Money at Work



Key Terms

bond
capital gain
compounding
diversification
earned interest
inflation
interest
invest
mutual fund
rate of return
Rule of 72
savings
stocks
time value of money

What You Will Learn to Do

- Forecast personal savings and investments

Linked Core Abilities

- Take responsibility for your actions and choices

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain along the Way

- Describe reasons for saving and investing
- Describe how time, money, and rate of interest relate to meeting specific financial goals
- Describe basic investment principles

- Describe various savings and investment alternatives
- Define key words contained in this lesson

Introduction

You can earn money by working or receive money as gifts. Another way to earn money is to make your money work for you. You can earn interest on savings or receive earnings from smart investments. In this learning plan you examine different ways to put your money to work by saving and investing. You also consider saving and investing habits that will help you meet your financial goals.

Note

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*Citizenship in American
History and Government*

Unit 6

***Critical Thinking
in Citizenship***

Chapter 8

Chapter 8

Lesson 1

Leadership Choices, Decisions, and Consequences



Key Terms

After Action Review
contingency

What You Will Learn to Do

- Investigate how leadership choices and decisions can lead to good and/or bad consequences

Linked Core Abilities

- Communicate using verbal, non-verbal, visual, and written techniques
- Apply critical thinking techniques

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain Along the Way

- Translate how the 11 principles of leadership apply to decision making
- Apply the decision-making process to leadership decisions
- Define key words contained in this lesson

Introduction

Leaders must be able to decide confidently on what action to take under the most critical conditions. If a leader delays or avoids making a decision, the result might be a lost opportunity, loss of confidence, confusion, and failure of a project. In this lesson you examine strategies to use when considering decisions as a leader. You also analyze the impact of actions that involve decisions made at a leadership level.

The Decision-Making Process

When learning how to make sound, rational, and informed decisions, you need to have a basic understanding of the ways decisions are made. Most decision-making rests on two assumptions: that leaders have access to all the information they need to make a decision, and that leaders make decisions by choosing the best possible solution to a problem or response to an opportunity. According to this method, a decision maker should choose how to respond to opportunities and problems by engaging in the following four steps:

1. **Listing all alternatives from which a choice will be selected: These alternatives represent different responses to the problem or the opportunity.**
2. **Listing the consequences of each alternative: The consequences are what would occur if a given alternative were selected.**
3. **Considering his or her own preferences for each alternative or set of consequences and then ranking the sets from most preferred to least preferred.**
4. **Selecting the alternative that will result in the most preferred set of consequences.**

The assumption that decision makers have all the information needed to make optimal decisions bears little resemblance to the conditions facing most situations. Even if the decision makers did have all necessary information, they probably would not be able to use it all because the cognitive abilities of decision makers are limited; often they cannot take into account the large quantities of information available to them.

One way to consider the difficulties of this decision-making process is to compare the four steps described previously to actual decision making in any given situation. With regard to the first step, decision makers often *do not know all the alternatives from which* they can choose. One of the defining features of this process is that it involves an extensive search for information. Even after this search is complete, however, it is likely that decision makers are aware of only some of the possible alternatives.

In the second step of this decision-making process, decision makers list the consequences of each alternative. As in the first step, however, decision makers often *do not know all of the consequences* that will ensue if they choose a given alternative. One reason it's hard to make decisions is that the decision maker often does not know what will happen if a given course of action is chosen.

As the third step in this process, decision makers must consider their own preferences for sets of consequences. Once again, this assumes that decision makers are able to rank sets of consequences and know their own preferences. However, decision makers *don't always know for sure what they want*. Stop and think about some of the important and difficult decisions you have had to make. Sometimes these decisions were difficult to make precisely because *you weren't sure what you wanted*. For example, a graduating senior with an accounting degree from the University of Wisconsin might find it hard to choose between a job offer from a Wisconsin bank and one from a major accounting firm in New York City because he doesn't know whether he prefers the security of staying in Wisconsin, where most of his family and friends are, to the excitement of living in a big city and the opportunity to work for a major firm. Because of the problems with the first three steps in this decision-making model:

- **It is often impossible for a leader to make the best possible decisions**
- **Even if they make a good decision, the time, effort, and cost that were spent making it might not be worthwhile.**

Incomplete information and the decision maker's cognitive abilities and psychological makeup affect decision making. Consequently decision makers often choose *satisfactory*, not optimal, solutions.

One key to decision making is to follow the 11 Principles of Leadership, both for yourself as well as for your team. Each principle can help you make the best, most timely and optimal decisions and choices available.

Applying the 11 Principles of Leadership to Decision Making

As discussed in Chapter 1, Lesson 4, "Principles and Leadership," the 11 principles of leadership are key to effective decision-making. As a review, these principles include:

- **Perform a self-evaluation**
- **Be technically proficient**
- **Seek and take responsibility for your actions**
- **Make sound and timely decisions**
- **Set the example**
- **Know your personnel and look out for their welfare**
- **Keep your followers informed**
- **Develop a sense of responsibility in your followers**
- **Ensure each task is understood, supervised, and accomplished**
- **Build a team**
- **Employ your team in accordance with its capabilities**

Take a look at each principle and see how it relates to the decision-making process.

Perform a Self-Evaluation

Through self-evaluation, you can determine your strengths and weaknesses; you can take advantage of your strengths, and work to overcome your weaknesses. Self-knowledge is crucial towards gaining confidence in your decision-making skills and your ability to lead effectively. When you know who you are and recognize your leadership qualities, making sound, informed, and timely decisions becomes less intimidating. You know exactly what you want, gain courage from your convictions, and confidently adhere to what you think is right. When you don't work on self-knowledge, you can come across to your team members as an uncertain and insecure leader, and this can lead to fear and confusion within the team.

Be Technically Proficient

Being technically proficient means you can show your teammates that you are qualified to lead and perform all tasks associated with any job or assignment, and you are capable of training teammates to carry out those assignments. By knowing what it takes to accomplish each job or task that you ask of your followers, you can base your leadership choices and decisions on the abilities of your support team. If a team member feels that you don't understand the job that they are being asked to do, they might resent the responsibility you've given them and not perform to the best of their abilities.

Seek and Take Responsibility for Your Actions

Leading always involves responsibility, and leaders are always responsible for the choices and decisions they make. As you make your decisions, ensure that you possess the competence necessary to make sound and timely choices. If you feel you need more input or information before making a decision for which you will take full responsibility, get feedback from your superiors or from your team members, or find other ways to gain knowledge. When a leader does not take responsibility for decisions, or takes credit for success when it was not due, or refuses to admit when mistakes have been made, team members can lose confidence in their leadership.

Make Sound and Timely Decisions

Leaders must be able to reason under pressure and decide quickly what action to take. To delay or avoid making a decision may cause a project to fail. When circumstances require a change in plans, prompt reaction builds confidence in your team members. Too, you can encourage your teammates to participate in the planning process. Always consider their advice and suggestions before making a decision.

Set the Example

A leader must be a good example for his or her team. This is a weighty responsibility, but as a leader, you have no choice. If you expect honor, integrity, loyalty, and respect from your followers, you must demonstrate the same. When you're assured that your team has picked up on your courage and convictions, you can make choices and decisions by knowing your team is 100 percent behind you. Without that cohesiveness, any project is doomed to failure.

Know Your Personnel and Look Out for Their Welfare

As a leader, you must know and understand each member of your unit. You must know them as individuals—their interests, values, attitudes, strengths, and weaknesses. Never ask a team member to do something for which they are not qualified, and always use team members to the fullest of their abilities. When you recognize what makes each member “tick,” you can encourage them to be their best, and help them eliminate their weaknesses. In making choices and decisions, knowing your team members is crucial to the success of any project.

Keep Your Followers Informed

Each member of your team will do their best if they understand why they are doing something. Keeping your unit informed of any situation and explaining the reasons behind each decision you make helps your team to understand why you are making certain choices and decisions, and helps your team members comprehend their role in each project. Too, by keeping your followers informed, you stay on top of the most current information available.

Develop a Sense of Responsibility in Your Followers

When you develop a sense of responsibility in each team member, you indicate that you trust them. As a leader and instructor, you are responsible for helping each team member meet their potential by giving them the opportunities and challenges you know they can handle; then giving them more responsibility when you feel they’re ready. By encouraging them to take initiative and work towards a goal, you let each teammate feel as if they have some amount of ownership in a project. And by developing this ownership or sense of responsibility, you can make decisions knowing that your team will do their best.

Ensure Each Task Is Understood, Supervised, and Accomplished

Your followers must understand what you expect from them. They need to know how and when you want a specific task accomplished, and what the standard is for that task. By supervising each member of your unit, you have the opportunity to let them know what you want done, show them how you want it done, and be available to answer questions. By knowing that each team member understands their job and responsibilities, you can make choices and decisions with the knowledge that each individual is competent in their task.

Build a Team

Leaders must develop team spirit that motivates members to work with confidence and enthusiasm. Team spirit works in two ways—the group as a whole gives its members a feeling of accomplishment, security, and recognition; then each team member give their best back to the team. Your group becomes a team only when the members can trust and respect you as their leader and each other as trained, supportive professionals. As a leader, this gives you the confidence to make decisions knowing your group can function as a team.

Employ Your Team in Accordance With Its Capabilities

When you serve as a leader, you constantly have choices regarding the course of action you can take. Your decisions can lead to success or failure, but you need to develop sound decision-making techniques that you can use in any situation. Most times, these decisions will need to be made quickly, so knowing how to “hit the ground running” will benefit you and those you lead. The following two historical studies demonstrate how the actions taken after a decision-making process can lead to vastly different consequences. The first shows how the lack of sufficient knowledge and mistaken perceptions resulted in a tragedy that could have been avoided. The second shows how one leader took what could have been a negative situation, used most of the 11 principles of leadership, and changed it to one of the most positive outcomes of the Civil War.

The Battle of Little Big Horn

In the annals of American history, probably no battle has achieved such a legendary status, or has been so misrepresented as the Battle of Little Big Horn. The basic facts are simple. On June 22, 1876, George Armstrong Custer, Commander of the 7th Cavalry, led 655 Indian fighters into the Black Hills of the Dakotas. Their mission was to seek out and kill or capture the Sioux, Cheyenne, and Arapaho responsible for the Battle of Rosebud Creek five days earlier. For the first time, the Indian tribes had united against the encroachment of American gold seekers and the U.S. Army, and in a fight lasting over six hours, 1500 Native Americans fiercely defended their sacred ground against 1000 U.S. troops. The news of Indian resistance reached Washington, and General William T. Sherman, the Commander in Chief of the U.S. Army, proclaimed “only a severe and persistent chastisement [of the Indians] will bring them to a sense of submission.” Custer and over 220 of his men never returned from the Black Hills. They were slaughtered to a man by a far superior force led by Chiefs Sitting Bull and Crazy Horse.

The disaster of Custer’s Last Stand, as it is also known, resulted from a series of mistakes. At the highest level was a miscalculation of Indian resistance to white settlement of the Black Hills. For the Lakota Sioux, particularly, this territory was consecrated ground where young men experienced manhood rites of passage, and medicine men conferred with ancestral spirits. When gold was discovered in 1874 near the present town of Deadwood, South Dakota, the U.S. government offered the unheard of sum of six million dollars to the Sioux if they would relinquish their claims to the land that had been established by the Laramie Treaty of 1860. The Sioux refused.

At an intermediate level, General Philip Sheridan, who had been charged with dealing with the “Indian problem,” underestimated the capacity of his Native American adversaries to mount a combined effort against the U.S. Army. He understood the Battle of Rosebud Creek to be a fluke. After all, these enemies were only “savages.” Sheridan ordered a three-pronged attack led by Generals Gibbon, Terry, and Crook.

Almost immediately, General Gibbon was attacked by Crazy Horse, and Gibbon retreated to the closest U.S. garrison, Fort Fetterman. General Terry directed Custer, to lead a forward scouting mission to determine the strength of the Indian forces.

On June 25, 1876, Custer discovered a huge Indian encampment, whose numbers were so large, that even with spyglasses, no one could produce an accurate estimate. Today, historians believe there were as many as 15,000 Indians present in the valley of the Little Big Horn. Custer made a fatal mistake for him and for his troops. He chose to ignore the standing orders to wait for the arrival of Terry and Crook, and launched an attack against the camp. Worse, he split his small force into three separate units in order to mount the assault from three different directions. Two of those units, led respectively by Captain Benteen and Major Reno survived the onslaught, though not without casualties. Oddly enough, Custer's battalion was not only outmanned but outgunned. Over 4000 Sioux, Cheyenne, and Arapaho warriors overwhelmed Custer's men with Winchester repeating rifles provided them by the U.S. government for hunting. Custer's troops had obsolete carbines, and Custer had left behind Gatling guns at Fort Fetterman in the interest of rapid movement.

President Ulysses Grant, in the aftermath of the Battle of Little Big Horn, expressed what is probably the most accurate assessment Custer's leadership during the engagement. In an interview with the *New York Herald* Grant stated, "I regard Custer's Massacre was a sacrifice of troops, brought on by Custer himself, that was wholly unnecessary."

The Story of Colonel Chamberlain

When Colonel Joshua Lawrence Chamberlain assumed command of the 20th Maine Regiment, it badly needed replacements. Illness and fighting had drained the combat power of the regiment to a dangerously low level.

One month before the Battle of Gettysburg, however, 120 mutineers (soldiers who had taken part in a mutiny) from the 2nd Maine Regiment were brought to Chamberlain's unit by guards with fixed bayonets. General Meade, the Corps Commander, ordered them to be attached to the 20th Maine Regiment as replacements and ordered Chamberlain to shoot them if they did not do their duty.

Chamberlain decided to find out why they were mutineers. When they enlisted at the outbreak of the war, the 2nd Maine Regiment had been formed to serve for three months. During those three months, the Maine Legislature authorized raising ten regiments to serve for two years; it included the 2nd Maine as one of those ten regiments.

Somehow, a foul-up occurred in the enlistment papers for the soldiers of the 2nd Maine. Two-thirds of the members signed up for two years; the other one-third signed up for three years. After two years passed, the men who enlisted for two years had completed their obligation and departed for home. The other one-third (the 120 mutineers) were ordered to remain on duty. Believing that the order was a gross injustice, they refused to serve, and awaited court martial and possible execution for desertion.

Chamberlain believed that if these stubborn men were willing to face death because of their conviction of being treated unfairly, they would be of infinitely more value

to the Union Army facing the Confederate Army than a firing squad. Chamberlain desperately needed seasoned veterans of strong will, and knew that executing these men was not the correct course of action. He asked for and received permission from General Meade to handle them in his own way.

Chamberlain returned to his unit and met with the angry soldiers, who were still under guard. Upon learning that they had not eaten in three days, he made sure that they were fed. He then broke their group spirit by splitting them up and assigning them to different companies.

He told them that he would treat them as soldiers with all the rights of soldiers. He also assured them that he would look into their case and do what he could to help them. In the meantime, he indicated that he would appreciate it if they would do duty with the 20th Maine Regiment. All but six went along with Chamberlain's suggestion. The six who refused were held for courts-martial.

Chamberlain's actions and honesty turned away the anger of these soldiers and showed how the right word, spoken quietly and firmly at the right time, can persuade subordinates to perform. By treating these rebellious soldiers with fairness and respect, he rekindled their motivation to fight. Without their help, the 20th Maine Regiment would probably have been overwhelmed in their defensive position at Little Round Top, which might have resulted in a Union loss at the Battle of Gettysburg — and even the loss of the war. As you can see by this example, respect builds trust and it is an essential part of being an effective leader.

Contingency Plan

Good leaders recognize the importance of having a **contingency** plan. This is a plan of action you can call up or rely on when your original decision isn't working as you had planned. Contingency plans can be considered "Plan B," and are necessary to keep your leadership flow running smoothly.

A good leader looks ahead and plans for the unexpected. By developing a contingency plan, you and your followers will never be caught off guard.

After Action Review

When your decisions are made, plans implemented, orders carried out, and actions completed, you should always perform an **After Action Review**. This gives you a chance to look over your decisions and see what worked well and what needs improvement. An After Action Review can take place in the form of a meeting with superiors or team members, or you can study your decisions and plans by yourself to determine strengths and weaknesses in your leadership abilities. After Action Reviews should always cast a critical eye on the actions performed, and it should be understood that even negative feedback can be useful and constructive.

Key Note Term

contingency – A plan to cope with events whose occurrence, timing and severity cannot be predicted

Key Note Term

After Action Review – a review of decisions, orders, and actions implemented after the actions are carried out.

Conclusion

Leadership brings with it great responsibility. By applying the 11 principles of leadership, along with logic and reasoning, you can develop sound decision-making techniques that will be respected by your followers as well as your peers. Contingency plans are always necessary to safeguard against the unexpected, and After Action Reviews can tell you what worked, what didn't, and where your strengths and weaknesses lie.

Chapter 8

Lesson Review

Lesson Review

1. What are the 11 principles of leadership?
2. Choose one principle of leadership and discuss it in relation to the decision-making process.
3. What can you learn from an After Action Review? Why is it important?
4. Why is it important to have a contingency plan? What might happen if there wasn't a contingency plan?

CASE STUDY

Chapter 8, Lesson 1: Leadership Choices, Decisions, and Consequences

Exercise: Leadership Case Study to discuss the events and impact of a significant leadership decision.

- **Explanation of issue or problem**
- **Choices available to the leader**
- **Consequences of those decisions**
- **Opinion about the effectiveness of the leader's decision**
- **What might have happened if the leader had made a different decision?**

Is Iraq Another Vietnam?

In April 2004, a rising tide of insurgency prompted Senator Ted Kennedy to venture the comparison “Iraq is George Bush’s Vietnam.” Indeed, the wave of rebellion sweeping across Iraq a year after the conclusion of major combat operations drew many parallels to the 1968 Tet Offensive marking the turning point to the American conflict and its eventual loss in Vietnam. Is Iraq another Vietnam?

The U.S. became embroiled in Vietnam as part of its policy of containing communism during the Cold War. American military personnel began deploying to South Vietnam in 1954 to strengthen the country against communist North Vietnam. In 1960, Ho Chi Minh formed the National Liberation Front to undermine and defeat the government of South Vietnam. Citing a reported North Vietnamese attack against U.S. destroyers in the Gulf of Tonkin, in 1964 Congress authorized President Lyndon Johnson to take “all necessary measures” to win in Vietnam. Drafting all eligible males, the U.S. began a military buildup that placed some 525,000 troops in the region by 1968. Despite mounting casualties against an intractable enemy, Gen. William Westmoreland confidently assured Congress in October 1967 that “We have got our opponents almost on the ropes.” Six weeks later, the Viet Cong shocked the world by launching the Tet Offensive involving simultaneous uprisings by communists living undercover in 39 of the 44 provincial capitals of South Vietnam. U.S. forces succeeded in suppressing the rebellion and restoring order at a cost of 34,000 Viet Cong killed, compared to 2,500 Americans. Technically it was a military victory, but Tet precipitated a crisis of confidence in the Johnson administration prompting the President to not seek re-election. President Richard Nixon rode into office promising “peace with honor” and began the drawdown that eventually lost Vietnam.

The U.S. went to war in Iraq as part of its global war on terrorism. American military personnel deployed to the region in 1990 to defend Saudi Arabia against Iraqi aggression in Kuwait. In 1991, Saddam Hussein was defeated by the combined forces of a U.S. led coalition and made to withdraw from Kuwait. The U.S. maintained a military presence in the region to deter future Iraqi aggression at the hands of Saddam Hussein. Disaffected by his government’s actions, Osama bin Laden, a rich Saudi businessman, formed al Qaeda to dislodge American forces in the Middle

Chapter 8 Case Study

East. Operating from protected bases in Afghanistan, al Qaeda bombed two U.S. embassies in Africa, raided the U.S. destroyer Cole in Yemen, and mounted direct attacks against the U.S. on September 11, 2001. President Bush swiftly mounted Operation ENDURING FREEDOM eliminating the Taliban government and eradicating state sponsored terrorism in Afghanistan. A year later he turned his sights towards Iraq. In October 2002, President Bush made his case to America that Iraq presented an imminent threat: “Iraq could decide on any given day to provide a biological or chemical weapon to a terrorist group or individual terrorists. Alliance with terrorists could allow the Iraqi regime to attack America without leaving any fingerprints.” Despite the absence of indisputable evidence Saddam Hussein possessed weapons of mass destruction, President Bush made his case that “we cannot wait for the final proof—the smoking gun—that could come in the form of a mushroom cloud.” On March 20, 2003, U.S. led forces struck out from Kuwait into Iraq. Twenty-six days later Saddam Hussein’s regime collapsed and American soldiers were sitting in his palaces in Baghdad. One-hundred-and-seventy-two Americans were killed during Phase III of Operation IRAQI FREEDOM. Casualties continued to mount as the U.S. switched to Phase IV Stability Operations. To the chagrin of many, no evidence of weapons of mass destruction ever surfaced. In April 2004, dissident factions in Fallujah staged an uprising killing 40 American soldiers in a week of the bloodiest fighting since President Bush dramatically announced the “end of major combat operations” a year earlier.

Is Iraq another Vietnam? Analysts disagree. They cite obvious evidence to the contrary including:

- **Vietnam started as a guerilla war and then escalated into a conventional war; Iraq, started as a conventional war and now it’s deteriorated into a guerrilla war.**
- **The Vietnam War lasted more than a decade and took 58,000 American lives; the U.S. death toll in Iraq after 13 months was less than 700.**
- **President Johnson said Vietnam was fought to stop the spread of communism in Southeast Asia; President Bush called Iraq part of a war against a network of terrorists who have targeted the U.S.**
- **American forces in Vietnam were subject to forced conscription under the draft; American forces in Iraq are all volunteers.**

Other, evidence seems to support the comparison:

- **President Johnson escalated the war in Vietnam on flimsy proof U.S. destroyers were twice attacked in the Gulf of Tonkin; no weapons of mass destruction have been found in Iraq.**
- **President Johnson suffered a “credibility gap” after Tet soundly disproved the optimistic predictions of Gen. William Westmoreland; Vice President Dick Cheney was harshly criticized following the uprisings in Fallujah for predicting U.S. forces would be greeted as “liberators.”**

All analysts agree, however, that it’s too early to tell how events will unfold in Iraq, yet the comparison is worth examining. According to Susan Page of USA Today, “The comparison has power because, 30 years after it ended, the war in Vietnam continues to stand as a symbol of foreign policy gone awry.”

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1. Explanation of issue or problem.

Will the war in Iraq go the same way as the Vietnam War?

Contrary Evidence:

Vietnam started as a guerilla war and then escalated into a conventional war; Iraq, started as a conventional war and now it’s deteriorated into a guerrilla war.

The Vietnam War lasted more than a decade and took 58,000 American lives; the U.S. death toll in Iraq after 13 months was less than 700.

President Johnson said Vietnam was fought to stop the spread of communism in Southeast Asia; President Bush called Iraq part of a war against a network of terrorists who have targeted the U.S.

American forces in Vietnam were subject to forced conscription under the draft; American forces in Iraq are all volunteers.

Supporting Evidence:

President Johnson escalated the war in Vietnam on flimsy proof U.S. destroyers were twice attacked in the Gulf of Tonkin; no weapons of mass destruction have been found in Iraq.

President Johnson suffered a “credibility gap” after Tet soundly disproved the optimistic predictions of Gen. William Westmoreland; Vice President Dick Cheney was harshly criticized following the uprisings in Fallujah for predicting U.S. forces would be greeted as “liberators”.

2. Choices available to the leader.

- A. Iraq: Delay military action, continue economic and political efforts to isolate and dismantle the threat posed by Saddam Hussein.
- B. Vietnam: Avoid military involvement in Vietnam.

3. Consequences of those decisions.

- A. “Iraq could decide on any given day to provide a biological or chemical weapon to a terrorist group or individual terrorists. Alliance with terrorists could allow the Iraqi regime to attack America without leaving any fingerprints . . . we cannot wait for the final proof—the smoking gun—that could come in the form of a mushroom cloud.”
- B. To justify support for South Vietnam, President Dwight Eisenhower and Vice President Richard Nixon put forward the “Domino Theory.” It was argued that if the first domino is knocked over then the rest will topple in turn. Applying this to Southeast Asia, President Eisenhower argued that if South Vietnam was taken by communists, then the other countries in the region such as Laos, Cambodia, Thailand, Burma, Malaysia, and Indonesia would follow.

4. Opinion about the effectiveness of the leader’s decision.**5. What might have happened if the leader had made a different decision?**

Lesson 2

Ethical Choices, Decisions, and Consequences



Key Terms

ethical dilemma

What You Will Learn to Do

- Illustrate how ethical choices and decisions can lead to good or bad consequences

Linked Core Abilities

- Communicate using verbal, non-verbal, visual, and written techniques
- Apply critical thinking techniques

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain Along the Way

- Differentiate between ethical and unethical behavior
- Examine ethics codes
- Explore how circumstances impact an ethical dilemma
- Discuss the consequences of ethical and unethical decisions
- Define key words contained in this lesson

Chapter 8

Introduction

As a leader, you are responsible for making decisions that affect others within and outside your organization. You need to consider the consequences before deciding on a course of action. As you learned in an earlier lesson, leaders have three ethical responsibilities: to be a good role model; to develop followers in an ethical manner; and to lead in such a way to avoid ethical dilemmas. In this lesson you examine ethical dilemmas. You form opinions about the decisions and consequences associated with ethical dilemmas.

Ethical, Moral, Unethical, Immoral

In ordinary language, we frequently use the words *ethical* and *moral* and *unethical* and *immoral* interchangeably; that is, we speak of the ethical or moral person or act. On the other hand, we speak of codes of ethics, but only infrequently do we mention codes of morality. Some reserve the terms moral and immoral only for the realm of sexuality and use the words *ethical* and *unethical* when discussing how the business and professional communities should behave toward their members or toward the public. More commonly, however, we use none of these words as often as we use the terms *good*, *bad*, *right*, and *wrong*. What do all of these words mean, and what are the relationships among them?

Ethics comes from the Greek *ethos*, meaning character. *Morality* comes from the Latin *moralis*, meaning customs or manners. Ethics, then, seems to pertain to the individual character of a person or persons, whereas morality seems to point to the relationships between human beings. Nevertheless, in ordinary language, whether we call a person ethical or moral, or an act unethical or immoral, doesn't really make any difference. In philosophy, however, the term *ethics* also is used to refer to a specific area of study: the area of morality, concentrates on human conduct and human values.

When we speak of people as being moral or ethical, we usually mean that they are good people, and when we speak of them as being immoral or unethical, we mean that they are bad people. When we refer to certain human actions as being moral, ethical, immoral, and unethical, we mean that they are right or wrong. The simplicity of these definitions, however, ends here, for how do we define a right or wrong action or a good or bad person? What are the human standards by which such decisions can be made? These are the more difficult questions that make up the greater part of the study of morality, and they will be discussed in more detail in later chapters. The important thing to remember here is that *moral*, *ethical*, *immoral*, and *unethical*, essentially mean *good*, *right*, *bad*, and *wrong*, often depending upon whether one is referring to people themselves or to their actions.

Characteristics of Good, Bad, Right, Wrong, Happiness, or Pleasure. It seems to be an empirical fact that whatever human beings consider to be good involves happiness and pleasure in some way, and whatever they consider to be bad involves unhappiness and pain in some way. This view of what is good has traditionally been

called “hedonism.” As long as the widest range of interpretation is given to these words (from simple sensual pleasures to intellectual or spiritual pleasures and from sensual pain to deep emotional unhappiness), then it is difficult to deny that whatever is good involves at least some pleasure or happiness, and whatever is bad involves some pain or unhappiness.

One element involved in the achievement of happiness is the necessity of taking the long-rather than the short-range view. People may undergo some pain or unhappiness in order to attain some pleasure or happiness in the long run. For example, we will put up with the pain of having our teeth drilled in order to keep our teeth and gums healthy so that we may enjoy eating and the general good health that results from having teeth that are well maintained. Similarly, people may do very difficult and even painful work for two days in order to earn money that will bring them pleasure and happiness for a week or two.

Furthermore, the term *good* should be defined in the context of human experience and human relationships rather than in an abstract sense only. For example, knowledge and power in themselves are not good unless a human being derives some satisfaction from them or unless they contribute in some way to moral and meaningful human relationships. They are otherwise nonmoral.

What about actions that will bring someone some good but will cause pain to another, such as those of a sadist who gains pleasure from violently mistreating another human being? Our original statement was that everything that is good will bring some person satisfaction, pleasure, or happiness of some kind, but this statement does not necessarily work in the reverse—that everything that brings someone satisfaction is necessarily good. There certainly are “malicious pleasures.”

Excellence. William Frankena states that whatever is good will also probably involve “some kind or degree of excellence.” He goes on to say that “what is bad in itself is so because of the presence of either pain or unhappiness or of some kind of defect or lack of excellence.” Excellence is an important addition to pleasure or satisfaction in that it makes “experiences or activities better or worse than they would otherwise be.” For example, the enjoyment or satisfaction gained from hearing a concert, seeing a fine movie, or reading a good book is due, to a great extent, to the excellence of the creators and presenters of these events (composers, performers, directors, actors, writers). Another and perhaps more profound example of the importance of excellence is that if one gains satisfaction or pleasure from witnessing a well-conducted court case and from seeing and hearing the judge and the lawyers perform their duties well, that satisfaction will be deepened if the judge and the lawyers are also excellent people; that is, if they are kind, fair, and compassionate human beings in addition to being clever and able.

Whatever is good, then, will probably contain some pleasure, happiness, and excellence, whereas whatever is bad will probably contain their opposites: pain, unhappiness, and lack of excellence. I am only stating that there will probably be *some* of these elements present. For example, a good person performing a right action might not be particularly happy and might even find what he or she is doing painful; nonetheless, the recipients of the right action might be made happy by it and the right action also might involve excellence.

Harmony and Creativity. There are two other attributes of “good” and “right” that may add to our definition; they are harmony and creativity on the “good” side and discord, or disharmony, and lack of creativity on the “bad” side. If an action is creative or can aid human beings in becoming creative and, at the same time, help to bring about a harmonious integration of as many human beings as possible, then we can say it is a right action. If an action has the opposite effect, then we can say that it is a wrong action.

For example, if a person or a group of people can end a war between two nations and create an honorable and lasting peace, then a right or good action has been performed. It can allow members of both nations to be creative rather than destructive and can create harmony between both sides and within each nation. On the other hand, causing or starting a war between two nations will have just the opposite effect. Lester A. Kirkendall stresses these points and also adds to what I stated earlier about the necessity of placing the emphasis on what is good or excellent in human experience and relationships:

Whenever a decision or a choice is to be made concerning behavior, the moral decision will be the one which works toward the creation of trust, confidence, and integrity in relationships. It should increase the capacity of individuals to cooperate, and enhance the sense of self-respect in the individual. Acts which create distrust, suspicion, and misunderstanding, which build barriers and destroy integrity are immoral. They decrease the individual's sense of self-respect and rather than producing a capacity to work together they separate people and break down the capacity for communication.

Two other terms that we should define are amoral and nonmoral.

Amoral

Amoral means having no moral sense, or being indifferent to right and wrong. This term can be applied to very few people. Certain people who have had prefrontal lobotomies tend to act amorally after the operation; that is, they have no sense of right and wrong. And there are a few human beings who, despite moral education, have remained or become amoral. These tend to be found among certain criminal types who can't seem to realize they've done anything wrong. They tend not to have any remorse, regret, or concern for what they have done.

One such example of an amoral person is Gregory Powell, who, with Jimmy Lee Smith, gratuitously killed a policeman in an onion field south of Bakersfield, California. A good description of him and his attitude can be found in Joseph Wambaugh's *The Onion Field*. Another such example is Colin Pitchfork, another real-life character. Pitchfork raped and killed two young girls in England and was described by Wambaugh in *The Blooding*. In that book Wambaugh also quotes from various psychologists speaking about the amoral, psychopathological, sociopathological, personality, which is defined as “a person characterized by emotional instability, lack of sound judgment, perverse and impulsive (often criminal) behavior inability to learn from experience, amoral and asocial feelings, and other serious personality defects.” He describes “the most important feature of the psychopath . . . as his monumental irresponsibility. He knows what the ethical rules are, at least he can repeat them par-

rotlike, but they are void of meaning to him.” He quotes further: “No sense of conscience, guilt, or remorse is present. Harmful acts are committed without discomfort or shame.” Amoral, then, is basically an attitude that some—luckily only a few—human beings possess.

All of this doesn’t mean that amoral criminals should not be morally blamed and punished for their wrongdoings. In fact, such people are even more dangerous to society than those who can distinguish right from wrong because usually they are morally uneducable. Society, therefore, needs even more protection from such criminals.

Nonmoral

The word nonmoral means out of the realm of morality altogether. For example, inanimate objects such as cars and guns are neither Moral nor immoral. A person using the car or gun may use it immorally, but the things themselves are nonmoral. Many areas of study (for instance, mathematics, astronomy, and physics) are in themselves nonmoral, but because human beings are involved in these areas, morality also may be involved. A mathematics problem is neither moral nor immoral in itself, however, if it provides the means by which a hydrogen bomb can be exploded, then moral issues certainly will be forthcoming.

In summary, then, the immoral person knowingly violates human moral standards by doing something wrong or by being bad. The amoral person may also violate moral standards because he or she has no moral sense. Something that is nonmoral can neither be good nor bad nor do anything right or wrong simply because it does not fall within the scope of morality.

Codes of Conduct

As a guideline for ethical and moral behavior, many organizations offer a code of conduct. Similar to an organization’s mission statement, this code outlines how employees, volunteers, and so on are expected to conduct themselves. The following is part of the Code of the U.S. Fighting Force, and clearly explains the obligation and actions of Army soldiers as well as defines the responsibilities the Army has towards its fighting forces.

- A. As a member of the armed forces of the United States, you are protecting your nation. It is your duty to oppose all enemies of the United States in combat or, if a captive, in a prisoner of war compound. Your behavior is guided by the Code of Conduct, which has evolved from the heroic lives, experiences and deeds of Americans from the Revolutionary War to the Southeast Asian Conflict.**
- B. Your obligations as a U.S. citizen and a member of the armed forces result from the traditional values that underlie the American experience as a nation. These values are best expressed in the U.S. Constitution and Bill of Rights, which you have sworn to uphold and defend. You would have these obligations — to your country, your service and unit and your fellow Americans — even if the Code of Conduct had never been formulated as a high standard of general behavior.**

- C. Just as you have a responsibility to your country under the Code of Conduct, the United States government has an equal responsibility — always to keep faith with you and stand by you as you fight for your country. If you are unfortunate enough to become a prisoner of war, you may rest assured that your government will care for your dependents and will never forget you. Furthermore, the government will use every practical means to contact, support and gain release for you and for all other prisoners of war.
- D. To live up to the code, you must know not only its words but the ideas and principles behind those words.

Later in the Code, it states how a soldier is to behave if captured by the enemy.

- A. I will never surrender of my own free will. If in command, I will never surrender the members of my command while they still have the means to resist.
- B. As an individual, a member of the armed forces may never voluntarily surrender. When isolated and no longer able to inflict casualties on the enemy, the American soldier has an obligation to evade capture and rejoin friendly forces.
- C. Only when evasion by an individual is impossible and further fighting would lead only to death with no significant loss to the enemy should one consider surrender. With all reasonable means of resistance exhausted and with certain death the only alternative, capture does not imply dishonor.
- D. The responsibility and authority of a commander never extends to the surrender of a command to the enemy while the command has the power to fight and evade. When isolated, cut off or surrounded, a unit must continue to fight until relieved or able to rejoin friendly forces through continued efforts to break out or evade the enemy.

Ethical Dilemmas

Key Note Term

ethical dilemma – a situation where you must weigh the consequences of your actions before making a decision or taking action.

Have you ever been faced with a situation where you have two choices? One choice is morally right but would result in bad consequences; the other choice is morally wrong but would lead to good consequences. If doing what is right produces something bad, or if doing what is wrong produces something good, the force of moral and ethical obligation may seem balanced by the reality of the good end. You can have the satisfaction of being right, regardless of the damage done; or you can aim for what seems to be the best outcome, regardless of what wrongs must be committed. This is called an **ethical dilemma**. And in these situations, many times what you actually do is quite different from what you should do.

Take, for example, this situation:

You run an orphanage and have had a hard time making ends meet. A car dealership offers you a new van worth \$15,000 for free if you will falsely report to the government that the dealership donated a van worth \$30,000. You really need the van and it will give you an opportunity to make the children happy. Do you agree to take the van?

Of course, you know that taking the van under the condition of lying on a tax form is not only illegal, but unethical as well. But the van would help so very much to get the children to school, to medical appointments, and so on. At the same time, if the

Internal Revenue Service found out, you could face losing your orphanage. The ethical decision to make here is to not take the van under these circumstances. Aside from the legal issues, the negative potential consequences to taking the van far outweigh the positive potential consequences.

Or how about this: You are shopping and notice a woman stuffing a pair of socks into her purse. Do you report her? You've always been told it's not right to "tattle" on someone when they do something wrong, and you might think that she's not really hurting anyone by stealing these socks. You know, however, that stealing is wrong. Should you confront her about her actions? Would you tell a sales clerk? Would you ignore the situation? In this case, what would you do? What is your responsibility?

Sometimes personal circumstances can influence or impact the way you resolve an ethical dilemma. For example, it would be much easier to make an ethical decision about the woman stuffing socks in her purse if you didn't know the woman. But change the situation and imagine the woman is someone you know, maybe a classmate. How would that change your behavior and your decision to act?

More for you to consider

A 31-year-old twice-convicted robber became the first California state prisoner (and likely the first in the U.S.) to receive a heart transplant. He suffered from a viral infection that had damaged his heart valves. Should 1 million dollars of taxpayer money be spent on a convict who was imprisoned for a violent felony?

As another example, scientists would argue that without the ability to use animals for experimentation, humans would have to be used and sometimes harmed or killed in the search for medical cures. These scientists would also argue that animals have much less value than human beings, so it is morally correct to use them for experimentation. Animal rights activists would counter by saying that animals are thinking, feeling beings that suffer pain to the same degree as humans, and that it is immoral to put an animal through suffering just so humans can make medical and scientific progress. What do you think?

Questions to Ask Yourself

When trying to resolve an ethical dilemma, it helps to ask specific questions. These questions include:

- **Am I being fair and honest?**
- **Would I like to be treated this way?**
- **Will my decision stand the test of time?**
- **How will I feel about myself afterwards?**
- **How would it look if reported in the newspaper?**

- **Will I sleep soundly tonight?**
- **How would I feel if my family, friends, and neighbors knew what I was doing?**

Your answers to these questions will guide you towards making good, ethical decisions.

Ethical Decision Making

One criterion of a satisfactory decision is that the decision and subsequent action be *ethical*. Ethical decisions promote well-being and do not cause harm to members of an organization or to other people affected by an organization's activities. Although it is easy to describe what an ethical decision is, sometimes it is difficult to determine the boundary between ethical and unethical decisions in an organization. Is it ethical, for example, for a pharmaceutical company to decide to charge a high price for a lifesaving drug, thus making it unaffordable to some people?

On the one hand, it can be argued that the drug is costly to produce and the company needs the revenues to continue producing the drug as well as to research ways to improve its effectiveness. On the other hand, it can be argued that the company has a moral or ethical obligation to make the drug available to as many people as possible. In 2004, for example, Sheering Plough raised the price of its best-selling AIDS prevention drug by 500 percent, causing an uproar among doctors and patients who claimed that this would lead to great hardship for patients, many of whom would no longer be able to afford it. Sheering Plough simply said that it had been charging too low a price for its valuable drug and that it had the right to increase its price.

Some people deliberately make unethical decisions to benefit themselves or their organizations, but even decision makers who strive to be ethical are sometimes faced with difficult choices or ethical dilemmas. Under these circumstances, making acceptable decisions that are ethical can be difficult. One example of blatantly unethical decision making by pharmaceutical companies occurred in 1999 when six of them admitted they had conspired to artificially raise the price of vitamins, such as vitamins A, B2, C, E, and beta carotene. Swiss giant Hoffman-La Roche agreed to pay \$500 million in criminal fines, and German Company BASF paid a \$225 million fine; the others were also fined large amounts. How could this happen?

Senior managers from each of these companies' vitamin divisions jointly made the decision to inflate their division's profits and to act unethically at the expense of consumers. In several meetings around the world, they worked out the details of the plot, which went undiscovered for several years. Many of the top managers involved have been prosecuted in their home countries, and all have been fired. BASF, for example, completely replaced its worldwide management team. What has been the end result of this fiasco for these companies? All have agreed to create a special "ethics officer" position within their organizations. The ethics officer is responsible for developing new ethical standards with regard to how decisions are made. The ethics officer is also responsible for listening to employees' complaints about unethical behavior, training employees to make ethical decisions, and counseling top managers to prevent further wrongdoing.

Making the Decision

When making a decision regarding an ethical dilemma, it's best to have set criteria from which to work. Answering the following questions might be helpful when confronted by an ethical dilemma.

- **What options do you see are available to resolve this dilemma?**
- **Which options are the most compelling? Why?**
- **How would you resolve the dilemma?**
- **What values did you rely on to make your decision?**
- **What consequences (if any) do you see your decision has on the others involved?**
- **Could you personally live with this decision? If not, examine other options to your dilemma.**

What Are Your Options?

In any situation, there are a variety of options available to you. Some of these are good and reasonable; others can produce short- and long-term negative effects. Going back to the example of the woman and the socks, your options include:

- **Turning away and forgetting that you saw anything**
- **Telling a cashier**
- **Confronting the woman yourself**

Out of these three options, which are the most compelling?

Which Options Are Most Compelling?

You've determined your available options. Now it's time to figure out which ones would work best in this specific situation. Doing nothing is one option. You can figure that it's none of your business, and even though you know stealing is wrong, this pair of stolen socks really doesn't concern you. But then you remember that the store might have to raise its prices on various items to cover the cost of shoplifted merchandise, so this does directly affect you. You might decide that doing nothing is not a compelling option.

Telling a cashier is another option. You've been told your entire life that "tattling" is wrong, but you feel that the cashier would probably know how to handle this situation. She most likely would call a security person who is trained in dealing with circumstances like this, would probably speak to the woman and get the socks back from her, or have her pay for the items. This seems like a compelling option.

Your third option is to confront the woman yourself. But what if the woman told you that she was going to pay for the socks before she left the store, and that this is none of your business? What would you do then? Or what if she yelled at you, or shoved you? This doesn't seem like a good option.

How Would You Like to Resolve the Dilemma?

When making ethical decisions, you need to look down the road and imagine how you'd like the situation resolved. In most cases, you don't want to see anyone hurt. You don't want to damage friendships and other relationships. You just want to do the right things for the right reasons. In this case, you feel that doing nothing will not resolve the problem to the best end. And confronting the woman isn't an option. All you want is for the woman to pay for the socks or return them to the store.

What Values Did You Rely On?

Values are taught to us at a very early age. Some values you have learned from your family, such as The Golden Rule ("do unto others as you'd have them do unto you"). Some you have learned from your church, such as The Ten Commandments. Others you have learned from your friends and the situations you've lived through, such as to have a friend you need to be a friend. One of your values is that stealing is wrong, but hurting an individual is also wrong. So you decide that telling a cashier is the best course of action.

What Are the Consequences to Your Actions?

You tell the cashier and a security person arrives to speak with you. You point out the woman with the socks, and the security person talks with her. She is embarrassed, but as the customer and security person talk, she realizes that she needs to pay for the merchandise, or be arrested for shoplifting. She pays for the socks and vows to never try shoplifting again.

Can You Live with Your Decision?

In this case, the decision you made and the course of action you took is very easy to live with. The store didn't lose money on the merchandise; the woman learned a lesson and has decided to never shoplift again; and you know you did the right thing.

Not all ethical decisions are that easy, however. Sometimes your personal values are different from others. Sometimes you need to understand where your values come from, and be open to change or adjust your thinking in different situations. And sometimes doing the right and ethical thing can be hard, especially when the consequences of your action are different from how you'd like to see a situation resolved.

Setting the Example

When making an ethical decision and taking action on it, sometimes things just don't turn out as well as you might have liked. As discussed in the previous lesson, leaders must know themselves through self-evaluation and stand on their convictions. They must take responsibility for their actions and set an example for their team. One way to avoid dealing with ethical dilemmas within your unit is to lead by example and develop followers in an ethical manner. Set high standards, be loyal, be

morally and ethically courageous, establish principles and stand by them, and develop convictions within your followers that you are the best role model for them.

Being the best role model you can possibly be is crucial to avoiding ethical problems, dilemmas, and situations within your team. Your followers will follow your example, so if you expect honor, integrity, courage, loyalty, respect, and ethical behavior from your team members, you must demonstrate these traits yourself. Your personal example affects people more than any amount of instruction or form of discipline. This might seem like a heavy responsibility, but remember that no aspect of leadership is more powerful than the example you set.

Conclusion

Ethical dilemmas can occur in any setting, whether it's a personal or professional arena. But one of the best ways to avoid ethical dilemmas within your leadership role is to set the example for those whom you lead. Your followers will imitate you and your actions, so by being the best, showing sound and fair decision-making skills, and treating your followers with respect and dignity, you instill ethical behavior in them.

When faced with an ethical dilemma, ask yourself what options are available to you, how you would like to see the situation resolved to everyone's benefit, and whether your decision is something you can live with.

Lesson Review

1. Define the term "ethical dilemma."
2. Refer back to the scenario of the woman stealing the socks in the store. Which option would you choose? Why?
3. Have you ever been faced with an ethical dilemma? How did you solve it?
4. You discover Bill Gates' wallet lying on the street. It contains \$10,000.00 in cash. Do you send it back to him?

Chapter 8
Case Study**CASE STUDY****Chapter 8, Lesson 2: Ethical Choices, Decisions, and Consequences**

Exercise: Ethical Case Study—Participate in a discussion about the **ethical choices and consequences** of an assigned case study. Develop a multi-flow map to illustrate the **motives and consequences** of the decisions that were made. Discuss how the consequences had a **positive or negative impact**.

Ethical dilemma—a situation where you must weigh the consequences of your actions before making a decision or taking action.

The Decision to Drop the Atomic Bomb in World War II

World War II erupted in Europe when Hitler invaded Poland, September 1, 1939. Concerned that Nazi Germany might develop an atomic weapon of unimaginable destruction, Albert Einstein wrote to President Roosevelt, warning him of the danger. Sufficiently alarmed, the United States embarked on a top secret project, code named “Manhattan,” to develop an atomic bomb. At \$2,000,000,000, the Manhattan Project was the riskiest and most expensive program ever undertaken by the U.S. Government up to that time.

The United States was drawn into World War II after Japanese forces attacked the Pacific Fleet at Pearl Harbor Hawaii, December 7, 1941. American forces were immediately rushed to the European and Pacific theaters to fight the combined Axis Powers of Germany and Japan. Believing Hitler was the bigger threat, the Allies, led by the United States, Great Britain, and Soviet Union, agreed on a “Europe First” policy, focusing their attention against the Nazis. Germany was defeated May 5, 1945, before either side could build an atomic bomb. A top secret report concluded that neither Germany nor Japan was capable of producing an atomic bomb, yet the Manhattan Project continued working to build one.

On July 16, 1945, American scientists successfully detonated the first atomic device at Trinity Site near their secluded laboratories in Los Alamos, New Mexico. The United States was still at war with Japan. Harry S. Truman was President of the United States, having succeeded Roosevelt who died in office April 16, 1945. While war raged in Europe, American and British forces slugged their way across the Pacific in their drive towards Tokyo. The Soviet Union had not participated in the Pacific campaign, choosing to remain neutral with Japan while fighting for survival against Germany. Truman was in Potsdam meeting with Churchill, trying to enlist the aide of Stalin, when he learned of the atomic test at Trinity. Truman was troubled by the mounting casualties in the Pacific as Allied forces drew nearer the Japanese home islands. Driven by the Bushido warrior code, the Japanese were prepared to resist to the last, and more willing to die than surrender. Over 207,000 Japanese gave their lives while exacting a huge toll on American forces invading Okinawa. The Joint Chiefs told Truman to expect over 1,000,000 American casualties and even larger number of Japanese dead in the pending attack on the home islands. Truman appointed a committee to evaluate using the atomic bomb. The committee examined many options, includ-

ing a demonstration in Tokyo Bay, but Los Alamos was uncertain the device would detonate. Rather than lose a valuable war asset, and to emphasize its destructive power, the committee recommended dropping the atomic bomb on a city. By August 1945, the United States had two nuclear bombs in its arsenal.

On August 6, 1945, the Enola Gay dropped the first atomic bomb on Hiroshima. Over 140,000 Japanese were killed in the blast, and an uncounted number died from the lingering effects of radiation. On August 9, 1945, a second atomic bomb was dropped on the city of Nagasaki. The next day, August 10, 1945, Japan indicated its willingness to surrender.

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<i>Ethical Choices</i>	<i>Consequences</i>	<i>Impact</i>
Should the U.S. have continued producing the atomic bomb after it knew Germany and Japan couldn't?	The U.S. has already invested \$2,000,000,000 into the program, and the project was in full production.	Could it have delayed the onset of the Cold War and a nuclear arms race with the Soviet Union?
Should the U.S. have invaded the home islands of Japan?	Estimated 1,000,000 Americans and many more Japanese killed.	Does the President have an obligation to reduce American casualties at the expense of the enemy?
Should the destructive power of the atomic bomb have been demonstrate in Tokyo Bay?	Los Alamos scientists uncertain if device would work.	The U.S. could lose a valuable war asset.
Should the U.S. drop atomic bombs on inhabited cities?	Over 210,000 Japanese killed from the blast; untold number killed or maimed from lingering effects of radiation.	The U.S. is the only country in history to use nuclear weapons in war.
Why are nuclear weapons considered so frightening?	Overwhelming destructive power and lingering radiation effects.	Nuclear weapons have the potential to destroy human civilization.

Lesson 3

Global Citizenship Choices, Decisions, and Consequences



Key Terms

aggression
deterrence
diplomacy
foreign policy
intelligence
terrorism
sanctions
standard of living
summit meeting
nationalism

What You Will Learn to Do

- Predict how American choices and decisions can affect those in other countries differently from the way in which they affect Americans

Linked Core Objectives

- Apply critical thinking techniques

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain Along the Way

- Compare characteristics of developed and developing nations
- Summarize the main goals of American Foreign Policy
- Discuss ways that nations can cooperate to solve global problems
- Examine ways that American political, military, and humanitarian choices affect other nations
- Define key words contained in this lesson

Chapter 8

Introduction

Have you ever considered how your actions affect people outside of your community? Your actions often have an impact on your family, friends, and neighborhood. The actions and choices made by you and other Americans can also impact people outside your neighborhood and even outside the country. In this lesson you examine the ways that American choices can impact other nations, and the importance of being a global citizen.

Global Citizenship

A global citizen can be defined as a person who feels a need to tackle injustice and inequality on worldwide scale, and who possesses a desire and ability to work actively to do so. Global citizenship requires seeing the Earth's inhabitants as precious and unique, and safeguarding the future for those generations coming after us no matter their origin. It is a way of thinking and behaving, an outlook on life, and a belief that you can make a difference beyond the confines of your particular community or nation.

A global citizen can be described as someone who:

- **is an individual with rights and responsibilities**
- **bases actions on his/her developing beliefs and values**
- **is aware of the world and has a sense of their own role in it**
- **respects and values diversity**
- **has an understanding of how the world works economically, politically, socially, culturally, technologically, and environmentally**
- **is outraged by social injustice**
- **participates in and contributes to the community at a range of levels from local to global**
- **is willing to act to make the world a more sustainable place**
- **is in relationship with others within interdependent local, national, and global communities**
- **takes responsibility for their actions**

It takes hard work to become a global citizen. You need to have a knowledge and understanding of beliefs and teachings, practices, processes, and lifestyles at local, national, and global levels. You also need to have a basic understanding of economic and political institutions, as well as values in countries other than the United States. Everyone has the potential to be a global citizen, and in a world of increasing interdependence, it is a necessity for those who wish to lead. For those willing to take up the challenge, all you need is courage and commitment.

U.S. Decisions, Global Impact

Being a global citizen requires you to examine how actions in your community affect those in other communities. In this case, imagine that the United States is your “community.” You need to recognize that what U.S. decision makers do can have widely rippling effects throughout the world. To begin with, an understanding of American foreign policy is necessary.

American Foreign Policy

The United States is one nation among many in the world. One of the main duties of any government is making a plan for relating to other nations. A government’s **foreign policy** is a plan that outlines the goals it hopes to meet in its relations with other countries. Foreign policy also sets forth the ways these goals are to be met.

Goals of Foreign Policy

What do Americans hope for in relations with other countries? To think about that question, you might ask yourself what we, as individual Americans, want in our relations with the people around us.

First of all, we want to be respected. We want others to treat us as equals. We would like to live in a safe place, free from the fear of harm. As adults, we would like to be able to earn a living.

These goals are like the goals we have as a nation. In general, the foreign policy goals of the United States are to protect citizens’ safety, to promote prosperity, and to work for peace and democracy in other countries.

- **National Security:** Government leaders naturally try to protect the interests of their country. Acting in the national interest involves making sure the nation is safe. National security, or the ability to keep the nation safe from attack or harm, is the chief goal of American foreign policy. Because war is the greatest danger to any nation, national security mainly focuses on the threat of war.
- **World Peace:** A second goal of American foreign policy is to get countries to work together as a way to keep out of war. In today’s world, wars anywhere can be a threat to people everywhere. People fear that other countries may be drawn into the fighting. They fear that nuclear weapons may be used and the world destroyed.
- **Trade:** Increasing trade is a third goal of United States foreign policy. Trade is good for the United States economy. Trade creates markets for American goods and services, earning profits for our businesses. It also brings us goods from other countries.

Trade also brings greater interdependence and therefore cooperation. Maintaining good trading relations helps the United States meet its goals of national security and world peace. The profit and products nations gain from trade give them a good reason to avoid war with their trading partners.
- **Human Rights and Democracy:** Another goal of American foreign policy is to encourage all countries to respect the human rights of freedom, justice, and equality. Americans believe that democracy, in which citizens have the final say in their government,

Key Note Term

foreign policy – of or involving the relations of one country with another.

is the best way to protect human rights. Thus, they want to help people in other countries who are trying to form or keep democratic governments.

History shows that countries in which human rights are denied can be a threat to world peace. When citizens do not have the right to take part in their own government, revolutions and civil wars are likely to break out, and other countries are likely to be drawn in. Therefore, encouraging human rights and democracy is also a way to meet our foreign policy goals of peace and security.

Tools of Foreign Policy

How does a country go about meeting its foreign policy goals? The United States uses several tools, such as defense, alliances, diplomacy, trade measures, and intelligence, in its relations with other nations.

Defense

Defense is an important tool of American foreign policy. It helps the government maintain national security. American armed forces, with modern weapons, aircraft, and ships, are the means by which we defend ourselves against **aggression**.

A key part of United States foreign policy has been **deterrence**. In the arms race between the United States and the Soviet Union, both sides claimed that they were building weapons as deterrence against aggression.

Sometimes it is not clear whether a nation is using its armed forces for defense or aggression. When the Soviets sent their army into Afghanistan in 1979, they said they were just helping the Afghan government defend against anti-communist forces. The United States accused the Soviets of aggression—of using its military power to take over an independent nation.

In 1989, when American forces overthrew Panama's dictator, Manuel Noriega, Latin American leaders accused the United States of aggression. President Bush said the invasion's purpose was to protect American interests, especially the Panama Canal, and to help Panama get rid of a corrupt leader.

Alliances

The United States also meets its foreign policy goals by forming military, political, or economic alliances with other countries. North Atlantic Treaty Organization members (NATO), a military alliance created to protect Western Europe from Soviet aggression, pooled military forces into one army in order to better defend themselves if attacked.

An example of a political alliance is the Organization of American States (OAS), made up of countries in North, Central, and South America. The OAS helps its members work together peacefully, trying to settle disputes before they become violent. The OAS also reports on human rights in its member countries and helps to keep elections fair and honest.

The United States is a member of several economic alliances. One is the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). The 27 members of the OECD, mostly Western European countries, agree to help each other's economic well-being through trade. They also work together in giving aid to developing nations.

Key Note Term

aggression – an attack or threat of attack by another country.

deterrence – keeping a strong defense to discourage aggression by other nations.

Foreign Aid

Another tool used to meet foreign policy goals is foreign aid. After World War II the United States gave aid to European countries to help them rebuild factories, farms, cities, and homes destroyed in the war. Since the end of World War II, the United States has given or loaned almost \$500 billion in foreign aid to over 100 countries.

Foreign aid can support American policy goals by strengthening governments and political groups that are friendly to the United States. In some cases this military aid has helped countries that are trying to put down rebellions within their borders. Sometimes the United States has sent weapons to rebels who are struggling against governments considered unfriendly to American interests.

Economic aid takes many forms. The United States might help pay for a hospital, or a dam to control floods or produce electricity. Aid might be loans or grants to help a country start a new industry.

Key Note Term

foreign aid – a program of giving military and economic help to other countries

Developed or Developing Nations

There is a striking difference between nations that are considered *developed*, and those that are considered *developing*. These differences must be taken into account when applying the tools of foreign policy to these nations. A developed nation can be defined as one that is capable of world focus. A developing nation, on the other hand, has its focus on internal matters. Too, a developed nation does not base its wealth solely on natural resources, such as diamonds, oil, or raw materials, but rather on a post-industrial economy. Developed nations generally operate under a stable form of republic government; developing nations generally suffer under a dictatorship with tribal warfare being considered common. In general, the **standard of living** is better in developed nations rather than in developing. Developed nations include England, France, Germany, Japan, and Australia. Developing nations include many of the countries in Africa, South America, and some in the middle east.

Key Note Term

standard of living – social conditions established by authority as a fixed rule, measure, or model.

Sending experts and teachers to work in developing countries is also a form of aid. The United States also sends aid in a crisis such as a flood or earthquake. Aid helps nations' economies to grow and is seen as a way to reduce the chance of revolution and war.

Foreign aid has caused bitter debates in Congress and the nation. Americans disagree over how much and what kind of aid to give. Some say that giving help to other countries is our duty as a rich and powerful country. They say that if we do not give aid, poorer nations will turn to other governments—governments that are not necessarily friendly to the United States—for help. Another argument for economic aid is that it helps the United States. Countries that receive our aid can then buy American products.

Those who oppose aid do so for two main reasons. Some say that we should solve problems at home first and not send so much money out of the country.

Other critics say that the kind of aid we give does more harm than good. They charge that our military aid has sometimes helped governments that violate human rights. Just because a group is friendly to the United States, they say, is not a good reason to give it money and weapons. Critics also believe that some kinds of economic aid give the United States too much control over how other countries develop.

Trade Measures

Another tool of foreign policy is trade measures, or the terms under which the United States trades with other countries. One trade measure is a quota, which states how much of a foreign product can be sold in the United States. Another measure is a tariff, a tax on foreign products sold in the United States. Trade measures also include limits on what products United States firms can sell abroad, such as weapons, or whether untested foreign products, such as drugs, can be brought into the United States.

In recent years a foreign policy tool has been **sanctions**. In 1998, for example, India and Pakistan conducted underground nuclear weapons tests. To demonstrate its disapproval of the tests, the United States imposed economic sanctions on both nations.

The United States has two main goals in regulating trade with other countries. One is to get other countries to buy American goods. The other is to get our trading partners to support us in other foreign policy goals, such as stopping human rights violations and reducing possible threats to peace.

Intelligence

Information about another country and what its government plans to do is called **intelligence**. Most countries work hard to gather intelligence in order to help them meet the goal of national security.

The Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) and other agencies gather information for the United States government. The CIA focuses mostly on countries it thinks might be unfriendly, and tries to learn what the governments of these countries intend to do. It also tries to predict how these governments will react to what the United States does.

Much of intelligence is secret. Information is sometimes gathered by spying. Sometimes intelligence agencies have helped overturn the government of a country. In Chile in 1973, for example, the CIA took part in overthrowing the government of Salvador Allende. The United States government thought Allende was not favorable to our national interest. Like defense, diplomacy, foreign aid, and trade measures, intelligence is an important tool of foreign policy.

Diplomacy

Can you remember settling a disagreement with someone by talking it out? In a similar way, the American government tries to settle disagreements with other countries peacefully. To do so, it depends mostly on another tool of foreign policy,

Key Note Term

sanctions – measures to stop or limit trade with another nation in order to change its behavior.

Key Note Term

intelligence – information, not always available in the public domain, relating to the strength, resources, capabilities and intentions of a foreign country or domestic groups that can affect the lives and the safety of citizens.

terrorism – the use of threat of violence to spread fear, usually for the purpose of reaching political goals.

diplomacy. **Diplomacy** is the relations and communications carried out between countries. When countries disagree, they send representatives called diplomats to talk about the issues.

The United States uses diplomacy not only to settle disagreements but also to accomplish tasks such as building a canal or space station. Alliances and trade agreements are also made through diplomacy. Diplomacy often results in formal agreements known as treaties.

Usually, diplomacy is carried out by members of the Department of State. Sometimes, however, there is a **summit meeting**, a meeting at which the President talks about important issues with heads of other governments. In 1999, President Clinton traveled to China for a summit meeting with Chinese President Jiang Zemin at which the two leaders discussed military and economic issues.

Key Note Term

diplomacy – relations and communications carried out between countries.

Key Note Term

summit meeting – a meeting between heads of state.

The Importance of Diplomacy

Diplomacy deals with the influence of public attitudes on the formation and execution of foreign policies. It encompasses dimensions of international relations beyond traditional negotiations; the cultivation by governments of public opinion in other countries; the interaction of private groups and interests in one country with those of another; the reporting of foreign affairs and its impact on policy; communication between those whose job is communication, as between diplomats and foreign correspondents; and the processes of intercultural communications.

When you engage in successful diplomatic efforts, you:

- **Compare and contrast the political, economic, and military components of foreign policy decision making and analyze the impact of foreign policy on domestic decisions**
- **Draw conclusions about the implications of foreign policy as it is currently applied to various regions of the world**
- **Evaluate the national interest and how it is formulated, assess alternatives to current policies, and examine their likely impact on the United States, its allies, and other nations**
- **Examine the theory, nature, and causes of war and their relationship to diplomacy; assess the contributions of diplomacy to accomplishment of war objectives**

When diplomacy is carried out correctly, a volatile situation can be managed and diffused. Take, for example, the incident between the U. S. and China when an American military plane was crippled and forced to land on Chinese soil. Had it not been for the expert diplomatic efforts of Brigadier General Neal Sealock and his team, this situation might have ended very differently.

BG Sealock and his team engaged in several aspects of diplomacy. As you read the following account of the China incident, you will see how intercultural communications played a major role in negotiations. You will also see how this team evaluated the impact of the situation on the U. S. and other nations of the world. Had the U. S.

responded to this event by not taking into account the difference in cultures and foreign policies, the U.S. might have been viewed by other nations in a less than favorable light. And the situation could have escalated into something much more dangerous.

BG Sealock and his team also engaged in global citizenship by:

- **being aware of the world and the U. S. role in it**
- **respecting and valuing the culture of China**
- **understanding how the world (especially China and the Far East, in this case) works economically, politically, socially, culturally, technologically, and environmentally**
- **respecting and understanding the different political system in China and working with it rather than against it**

Diplomacy, an understanding of foreign policy, and global citizenship worked together to diffuse a critical situation, and work it through to a peaceful and mutually satisfactory conclusion.

The China Incident

In the early months of 2001, relations between the United States and China had reached a low point. The newly elected President George W. Bush and the U.S. Congress had under consideration a proposal for additional weapons sales to Taiwan, the island nation off the coast of China that had been established by Chinese opponents to Mao Zedong in the aftermath of the successful Communist revolution of 1949. Until 1978, the United States had recognized Taiwan as the official government of China; however, as the result of a long-standing effort beginning with the Nixon administration to defuse tensions between our government and the most populous nation on Earth, we withdrew our official recognition of Taiwan and granted it to the People's Republic of China (PRC) with the understanding that China would not use military force to impose its sovereignty over Taiwan. To underscore U.S. determination to protect the Taiwanese from mainland China's aggression, the U.S. Congress passed the Taiwan Relations Act in 1979, obligating the United States to provide Taiwan with defensive weapons. In 2001, Taiwan requested an arms deal that would include such sophisticated weapons platforms as Arleigh Burke destroyers, air to air and surface to air missiles, and electronic tracking systems. The PRC viewed these discussions with intense suspicion, suggesting these weapons were not defensive but offensive, and that further discussions between the U.S. and Taiwan regarding the sale of these weapons would damage or destroy the relationship between China and the United States.

Coupled with this dispute, China still harbored resentment over an incident that had taken place in Belgrade, Yugoslavia two years before. On May 7, 1999, during the NATO Allied Force operation against Yugoslavian Slobodan Milosevic's genocidal government, American aircraft had mistakenly bombed the Chinese embassy, killing three Chinese journalists and wounding 20 staff members. China did not

fully accept the U.S. explanation that the error was caused by reliance on old databases and out of date maps, and instead suggested the bombing came as a result of China's opposition to NATO's intervention in the Balkans.

With these events as a backdrop, the mid-air collision between a U.S. Navy reconnaissance aircraft and a Chinese fighter jet on April 1, 2001, threatened to escalate into an event with global consequences. Were it not for the training and discipline of the Navy flight crew and the chief negotiator for the United States, Army Brigadier General Neal Sealock, the outcome might have been far different. The details of this incident illustrate the importance of diplomatic skills and awareness of international relationships for those who strive to acquire global citizenship.

For Lt. Shane Osborn, mission commander for the reconnaissance flight, the day had been routine. He and his 23-member crew had awakened at 0300 for a 0400 pre-flight briefing and a take-off at 0500 from Kadena Air Force Base on Okinawa, Japan, to conduct an eight-hour electronic surveillance mission in international airspace over the western Pacific. The EP-3E ARIES II aircraft, a four-engine turboprop, had performed nominally, and four hours into the flight, the heading was changed for the long flight back to Kadena at their cruising altitude of 24,500 feet and cruising speed of 180 knots. Because of the complexity of the aircraft, most of the EP-3E flights were conducted on auto-pilot. As the plane headed home, Lt. Osborn experienced a sense of relief that the usual "escort" of Chinese mach speed jet aircraft had not joined them. Commonly, Chinese pilots, based on the island of Hainan, would fly in tandem with the EP-3E reconnaissance flights at some point during the mission as a means of harassment and a way to signal their mastery of the international airways. Normally the Chinese jets maintained a safe distance, but in recent months, there had been a number of close calls as the high speed jets slowed far below what was safe for their aircraft to match the relative snail's pace of the reconnaissance aircraft, and flew within 50 feet of American planes.

Shortly after changing course, Lt. Osborn's fears were realized. Two Chinese jet fighters approached at great speed, and then, slowing almost to a stall, began to weave back and forth and around the EP-3E. In horror, the flight crew watched as one of the Chinese pilots approached within ten feet, removed his oxygen mask, and mouthed fierce angry words while gesturing with his hand. Just as Lt. Osborn warned the intelligence specialists in the rear of plane, who without windows were unaware of the unfolding drama, the unthinkable happened. The Chinese pilot lost control of his plane. It collided with the American aircraft with such force that the nose cone dislodged, the fuselage was punctured in several places, and the high strength propeller blades of one of the left engines were shredded. Immediately, the EP-3E plunged into a vertical inverted dive following in slow motion the now bisected Chinese jet's descent to the South China Sea.

Four years of intensive training in jets and multi-engine aircraft preparing for every imaginable emergency paid off for Lt. Osborn and his crew. Before the air speed indicator malfunctioned, it registered 450 knots, almost twice the maximum safe speed for the EP-3E. Osborn, his co-pilot, and flight engineer managed to right the aircraft, and then level it off at an altitude of 8000 feet. After verifying the good condition of all of his crew and telling them to put on their parachutes, Osborn quickly

calculated the options available considering the overwhelming damage to the plane. He could order the crew to bail out through the rear hatch into shark infested waters, thereby guaranteeing his death and at least one other member of the flight crew because two people had to remain at the controls to ensure a fairly level flight and the safe evacuation of the rest of the crew. Or he could attempt to land the crippled aircraft at the closest airfield, Lingshui Air Base on Hainan Island, the home base of the two pilots who had caused the disaster. The crew had already begun Emergency Destruction procedures of all the classified and sensitive equipment and documents aboard the plane. At least three direct radio broadcasts to Hainan had been made to alert the airfield of the emergency though there had been no audible response. Osborn made the decision to save as many of his crew as possible, and set course for Lingshui Air Base in the People's Republic of China.

Very shortly, China announced that 24 American military personnel were being detained as “guests” while an investigation of the accident proceeded. However, the Chinese made clear that a preliminary assessment of the situation indicated an act of deliberate **aggression** on the part of the American air crew, the illegal encroachment upon Chinese airspace and sovereign territory, and espionage against the People's Republic of China.

The United States responded by sending two Arleigh Burke destroyers, and one Spruance class anti-submarine destroyer to patrol the waters off Hainan Island. President Bush, in a brief statement on the evening of April 1, called for immediate access to the crew by American officials, and the prompt return of our personnel and the EP-3E. To expedite these demands, Ambassador Prueher directed a three person diplomatic crew to travel by commercial flight from Beijing to Hainan Island to gain first-hand knowledge of the situation, establish contact with the crew, and direct negotiations with the Chinese holding the air crew and the reconnaissance plane.

Brigadier General Sealock, the senior member of the American delegation, brought formidable qualifications and experience to the task at hand. During his 28-year Army career, BG Sealock had acquired an extensive knowledge of Chinese culture that included fluency in Mandarin Chinese, a familiarity with military aviation during his career as an attack helicopter pilot, and an in-depth understanding of U.S. foreign policy and intelligence analysis through formal education at Command

Key Note Term

aggression – an unprovoked attack.

Figure 8.3.1: The damaged U.S. Navy EP-3E surveillance plane parked at Lingshui base on China's Hainan Island in this April 3, 2001 photo, released by China's official Xinhua news agency.

Courtesy of AP/Wide World Photos



and Staff College and practical participation at domestic and foreign billets. At the time of the mid-air collision, BG Sealock was the senior military attaché to the U.S. Embassy in Beijing, China's capital. Very shortly after his arrival on Hainan Island, BG Sealock and his team had accomplished the most pressing objective, a brief conversation with local authorities indicating our desire to meet with them and arrange for their expeditious departure back to the U.S. They were also able to press for confirmation of the welfare and safety of our American military personnel.

The Right Man . . . excerpt from Born To Fly, by Shane Osborn

Shane Osborn, pilot of the downed plane, wrote the following in his book, *Born To Fly*. This book chronicles the events that took place during The China Incident from the viewpoint of the crew. Here, Osborn describes meeting BG Sealock for the first time since their capture.

"We saw the glare and shadow of a video lamp and the flash of still camera strobes. In the hubbub, I called to Johnny, 'Let me know if it's a military rep.'"

"But I didn't have time to depend on a scout to identify the man who strode through the door. Army Brigadier General Neal Sealock, the U. S. Defense Attaché at our Beijing Embassy, was tall and square-shouldered. The left breast of his green uniform blouse bore multiple rows of decorations and ribbons."

"'Attention on deck,' I ordered the crew. We rose in unison and snapped to attention."

"'At ease,' General Sealock said, his eyes scanning the room."

"U. S. Consular Officer Ted Gomm followed General Sealock. A heavysset Chinese official set off to the right."

"'Take your seats,' General Sealock said. 'We've got to get this going quick because they only gave me 40 minutes to see you. I need some information on papers, your places of birth and dates of birth.'"

"As he raised his pen above his open notebook, the Chinese official shook his head. 'No, that is against the rules.'"

"General Sealock looked at the man in exasperation. 'This is information you requested. You told me to get it. I'm just writing it down like we negotiated. I'm not passing anything.'"

"Ah, alright,' the official conceded."

"General Sealock looked evenly at the man, and then down at his watch. 'Now you're going to give us back those 60 seconds towards the 40 minutes.'"

“We’ve got the right guy working for us, I realized. It was fantastic for morale to see the U. S. side standing up for us.”

“Once he had collected the personal information, General Sealock rose to his full height and looked us all in the eye, one at a time. This is what is known as command presence. It was meant to inspire people, and I can certainly say it did so that night.”

On the afternoon of April 3, 2001, President Bush addressed the nation regarding this potentially explosive event and commended BG Sealock for his immediate actions. In his speech, President Bush stated:

“I want to report to the American people, and especially to the families involved, that I’ve just talked with Brigadier General Sealock, who, earlier today, met with our 24 men and women in China.”

“The General tells me they are in good health, they suffered no injuries, and they have not been mistreated. I know this is a relief to their loved ones, and to all Americans.”

“Our crew members expressed their faith in America, and we have faith in them. They send their love to their families. They said they’re looking forward to coming home, and we are looking forward to bringing them home.”

“This is an unusual situation, in which an American military aircraft had to make an emergency landing on Chinese soil. Our approach has been to keep this accident from becoming an international incident. We have allowed the Chinese government time to do the right thing. But now it is time for our servicemen and women to return home. And it is time for the Chinese government to return our plane.”

“This accident has the potential of undermining our hopes for a fruitful and productive relationship between our two countries. To keep that from happening, our servicemen and women need to come home.”

Meet Brigadier General Gratton O’Neal Sealock, Deputy Commanding General, United States Army Cadet Command

Brigadier General Sealock entered the U.S. Army in 1974 upon graduation from Eastern Washington State College as a Distinguished Military Graduate, receiving a Regular Commission in Infantry.

After the Infantry Officer Basic Course, BG Sealock was assigned to the 1st Battalion (Airborne) 508th Infantry, 82d Airborne Division, serving as a rifle platoon leader, weapons platoon leader, and heavy mortar platoon leader before receiving orders to

attend flight training. Completing flight school and the AH-1 Cobra Course in 1977, he was assigned to C Company, 3d Aviation Battalion (Combat), Schweinfurt, FRG. He joined the battalion staff in Kitzingen in 1979.

Upon completion of the Infantry Officer Advanced Course in 1981, BG Sealock was assigned to the Army Aviation Center, Fort Rucker, Alabama, as an attack helicopter instructor pilot and flight commander. He served as operations officer for the Hanchey Division and assumed command of 64th Company, 6th Battalion in May 1983.

From late 1984 through 1986, BG Sealock studied Mandarin Chinese at the Defense Language Institute, the Ministry of Defense (UK) Chinese Language School in Hong Kong, and Fudan University in Shanghai, PRC through the Army's Foreign Area Officer Program. He graduated from the Armed Forces Staff College in 1987.

Returning overseas, he served as the executive officer, 4th Squadron, 7th Cavalry at Camp Garry Owen, ROK. Subsequently, BG Sealock was assigned to DIA as the China Country Officer in Washington, D.C. In August 1990, he returned to Hong Kong as the Assistant Army Attache and Director of the China FAO Training Program. From May 1992 through April 1994, BG Sealock commanded the 4th Squadron, 3d Armored Cavalry Regiment, Fort Bliss, Texas.

April 1994-June 1995, as a National Security Fellow at the Kennedy School of Government, Harvard University in lieu of the Army War College. Afterward, he was assigned as the China Desk Officer and the Northeast Asia Branch Chief, Asia Pacific Division in the Directorate for Strategy and Policy, J-5, the Joint Staff from June 1995 through May 1997.

BG Sealock returned to Fort Rucker and assumed command of the 1st Aviation Brigade June 26, 1997 through June 1999.

From August 1999 through May 2000, BG Sealock was assigned as the United States Army Attaché for the United States Embassy, in Australia.

From September 2000 to August 2002, BG Sealock was assigned as the United States Defense Attaché, Defense Intelligence Agency, in Beijing, China.

BG Sealock currently holds the position as Deputy Commanding General, Cadet Command, Fort Monroe, Virginia, August 2002.

For the American crew who had been held incommunicado for over forty-eight hours, the arrival of General Sealock offered an extraordinary boost to their morale. Accompanied by Senior U.S. Consular Officer, Ted Gomm, General Sealock met for forty minutes with the captive Americans, assuring them that the United States was making every effort to secure their release. As Lt. Osborn wrote, his immediate impression was, "We've got the right guy working for us." Not only did General Sealock hold the Chinese to account for the guidelines agreed upon for this initial meeting, he also ensured personal messages to family and friends of the American crew would be transcribed and conveyed.

The difficulties of the team's mission cannot be overstated. Aside from the seriousness of the charges from Chinese officials, heightened further by inflammatory accu-

Key Note Term

nationalism – A sense of national consciousness that exalts one nation above all others.

sations from a Chinese press spurred on by extreme **nationalism**, General Sealock and his team also dealt with the absence of senior civilian Chinese leadership. Many of the leaders were on a trip to Latin America accompanying President Jiang Zemin. One major concern was how to establish productive communications with China's leaders. He was forced to deal directly with representatives from the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) based in Beijing. The People's Liberation Army was not in control of the negotiations; in fact, two separate negotiations had to be conducted—one in Hainan and the other in Beijing by Ambassador (Admiral) Joseph Prueher—and these efforts required coordination. To be effective, General Sealock needed the sophisticated interpersonal skills developed over his professional career including the ability to lead, build a team on the run, listen carefully, interpret the body language of his Chinese adversaries, and employ his understanding of Chinese culture and negotiating techniques. Moreover, the time difference between China and Washington, DC required members of General Sealock's team to be available at any hour of the day or night. Despite all the possible roadblocks, General Sealock and the U.S. diplomatic corps in China rapidly assembled a negotiations team with the full confidence of the President of the United States, and the authority to act independently to ensure the interests of the U.S. It is interesting to note that every member of the team had prior military experience. Their military backgrounds, training, and education proved invaluable in the direct contact with Chinese counterparts.

Before BG Sealock had pierced the wall of isolation surrounding the American air crew, these dedicated members of the military had held their own. Unsure of their status, but extremely aware of the hostility and suspicion from their Chinese hosts, they rightly fell back on their own military training, especially the mandatory Survival, Evasion, Resistance and Escape (SERE) instruction, and the military Code of Conduct integrated with SERE indoctrination. All of them recognized the need for cohesion, and for maintaining, within the restrictions of their confinement, the same military discipline expected of them when performing the more routine duties of their military service. The existing chain of command, especially Lt. Osborn and Senior Chief Petty Officer Mellos, provided the leadership to see them through this ordeal. As an example, the crew staged a mini hunger strike after Lt. Osborn was separated from the crew for a lengthy interrogation by the commanding officer of the Lingshui air base, refusing to eat until he rejoined their ranks. They also refused to admit any responsibility for the mid-air collision, insisting that the Chinese pilot, later identified as Wang Wei, had been wholly to blame for his own tragic death. In spite of repeated threats from the Chinese that they might be bound over for trial for espionage and that their families might be in jeopardy, the Americans held steadfast. Their mission commander, Lt. Osborn, through both personal persuasion and strict compliance to military guidelines, bolstered their resolve. Just as his piloting skills had saved their lives, Lt. Osborn's college NROTC lessons and active duty officer schooling in leadership and strategic decision-making kept his young crew on a focused and even keel. Subsequently, General Sealock singled out Lt. Osborn and Senior Chief Mellos but praised the professionalism, exuberance, and experience of the entire crew, and credited their behavior as an important element in the successful outcome.

General Sealock also mentioned the positive effect of the Inter-agency and the total support provided through the leadership of the National Command Authority. All Americans can be proud of a system that works in an emergency situation. In this particular case, a relatively new organization, the Joint Personnel Recovery Agency (JPRA), a Department of Defense organization established in 1999, provided outstanding support. They are charged with “shaping the planning, preparation, and execution of personnel recovery for the Department of Defense.” In its mission statement the JPRA notes four key goals:

- **To return isolated personnel to friendly control**
- **To deny the enemy a potential source of intelligence**
- **To prevent the exploitation of captured personnel in propaganda programs designed to influence our national interest and military strategy**
- **To maintain morale and the national will.**

All of these goals were particularly pertinent to the repatriation of the EP-3E and its crew.

Originally, Chinese officials had demanded four conditions for resolution of the crisis. First, China insisted on an abject apology for the collision with the U.S. taking full blame for the death of Wang Wei. Second, China asked for a complete explanation of the incident, including every detail of the flight of the EP-3E, a demand certain to compromise the classified reconnaissance mission. Third, China required full compensation for their losses. This demand for compensation amounted to one million dollars in U.S. currency. Finally, China called for the halt of all future reconnaissance flights. By April 11, when an agreement was reached for the release of the American crew, Secretary of State Colin Powell and President Bush had both expressed regret for the death of the Chinese pilot and the loss of the Chinese aircraft, while making it clear the United States would not proffer a blanket apology. Instead, an agreement was struck to continue discussions about further reconnaissance flights, the return of the EP-3E, and appropriate payment to the Chinese for the expenses associated with the accident. According to the Beijing government, the U.S. acknowledged that the Navy aircraft did violate Chinese airspace, but did so only during the emergency landing procedure. The actual collision happened over international waters.



Figure 8.3.2: BG Sealock during negotiations in China.

Courtesy of AP/Wide World Photos.

What changed the ferociously adamant stance of the Chinese? For years China had been pressing for membership in the World Trade Organization (WTO), and approval of their inclusion in this prestigious international group depended heavily on the good will of the United States. Moreover, China had bid to be the host nation for the 2008 Summer Olympics, and although the International Olympic Committee claims neutrality when awarding host status, the Chinese could not afford the continuing controversy of holding foreign military personnel hostage. Finally, during the initial furor over the loss of the Chinese jet, the pilot, Wang Wei, had been hailed as a hero and a martyr of the People's Liberation Army. Secret intelligence information possessed by the United States, including photos of Wang Wei flying recklessly close to another American reconnaissance flight, exposed the likely truth of the incident. Wang Wei routinely jeopardized his own safety, and the safety of those around him, including his own wingman.

Ultimately, China was offered \$34,567 as payment for goods and services associated with the detention of the EP-3E crew. In July, 2003, the EP-3E was disassembled by U.S. personnel at Lingshui Air Base and flown to the United States aboard a leased Russian cargo plane. It has been completely refurbished and is back with the fleet. Lt. Osborn received the Distinguished Flying Cross for his heroism and leadership. Brigadier General Sealock now serves as the Deputy Commanding General of the United States Army Cadet Command. For General Sealock, it is the culmination of a distinguished career in which he continues to serve his country by developing and encouraging the leaders of tomorrow.

Note:

In August of 2001, Richard L. Armitage, Deputy Secretary of State, said of BG Sealock, "His talents came to the fore during the EP-3 incident. General Sealock made invaluable contributions to the USG effort to secure release of our service men and women. His timely reports from Hainan Island—in some cases, reporting directly to the President—on the status of the U.S. aircrew and on his interactions with the local PLA provided crucial information to USG decision makers. His meetings with the detained aircrew were also key in helping out service men and women sustain their high morale in a very stressful situation. General Sealock's performance during the incident was nothing short of brilliant."

As mentioned earlier in this lesson, BG Sealock and his team worked intelligently and diligently to take into account the Chinese culture and political system, the world view of the United States, and the places in the world political and economic arenas that China and the U.S. both held. These expert and well-thought-out negotiations led to a satisfactory conclusion that left the relations between the United States and China intact, and prevented other countries from any involvement that could have led to global problems.

Conclusion

Global citizenship is mandatory if the United States and the rest of the world is to grow, thrive, and cooperate for the good of all. The ability to look at problems and situations objectively in the world, and predict or determine how choices and decisions can either benefit or injure a world neighbor is crucial in today's society. By understanding how actions, choices, and decisions can lead to good or bad consequences, you understand how those choices and decisions can impact other nations.

American political, military, and humanitarian choices can have tremendous impact on other nations. In the China Incident:

- **two different political archetypes had to work together to resolve an issue to the benefit of both countries**
- **although very different in structure, the American and Chinese military cooperated with each other to solve the problem**
- **by recognizing the cultural differences between Americans and the Chinese, and by respecting those cultural differences, the China Incident was resolved without injury to either culture.**

Lesson Review

1. Why is global citizenship so important?
2. Discuss diplomacy and explain how a person can be diplomatic. What is the importance of diplomacy?
3. Define the term "sanctions." When and why might they be used?
4. What might have happened if BG Sealock had not given the Chinese the time required to resolve the situation? How did his expert diplomatic work keep this from developing into a larger international incident?

Chapter 8
Case Study

CASE STUDY

Chapter 8, Lesson 3: Global Citizenship Choices, Decisions, and Consequences

Exercise: Examine a case study that involves a series of events that impacted international relations. **Develop a flow map** or multi-flow map to **organize the events of the incident**. Participate in a discussion to compare **how people in and out of the U.S. were impacted** by the decisions and choices made during the case study incident.

- Illustrate how an American choice affects at least one other country.
- Summarize the “Who, What, Where, When” of a specific American decision or action that affects those in at least one other country.
- How did the decision affect Americans and how did it affect those in other countries?
- Evaluate the negative and/or positive consequences for Americans and for other countries.
- Make recommendations for increasing the positive consequences for both Americans and those from other countries.

Recap of the EP-3 Incident with China

On April 1, 2001 at 8:16 p.m., the staff in DIA's Alert Center received a report of a MAYDAY from an EP-3 aircraft heading toward Lingshui, China. To their horror, they learned that an American EP-3 surveillance plane and a Chinese F-8 jet fighter had collided over the South China Seas. Despite an 8,000-foot freefall, the E-P3 made it safely to China's Hainan Island; the F-8 tore apart and crashed, and the pilot Wang Wei was killed. At 8:31 p.m. the Alert Center began notifying key people who would be directly involved in this incident. And by 9:00 p.m., the Alert Center had notified BG Neal Sealock.

The EP-3 ARIES II is a Navy signals intelligence reconnaissance aircraft equipped with sensitive receivers and high-gain dish antennas for collecting electronic emissions deep within targeted territory. China immediately impounded the aircraft and detained the 24-man crew. Deputy Foreign Minister Li Zhaoxign said the Chinese public was outraged both by the resumption of U.S. surveillance flights near China and by U.S. suggestions that the spy plane be flown back from the Chinese military base where it landed after colliding with a Chinese fighter jet. “If we allow such a military plane which had a mission of spying on China to be flown back from a Chinese military airfield, that would further hurt the dignity and sentiments of the Chinese people,” said Li. “It would be the cause of strong indignation and opposition from the Chinese people.” Spokesman Zhu Bangzao declared: “The United States should take full responsibility, make an apology to the Chinese government and people, and give us an explanation of its actions.” U.S. Secretary of State Colin Powell responded with equal bluntness: “We have nothing to apologize for.” According to Secretary of Defense Donald Rumsfeld, the United States wasn't spying: “Our EP-3 was flying an overt reconnaissance and surveillance mission in international air-

space in an aircraft clearly marked, 'United States Navy.' It was on a well-known flight path that we have used for decades. Many countries perform such flights, including China." Secretary Rumsfeld further accused China of provoking the incident. Later testimony by Navy Lieutenant Shane Osborn, the E-P3 commander, supported this view by stating his aircraft was flying straight and level, on autopilot, heading away from Hainan Island in international airspace when it was subjected to harassment from the Chinese fighter.

Lt. Osborn said that the Chinese jet came within three to five feet of his own aircraft twice, and on the third time, the Chinese pilot apparently misjudged and the F-8's vertical stabilizer contacted the E-P3's number one propeller. Lt. Osborn's initial thought was "This guy just killed us" as the EP-3E dropped 8,000 feet and rolled out of control. Lt. Osborn regained control of the aircraft and declared an in-flight emergency as he turned back towards Chinese airspace, deciding to head towards Hainan Island. The EP-3 made numerous attempts to broadcast Mayday distress signals, but none of them were answered. When they landed, they were greeted with armed troops.

BG Neal Sealock, the U.S. defense attaché to China, was dispatched to Hainan to negotiate the return of the EP-3 aircraft and crew. BG Sealock reported directly to the President and was given authority to act on the Nation's behalf. Tensions mounted as three days into the crisis President Bush declared "It is time for our servicemen and women to return home. It is time for the Chinese government to return our plane." In response, Chinese President Jiang Zemin demanded "The United States must stop these types of flights in the airspace of China's coastal areas." Furthermore, China bluntly rejected U.S. claims that the damaged plane and the advanced intelligence-gathering equipment on board were sovereign U.S. territory and off-limits to inspection or seizure.

As the standoff continued, Republican congressional leaders, including Richard Shelby, chairman of the Senate Select Committee on Intelligence, and Henry Hyde, chairman of the House International Relations Committee, began referring to the spy plan crew as "hostages." All this time, BG Sealock pursued intense negotiations with Chinese representatives in Hainan, coordinating his efforts with the Ambassador in Beijing. Having spent four years as an attaché, BG Sealock had a good background on the Chinese language and culture that helped him understand the implications and possible innuendos as negotiations proceeded. He was aided by a team of inter-agency experts with similar training in Chinese language, culture, and negotiating techniques. These skills proved critical in defusing the situation by persuading Chinese representatives to allow BG Sealock to meet with the EP-3 crew. At the time of his first meeting with the crew, he stated, "My name is Neal Sealock, and I'm here to get you home."

After reporting their apparent good health and safety, Secretary of State Colin Powell assumed a more conciliatory approach saying "I hope this starts us on a road to a full and complete resolution of this matter." The impasse was broken after 11 days of intensive negotiations. Ambassador Joseph Prueher gave a letter to Foreign Minister Tang: "Please convey to the Chinese People and the family of pilot Wang Wei that we are very sorry for their loss... We are very sorry the entering of China's airspace and the landing did not have verbal clearance."

Having extracted an 'apology' from Washington, Beijing released the 24 American servicemen. The EP-3 was disassembled and shipped to the United States three months later. President Bush later announced the resumption of EP-3 flights along the Chinese coast.

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1. Illustrate how an American choice affects at least one other country.

"Deputy Foreign Minister Li Zhaoxign said the Chinese public was outraged both by the resumption of US surveillance flights near China and by US suggestions that the spy plane be flown back from the Chinese military base where it landed after colliding with a Chinese fighter jet."

2. Summarize the "Who, What, Where, When" of a specific American decision or action that affects those in at least one other country.

Who: President of the United States

What: Chose to conduct surveillance flights of China

Where: Hainan Island

When: April, 2001

3. How did the decision affect Americans and how did it affect those in other countries?

“If we allow such a military plane which had a mission of spying on China to be flown back from a Chinese military airfield, that would further hurt the dignity and sentiments of the Chinese people,” said Li. “It would be the cause of strong indignation and opposition from the Chinese people.”

4. Evaluate the negative and/or positive consequences for Americans and for other countries.**Negative**

China: U.S. acquiring military intelligence of their country.

U.S.: China acquired valuable intelligence on EP-3.

Positive

China: Won international support for anti-U.S. stance.

U.S.: President perceived as strong, without using force.

5. Make recommendations for increasing the positive consequences for both Americans and those from other countries.

U.S.–China Relations (U.S. Department of State)

U.S.–China relations cooled after the incident but gradually improved. Following the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks in New York City and Washington DC., China offered strong public support for the war on terrorism and has been an important partner in U.S. counterterrorism efforts. China and the U.S. have also been working closely on regional issues like North Korea.

Lesson 4

Historical Timeline: Choices, Decisions, and Consequences



Key Terms

chronological
timeline

What You Will Learn to Do

- Outline how major decisions (leadership, ethical, or global) have led to significant events in American history

Linked Core Abilities

- Apply critical thinking techniques

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain Along the Way

- Examine ways leadership, ethical, global decisions have impacted history
- Describe how historic events have influenced leadership, ethical, and global decisions
- Investigate historic actions and decisions that have influenced citizens today
- Define key words contained in this lesson

Introduction

History is a fascinating subject. There is an almost irresistible draw to look at the bigger picture—the overall course of events—in an attempt to glean some insight, or to approach some greater knowledge.

An important aspect in the study of an historical event is an analysis of the significant actions that took place. History is more than memorization of dates, events, and people. History influences the future. What happened yesterday affected events today; what happens today impacts life tomorrow. In this lesson you assess how major leadership, ethical, and/or global decisions led to significant events in American history. You examine a timeline to get an idea of how that history played out.

One Thing Leads to Another

Imagine this scenario: You wake up late one morning and miss the bus to school. Because of that, you also miss an important exam in a class. Your instructor will not let you make up the exam, so you get a lower grade than you expected in this class. And that lower grade keeps you from traveling with the debate team to a crucial debate. The team loses.

Now, imagine this: You get up on time to get to school. You take the exam in your class and get an A+. You travel with your debate team to the crucial debate and because of your debating expertise, your team wins. Also, there's someone at the debate from an exceptional university who sees you debate and offers you a full scholarship to this school. You graduate from college with honors and end up becoming President of the United States.

These are two examples of how one event builds on another; how one minor event can greatly influence the future. This concept holds true in American and world history. Try to envision what might have happened if Abraham Lincoln had the flu and couldn't deliver the Gettysburg Address. Or if the Battle of Normandy had never happened? How one event or action is handled can dictate how the future plays out; one thing leads to another.

Examining a Timeline

One way to examine how historical events build on one another to bring us to where we are today is to analyze a **timeline**. A timeline is an account of specific decisions and events, broken down into specific segments of time. Timelines can visually share changes over time in different curriculum areas such as science, social studies, math, and language arts. Timelines can document the events of a person's or

Key Note Term

timeline – a linear representation of important events in the order in which they occurred; a schedule; timetable.

character's life, the stages of an animal's life, the sequence of how something occurred, or the events in a time period.

The entries on a timeline are not listed in order of importance; rather, they are shown in the **chronological** order that the events happened. By showing the timing of events, you can see how one incident or event has an effect on another.

Have you ever wondered how Saddam Hussein took control of Iraq? What led to the current situation? The following is one example of a timeline of the history of Iraq from 1920 through 1991.

Key Note Term

chronological – a list or arrangement of events in the order they took place.

1920	Iraq comes under British mandate after the fall of the Ottoman empire in 1918.
1921	Faisal I becomes king of Iraq (Aug. 23).
1932	Iraq achieves independence from Britain (Oct. 3).
1933	Faisal I dies and is succeeded by his son, Ghazi.
1934	The first of seven military coups over the next five years takes place; King Ghazi is retained as a figurehead.
1939	King Ghazi is killed in an automobile accident; his son, Faisal II, 3, becomes king; Faisal's uncle, Emir Abd al-Ilah, becomes regent.
1940	Anti-British leaders in Iraq side with the Axis powers in the early part of World War II.
1941	Britain defeats Iraq; pro-Axis leaders flee.
1943	Iraq declares war on the Axis countries.
1945	Iraq becomes a charter member of the Arab League.
1948	Iraq and other Arab countries launch an unsuccessful war against Israel, which had declared statehood that year.
1958	A military coup overthrows the monarchy, kills King Faisal II, and declares Iraq a republic. General Abdul Karim Kassem becomes Iraq's leader, and begins reversing the monarchy's pro-western policies (July 14).
1961	The Kurds, located in northern Iraq, revolt and demand autonomy; fighting between the Kurds and the government continues for decades.
1963	Kassem is killed in a coup led Colonel Abd al-Salam Aref and the military as well as members of the Ba'ath party (Feb. 8). The Ba'ath party, founded in Syria, advocates pan-Arabism, secularism, and socialism. Colonel Aref becomes president, Ahmed Hasan al-Bakr of the Ba'ath Party becomes president. Aref purges the government of Ba'ath party, including President al-Bakr.

1966	Aref dies; his brother, Abdul Rahman Aref, takes over the presidency (Apr. 17).
1968	Ahmad Hasan al-Bakr overthrows Aref in a bloodless coup. The Ba'ath party again dominates (July 17).
1970	A peace agreement is signed between the Iraqi government and the Kurds, granting the Kurds some self-rule (March 11).
1973	Iraq fights in the Arab-Israeli War (The Yom Kippur War) and participates in the oil boycott against Israel's supporters.
1975	Fighting again breaks out with the Kurds, who call for their independence.
1979	Al-Bakr resigns; his vice-president, Saddam Hussein, succeeds him (July 16). Hussein swiftly executes political rivals.
1980	The bloody eight-year Iran-Iraq war begins. The main issue is control of the Shatt al Arab waterway, an essential resource providing for water and transportation that runs along the border of both countries (Sept. 22).
1988	Iraq retaliates against the Kurds for supporting Iran during the Iran-Iraq war, and through "Operation Anfal" slaughters civilians or forces them to relocate. Thousands flee to Turkey (Feb.–Sept.). Iran-Iraq war ends in a stalemate. An estimated 1.5 million died in the conflict (Aug. 20).
1990	Iraqi troops invade Kuwait. Saddam Hussein justifies the attack by blaming Kuwait for falling oil prices that harm the Iraqi economy (Aug. 2). The UN imposes economic sanctions on Iraq (Aug 6). U.S. military forces arrive in Saudi Arabia (Aug. 9). The UN issues a Security Council resolution setting Jan. 15, 1991, as the deadline for Iraq's withdrawal from Kuwait, authorizing the use of "all necessary means" if it does not comply (Nov. 29).
1991	<p>The Persian Gulf War begins when Operation Desert Storm launched by a U.S.-led coalition of 32 countries under the leadership of U.S. Gen. Norman Schwarzkopf. A campaign of air strikes against Iraq begins (Jan. 16–17).</p> <p>Ground forces invade Kuwait and Iraq, vanquish the Iraqi army, and liberate Kuwait. President George H. W. Bush declares a cease-fire on the fourth day (Feb. 24–28).</p> <p>Shiites and Kurds rebel, encouraged by the United States. Iraq quashes the rebellions, killing thousands (March).</p> <p>Formal cease-fire is signed. Saddam Hussein accepts UN resolution agreeing to destroy weapons of mass destruction and allowing UN inspectors to monitor the disarmament (April 6).</p> <p>A no-fly zone is established in Northern Iraq to protect the Kurds from Saddam Hussein (April 10).</p>

1991 <i>cont'd</i>	UN weapons inspectors report that Iraq has concealed much of its nuclear and chemical weapons programs. It is the first of many such reports over the next decade, pointing out Iraq's thwarting of the UN weapons inspectors (July 30).
1992	<p>A southern no-fly zone is created to protect the Shiite population from Saddam Hussein and provide a buffer between Kuwait and Iraq (Aug. 26).</p> <p>U.S. launches cruise missile on Baghdad, after Iraq attempts to assassinate President George H. W. Bush while he visited Kuwait (June 27).</p>
1994	Iraq drains water from southern marshlands inhabited Muslim Shiites, in retaliation for the Shiites' long-standing opposition to Saddam Hussein's government (April).
1996	A UN Security Council's "oil-for-food" resolution (passed April 1995) allows Iraq to export oil in exchange for humanitarian aid. Iraq delays accepting the terms for more than 1½ year (Dec. 10).
1997	<p>The UN disarmament commission concludes that Iraq has continued to conceal information on biological and chemical weapons and missiles (Oct 23).</p> <p>Iraq expels the American members of the UN inspection team (Nov. 13).</p>
1998	<p>Iraq suspends all cooperation with the UN inspectors (Jan. 13).</p> <p>UN secretary-general Kofi Annan brokers a peaceful solution to the standoff. Over the next months Baghdad continued to impede the UN inspection team, demanding that sanctions be lifted (Feb. 23).</p> <p>Saddam Hussein puts a complete halt to the inspections (Oct. 31).</p> <p>Iraq agrees to unconditional cooperation with the UN inspectors (Nov. 14), but by a month later, chief UN weapons inspector Richard Butler reports that Iraq has not lived up to its promise (Dec. 15).</p> <p>The United States and Britain began four days of intensive air strikes, dubbed Operation Desert Fox. The attacks focused on command centers, missile factories, and airfields—targets that the Pentagon believed would damage Iraq's weapons stores (Dec. 16–19).</p>
1999	Beginning in January, weekly, sometimes daily, bombings of Iraqi targets within the northern no-fly zone begin, carried out by U.S. and British bombers. More than 100 air strikes take place during 1999, and continue regularly over the next years. The U.S. and Britain hope the constant barrage of air strikes will weaken Saddam Hussein's grip on Iraq (Jan. 1999–present).

By examining this timeline, you can ask yourself:

- **What might have happened if Iraq had not received independence from Britain until later?**
- **Would Israel have been different if Iraq had not join in the 1948 attack of the newly independent state?**
- **How might today's Iraq be different if the Kurds had not violated their peace agreement?**
- **If Al-Bakr had not resigned and Saddam Hussein succeeded him, who might have eventually led Iraq and how would their politics have changed history?**

Through timelines, you can see where one action influenced how the next action occurred. One historic action caused or had a major impact on another, and the timeline gives you a clear picture of choices, decisions, and consequences from the timing of these events.

Other examples of timelines include the following:

Other timelines to consider:

The building and deconstruction of the Berlin Wall, U.S. Civil War, Holocaust, Vietnam War, American Revolutionary War, and America's Great Depression.

Note

To view more timelines, go to <http://ph.infoplease.com/spot/timelinearchive.html>. Another good website for timelines is <http://www2.canisius.edu/~emeryg/time.html>. Both of these websites offer many timelines for you to examine.

Why Study Timelines

There is a saying that those who do not remember history are doomed to repeat it. By studying history through historical timelines, you can make decisions so that history does not repeat itself. Basically, if an action didn't work at one point in time, it's likely that it won't work now.

Timelines also show how events went from Point A to Point B. By understanding how decisions were made and events unfolded, you have a better idea of the history of any situation, can form knowledgeable opinions, and make decisions based on sound information. For example, check out <http://www2.canisius.edu/~emeryg/time.html> and examine the following timelines:

- **The Berlin Wall (construction and destruction)**
- **The U. S. Civil War**
- **The Holocaust**

- **The Vietnam War**
- **The American Revolution**
- **America's Great Depression**

By looking at these timelines, you can ask and answer:

- **How did leadership, ethical, and global decisions impact history?**
- **How did historic events influence leadership, ethical, and global decisions?**
- **How did these historic actions and decisions influence citizens today?**

One example of an ethical decision based on recent history was the bombing of Japan in World War II. By understanding the events that led up to that decision and actions, you can get an idea of how and why this event occurred.

Ethical Decisions on a Global Scale

As you learned in Chapter 8, Lesson 2, “Ethical Choices, Decisions, and Consequences,” ethical choices can lead to good or bad consequences. When looking at timelines, you can see what lead up to these decisions, and how they influenced history. Take, for example, the U.S. dropping the atomic bomb on Japan in World War II.

Note

The word “ethics” comes from the Greek word *ethos*, meaning character or way of life. Western philosophers transformed the root word to refer to a good way of life appropriate to all human beings in all places in all times. Largely by way of reason, but sometimes by education, every person can understand the rules of ethical behavior. The word “morality” comes from the Latin *moralis*, meaning customs or manners, and therefore refers to the laws and traditions of particular places and times. To give you an understanding of the difference, almost all societies condemn stealing. This is a matter of ethics. But the penalties for stealing have varied throughout history and national culture. In one of the classics of Western literature, *Les Misérables*, the protagonist, Jean Valjean, was condemned to 19 years in prison for stealing a loaf of bread to feed his family. His penalty was a matter of morality. Ethics, then, seems to pertain to the individual character of a person or persons, where morality seems to point to the relationship between human beings. Nevertheless, in ordinary language, whether a person is called ethical or moral, or an act is referred to as unethical or immoral, doesn't really make any difference. In philosophy, however, the term ethics is also used to refer to a specific area of study: morality, which concentrates on human conduct and human values.

On August 6, 1945, the atomic bomb was dropped on the Japanese city of Hiroshima. After being released from the Enola Gay, one of the B-29 bombers flying over the city on that day, it took about a minute for the bomb (nicknamed “Little Boy”) to reach the point of explosion. Little Boy exploded at approximately 8:15 a.m. (Japan Standard Time) when it reached an altitude of 2,000 feet above the building that is today called the “A-Bomb Dome.”

Little Boy generated an enormous amount of energy in terms of air pressure and heat. In addition, it generated a significant amount of radiation (Gamma ray and neutrons) that subsequently caused devastating human injuries.

The strong wind generated by the bomb destroyed most of the houses and buildings within a 1.5 miles radius. When the wind reached the mountains, it was reflected and again hit the people in the city center. The wind generated by Little Boy caused the most serious damage to the city and people.

On August 9, 1945, another atomic bomb (nicknamed “Fat Man”) was dropped on Japan, this time on the city of Nagasaki. The following day, on August 10th, Japan surrendered, thus drawing World War II to its conclusion. The following timeline shows the events from July 16, 1945, when the first atomic bomb was tested in New Mexico, to the day of Japan’s surrender. By examining the following timeline, you can get an idea of some of the global events that led up to the decision to drop the bomb on Japan. (See the Case Study at the end of this lesson to see how World War I began.)

Jul 16, 1945	The first U.S. test explosion of the atomic bomb was made at Alamogordo Air Base, south of Albuquerque, New Mexico, equal to some twenty thousand tons of TNT. The bomb was called the Gadget and the experiment was called Trinity. It was conducted in a part of the desert called Jornada del Muerto, (Dead Man’s Trail), and measured the equivalent of 18,600 (21,000) tons of TNT. It was the culmination of 28 months of intense scientific research conducted under the leadership of physicist Dr. J. Robert Oppenheimer under the code name Manhattan Project. The successful atomic test was witnessed by only one journalist, William L. Lawrence of the New York Times, who described seeing the blinding explosion
Jul 17- Aug 2, 1945	President Truman, Soviet leader Josef Stalin, and British Prime Minister Winston S. Churchill (and his successor Clement Atlee) began meeting at the Schloss Cecilienhof in Potsdam in the final Allied summit of World War II. It re-established the European borders that were in effect as of Dec 31, 1937.
Jul 23, 1945	French Marshal Henri Petain, who had headed the Vichy government during World War II, went on trial, charged with treason. He was condemned to death, but his sentence was commuted.
Jul 24, 1945	U.S. Navy bombers sank the Japanese battleship-carrier Hyuga in shallow waters off Kure, Japan.
Jul 26, 1945	U.S. cruiser Indianapolis reached Tinian with atom bomb.
Jul 26, 1945	The U.S., Britain and China issued the Potsdam Declaration to Japan that she surrender unconditionally. Two days later Japanese Premier Kantaro Suzuki announced to the Japanese press that the Potsdam declaration is to be ignored.

Jul 29, 1945	After delivering parts of the first atomic bomb to the island of Tinian, the USS Indianapolis was hit and sunk by the I-58 Japanese submarine around midnight. Some 900 survivors jumped into the sea and were adrift for 4 days. Nearly 600 died before help arrived.
Jul 30, 1945	The USS Indianapolis, which had just delivered key components of the Hiroshima atomic bomb to the Pacific island of Tinian, was torpedoed by a Japanese submarine. Only 316 out of 1,196 men survived the sinking and shark-infested waters.
Aug 3, 1945	Chinese troops under American General Joseph Stilwell took the town of Myitkyina from the Japanese.
Aug 6, 1945	Hiroshima, Japan, was struck with the uranium bomb, Little Boy, from the B-29 airplane, Enola Gay, piloted by Col. Paul Tibbets of the US Air Force along with 11 other men. The atom bomb killed an estimated 140,000 people in the first use of a nuclear weapon in warfare. Major Thomas Wilson Ferebee was the bombardier. Richard Nelson was the radio operator.
Aug 8, 1945	President Truman signed the United Nations Charter.
Aug 8, 1945	The Soviet Union declared war against Japan.
Aug 9, 1945	The 10,000 lb. plutonium bomb, Fat Man, was dropped over Nagasaki after the primary objective of Kokura was passed due to visibility problems. It killed an estimated 74,000 people. The B-29 bomber plane Bock's Car so named for its assigned pilot, Fred Bock, was piloted by Captain Charles W. Sweeney. Kermit Beahan (d.1989) was the bombardier.
Aug 10, 1945	Japan announced its willingness to surrender to Allies provided that the status of Emperor Hirohito remains unchanged. Yosuke Yamahata photographed the aftermath of the bombing of Nagasaki. He was dispatched by the Japanese military, but did not turn over the pictures to the military authorities.

When thinking of ethical decisions that affected U.S. and world history, try to imagine how history would have been changed if the Atomic bomb had not been dropped on Japan during World War II. Would the war have continued much longer? Would the U.S. have been attacked again by the Japanese, as they had been at Pearl Harbor the year before? Because the Soviet Union had declared war on Japan on August 8th, do you think that thousands of Soviet and U.S. soldiers would have lost their lives? By looking at a timeline, how can you predict what might have happened if the decision to drop the atomic bombs had been different?

Ethical Decisions on a Local Level

Timelines can also show events on a local level. Take this example: The city of Indianapolis, Indiana, had a problem. Local leaders noted that historically in the summertime when kids were out of school, many disadvantaged children were not eating lunch. When school was in session, a midday meal was supplied by the school system, but this wasn't the case when the schools were closed for summer vacation. These kids still needed lunch, so local Indianapolis leaders set out to solve this problem.

With local government and community support, Indy Parks and Recreation began hosting the Free Summer Lunch Program at park locations and other partnered sites throughout the city. In the summer of 2004, the fifth year this program had been in existence, Indy Park officials expected that more than 70,000 lunches would be served. Free meals were available to children 18 years of age and under, and were provided without regard to race, color, national origin, sex, age, or disability. This program will continue, and will most likely grow larger with each summer, but the city of Indianapolis is prepared to handle it.

This is an example of how local leaders looked at the historic decline of local nutrition, made a decision to solve the problem, and did the ethically correct thing. They provided meals for those who wouldn't otherwise have had food during the day.

Conclusion

One decision or action builds on another, and these events are what comprise not only history but the future as well. To get a clear picture of how events unfolded or how specific decisions caused specific actions, a timeline is an invaluable tool. Timelines break down history into chunks of categorized information, and show how present times came about.

Chapter 8**Lesson Review***Lesson Review*

1. Define the term “timeline.”
2. What does a timeline show?
3. Is there a limit to the amount of time a timeline can show? Why?
4. Why is it important to see how decisions were made and events unfolded?

CASE STUDY

Chapter 8, Lesson 4: Historical Timeline: Choices, Decisions, and Consequences

Exercise: Historical case study to examine the impact of a **series of events**. Discuss **citizen and global reactions** during and after the events described in the case study. **Classify events** that involved leadership, ethical, or global decisions. **Predict** what might have happened if different choices and decisions were made.

Timeline—a timeline is an account of specific decisions and events, broken down into specific segments of time.

The Spark That Ignited World War I

On June 28, 1914, Gavrilo Princip, a Bosnian Serb and radical nationalist, assassinated Franz Ferdinand, the Archduke of Austria-Hungary and heir to the throne, and his wife, Sophie. How could this single act of barbarism engulf over 32 nations and 30,000,000 lives in world war?

Historians trace the origins of World War I to the end of the Napoleonic era and blame the Congress of Vienna in 1815 for setting conditions for the Franco-Prussian war in 1870 leading to the rise of Germany in 1871. Eager to maintain Germany's new status as a major European power, Chancellor Otto von Bismarck began forming a system of alliances designed to isolate France. In 1872, Bismarck orchestrated the League of the Three Emperors between Kaiser Wilhelm I of Germany, Czar Alexander II of Russia, and Emperor Franz Joseph of Austria. Russia departed the League after Germany sided with Austria over a dispute in the Balkans during the Congress of Berlin in 1878.

In the absence of Russia, Bismarck forged the Dual Alliance with Austria in 1879, and expanded it to include Italy, thus creating the Triple Alliance in 1882. Bismarck made no formal alliance with Britain, but did his best to remain on friendly terms with the traditional enemy of France. For 20 years, Bismarck maintained the peace in Europe by brokering a skillful balance of powers on the continent.

In 1890, Bismarck was dismissed by Kaiser Wilhelm II. The new emperor wanted to make Germany a world power, and commenced a program of colonial and naval expansion. Alarmed by Germany's ambition and suspicious of her ties with Austria, Russia sided with France and formed the Franco-Russian Alliance in 1893. In 1905, the German General Staff formulated the Schlieffen Plan advocating an attack on France in the event of war with Russia. Feeling increasingly isolated, Britain began to seek her own alliances. In 1902, she concluded the Anglo-Japanese Alliance to check Russian expansion in the Pacific.

In 1904, Britain defied expectations by signing the Entente Cordiale expressing friendship with France. In 1907, Britain joined the Triple Entente allying with both Russia and France. The Triple Entente of Britain, France, and Russia now stood in

direct opposition to the Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria, and Italy. A single incident could now ignite global conflagration.

In 1912, Italy came into conflict with the Ottoman Empire over holdings in the Adriatic Sea. Serbia took advantage of the weakened Ottoman Empire to attack Bulgaria. Russia sided with Serbia while Austria supported Bulgaria; Britain and Germany urged peace. Russia and Austria were now poised for war. The crisis enraged Serbs against Austria for its support of Bulgaria and its continued occupation of Bosnia-Herzegovina. On June 28, 1914, when Gavrilo Princip assassinated Franz Ferdinand, Austria declared war on Serbia. Russia declared war on Austria. Germany attacked into France, and Europe was plunged into the first world war.

References

World War I (1914 1918) Timeline, www.sparknotes.com/history/european/ww1/htimeline.html

World War I, www.thecorner.org/wwi

The Great War, “Causes of World War I,” Suzanne Karpilovsky, Maria Fogel, Olivia Kobelt, www.pvhs.chico.k12.ca.us/~bsilva/projects/great_war/causes.htm

Event	Reaction	Classification
1871—Creation of the German Empire under Kaiser Wilhelm I and Otto von Bismarck.	none	leadership —unify independent states into German nation.
1873—Three Emperor's League established between Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Russia	none	global —isolate France.
1874—First Balkan Crisis; Serbia revolt in Bosnia-Herzegovina.	1878—Congress of Berlin 1879—Dual Alliance between Germany and Austria-Hungary	leadership —Russia resigns from the Three Emperor's League. global —Russia forms enmity against Austria.
1882—Triple Alliance between Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Italy.	1894—Franco-Russian Alliance	global —France and Russia unite to contain Germany.
1890—Kaiser Wilhelm II fires Otto von Bismarck.	1890—Germany embarks on colonial and military expansion.	ethical —Kaiser Wilhelm II interested in the greater glory of an expanded Germany.
1905—Development of the Schlieffen Plan in Germany.	none	global —War with Russia will provoke an automatic attack against France.
1907—Triple Entente between Britain, France, and Russia.	1907—Germany begins military buildup and naval arms race.	global —The Triple Entente and Triple Alliance stand in opposition; an attack on one will ignite global conflagration.
1912 to 1913—Third Balkan Crisis.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Austria & Russia now poised for war. • Serbians hate Austria. 	global —conditions set to start global war.
June 28, 1914—Gavrilo Princip assassinates Archduke Franz Ferdinand of Austria.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Austria declares war against Serbia. • Russia declares war against Austria. • Germany invades France. • Britain declares war against Germany. 	ethical —Gavrilo Princip attempted to achieve nationalist objectives through illegal and immoral means.

Appendix

Mandatory Core Service Learning

***Making a Difference with
Service Learning***

Chapter 8

Lesson 1

Orientation to Service Learning



Key Terms

community service
debriefing
facilitator
orientation
recorder
reflection
reporter
service learning
timekeeper

What You Will Learn to Do

- Identify the components of service learning

Linked Core Abilities

- Apply critical thinking techniques

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain Along the Way

- Compare the types of service opportunities within your community
- Identify the benefits of serving others within a community
- Associate the roles and responsibilities of service learning teams
- Define key words contained in this lesson

Introduction

You have probably noticed that people who seem to find the most satisfaction in life are those actively engaged in doing something to make the world a better place for everyone. They seem happy because they are making a difference. Have you ever helped a friend through a difficult time or done something similar to stopping to help change a flat tire or take food to a sick neighbor? Then you know why people who help others appear to be more genuinely content with their lives.

Unfortunately, although you know you will feel good, it is probably not easy for you to get started. You are not alone. Many people find it awkward to reach out. However, after you take those initial steps and begin making a difference, the difficulties disappear. Feelings of accomplishment and generosity of spirit make the effort and time you spent worthwhile.

So how do you get started in service? First, look around you. There are problems and people in need everywhere. You do not have to look very far to find hunger, illiteracy, pollution, illness, poverty, neglect, and loneliness. Decide on an urgent need or one that you find most compelling. What matters most is that you make a commitment to address the need in a positive way.

After you have chosen a need, select a project that will help you accomplish your goal of making a difference. President John F. Kennedy reminded everyone to, “Ask not what your country can do for you; ask what you can do for your country.” Planning and carrying out the **service learning** project will help you selflessly “do” for your neighbor, your community, your state, your country, and the world.

The author Aldous Huxley said, “Experience is not what happens to you; it’s what you do with what happens to you.” Service learning takes that belief to heart. It is not enough to take positive actions, you must learn from your actions. For example, starting a paper recycling program is a worthy project; it can become more meaningful when you learn more about why it is important, reflect on your experiences, identify what you learned, analyze how you’ve changed, and decide other ways you can recycle and help others commit to recycling.

Service learning experiences can become the starting point for self-awareness, self-improvement, and self-fulfillment. In the process of making a difference for others, you make a difference in yourself.

What Is Service Learning?

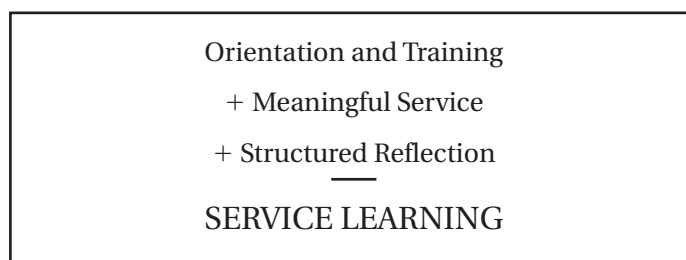
Service learning is an active and experiential learning strategy where students have a direct impact on an identified need that interests and motivates them. It requires sequential lessons that are organized so **orientation** and training come before the meaningful service activity and structured reflection follows the activity.

Key Note Term

service learning – an environment where one can learn and develop by actively participating in organized service experiences within one’s own community.

Key Note Term

orientation – the act or process of orienting or being oriented, such as being oriented on the first day of college.



Structured Teamwork

Service learning requires active participation in structured teamwork. Working within small teams and solving problems together will help you become active participants. Each member is assigned a team role, including:

- **Facilitator** (The facilitator leads team discussions to identify needs and prepare service learning activities.)
- **Recorder** (The recorder takes notes for the team and organizes information.)
- **Reporter** (The reporter represents the team voice and reports team findings.)
- **Timekeeper** (The timekeeper keeps track of time and plans the schedule.)
- **Debrief** (The debriefer encourages team members and leads discussion after presentation.)

Cadet teams should determine, plan, and execute service-learning activities with the aid of their instructor.

Orientation and Training

Orientation and training activities are necessary to prepare you and other participants for the service experience. Integrating what you are learning in class with the service activity is a key goal of service learning. This step requires in-class lessons, followed by selecting a service project that relates to the curriculum and meets academic standards.

You should be familiar enough with the material to conduct the service project you have selected. Part of the planning process will require you to determine what you need to know before the activity and to train yourself accordingly.

If possible, speak with representatives or others involved with the service you have selected to see what to expect. Orient yourself with the service goals, those you will be helping, other organizations or people that you may need to contact, and so on. In other words, learn what you need to know before starting the service experience and plan for all potential circumstances.

Key Note Term

facilitator – one who facilitates; one who leads team discussion.

recorder – one who takes notes for the team and organizes information.

reporter – one who represents the team voice and reports team findings.

timekeeper – one who keeps track of time and plans the schedule.

debrief – one who encourages team members and leads discussions after presentation and team discussion.

Meaningful Service

It is your responsibility to initiate and plan service activities to correspond to the lesson material. Although there should be at least 15 cadets per service experience, you can either work in committees on one project or small teams on separate projects. For example, you may want to divide the project components among three teams of five cadets each. Learning should be an active and social experience that is meaningful to you and those involved. Within your teams, choose a service activity that:

- Addresses a real and important need another group is not addressing
- Is interesting and challenging
- Connects you to others within the community or world
- Challenges you to develop new skills
- Requires little or no money
- Is achievable within the time available
- Has a positive effect on others

Structured Reflection

Reflection, or taking time to observe, analyze, and integrate actions with learning, is an important part of the learning process. A strong reflection helps you develop skills and extend learning from the service experience. You may use many types of reflection: learning logs and essays; team and class discussions; performances; graphic organizers; and public presentations. Using learning logs throughout the experience to record thoughts, feelings, knowledge and processes will help you organize what you have learned.

Within your teams, share what you have learned by discussing your answers to open-ended questions before, during, and after each service experience. Reflection questions should encourage observation, analysis and integration.

Community Service Versus Service Learning

Community service in many states is dispensed by a judge or court system as mandatory work for infractions of the law. Some students and members of the community view this type of service as punishment. What students learn is that they don't ever want to be forced to do "service" again. Today, many high schools include community service hours as a graduation requirement and though intentions are good, sometimes the emphasis is on quantity of hours, not quality of the project.

Service learning, on the other hand, is a step up from community service; it brings academics to life and is driven by student involvement. You should identify essential needs in your school or community, and then decide on your own projects. In addition, you should plan and carry out your own projects and take responsibility for your own learning. Reflecting on the experience will reveal the importance of your service work and the impact you are making on yourself and others.

Key Note Term

reflection – a thought, idea, or opinion formed or a remark made as a result of mediation; consideration of some subject matter, idea, or purpose.

Key Note Term

community service – any form of service provided for the community or common good.

Why Use Service Learning?

Service learning is rapidly growing in popularity around the country. Students who are able to learn about the world around them and work to improve it as part of their education reap many benefits. Such students:

- **Learn more**
- **Earn better grades**
- **Come to school more often**
- **Demonstrate better behavior**
- **Become more civic minded**
- **Gain a first-hand appreciation and understanding of people from other cultures, races, and generations**
- **See the connections between school and “real life”**
- **Feel better about themselves**
- **Learn skills they can use after leaving school**

Service learning provides a safe environment where you can learn, make mistakes, have successes, and develop by actively participating in organized service experiences within your community. For example, such experiences might include:

- **Meeting actual community needs by providing meaningful service**
- **Coordinating in partnership with the school and community**
- **Integrating these service opportunities into an academic curriculum, thereby enhancing what your school teaches, extending your learning beyond the classroom, and offering unique learning experiences**
- **Providing you with opportunities to use previously and newly acquired academic skills and knowledge in real-life situations in your own community**
- **Providing structured time for you to think, talk, and write about what you did and saw during your actual service activity**
- **Helping you to develop a sense of caring for others**

Providing service can be a powerful tool in the development of attitudes and behavior. It can transform young adults from passive recipients into active providers, and in so doing, redefine the perception of their involvement in the community from a cause of problems to a source of solutions.

Important skills you will need to work successfully to accomplish each service learning activity are similar to those identified in the Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills (SCANS) report. There are several important skills and qualities identified in the SCANS to ensure students are prepared for the workforce. The following are just a few of those skills service learning can help you strengthen.

- Being an effective team member
- Providing resource and time management
- Engaging in frequent and effective communication
- Making decisions
- Organizing and being responsible
- Effectively managing personal problems such as poor writing skills, lack of research skills, or stereotyping

Conclusion

When combined with formal education, service becomes a method of learning or “service learning.” Learning is maximized by combining the three main service learning components: orientation and training, meaningful service, and structured reflection.

Service learning is the single learning strategy that can accomplish the most good for the greatest number of people. Studies suggest that service learning reinforces curriculum content and standards, and benefits participants academically, as well as personally and socially. By getting involved to help meet different needs, you have the potential to make a difference to someone specific or to the entire community.

Lesson Review

1. Who do you know that might benefit from your participation in service learning?
2. Define the term “learning logs.”
3. Compare and contrast community service and service learning.
4. List five benefits from your participation in service learning.

Lesson 2

Plan and Train for Your Exploratory Project



Key Terms

experimental learning
exploratory project
field education
problem-based learning
training

What You Will Learn to Do

- Prepare for a service learning project

Linked Core Abilities

- Build your capacity for life-long learning
- Communicate using verbal, non-verbal, visual, and written techniques
- Do your share as a good citizen in your school, community, country, and the world

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain Along the Way

- Select an exploratory project
- Identify the steps needed to conduct a service learning experience

- Identify the essential components of a chosen service learning project
- Develop a plan addressing various circumstances and outcomes of the project
- Define key words contained in this lesson

Introduction

There are several points to consider before undergoing service learning. Planning ahead will prepare you both mentally and physically to undertake the challenge. Before you select a service learning project in class, your instructor should familiarize you with service learning by guiding you in an **exploratory project** within the community. This will help you select a service project and demonstrate the steps to conducting a proper service learning experience.

Exploratory Project Purpose

The exploratory project is an introduction to a service learning activity that utilizes **experiential learning** and **problem-based learning** principles. The purpose of a teacher-planned exploratory project is to provide students with a meaningful experience, expose them to how it feels to serve, and to stimulate their thinking about possible service learning activities.

One of the primary benefits of engaging in an exploratory project is to understand what service learning entails. Service learning is not community service, although many confuse the two. Until you participate in service learning, you will not have a real-life experience to justify the difference.

Exploratory projects help you capture a vision of how to make a difference in the world. After you get involved, you may begin to see the world through different glasses. In addition, as you work to address one need in the community, several other unmet needs will begin to surface. Your vision of the world may change when you begin to see critical needs where you never saw them before.

Suggested introductory projects could include going to a hospital or nursing home to visit residents, distributing food at a food bank, or volunteering at a local Red Cross program.

Service Learning Steps

Before participating in service, familiarize yourself with the following steps to conduct a proper service learning experience:

Key Note Term

exploratory project – a teacher-planned introductory project to service learning, intended to provide students with a meaningful experience, expose them to how it feels to serve, and to stimulate their thinking about possible service learning activities.

experiential learning – gaining practical knowledge, skills, or practice from direct observation of or participation in events or in a particular activity.

problem-based learning – an instructional strategy that promotes active learning where problems form the focus and learning stimulus and problem-solving skills are utilized.

1. Complete a pre-assessment of skill level using the Personal Skills Map from the JROTC Success Profiler.
2. Determine a school, community, or national need you can fill relating to class curriculum.
3. Brainstorm and select a meaningful service project that meets proposed guidelines.
4. Start a learning log to record new knowledge, thoughts and feelings throughout all phases.
5. Plan and organize details of the service activity and discuss expectations.
6. Participate in a meaningful service activity that meets the service learning guidelines (Form 219-R).
7. Discuss and reflect on what you experienced (observation).
8. Discuss and reflect on what you gained from the experience (analysis).
9. Discuss and reflect on what you can do with the new information (integration).
10. Complete a project summary report and a final group evaluation form to judge teamwork and other activities.
11. Brief the experience to community members, administration, classmates, and so on.
12. Complete a post-assessment using the Personal Skills Map and related analysis to determine a plan of action.

Choosing a Service Activity

After participating in an exploratory project, you should be able to select your own service activity that meets an important need and integrates the curriculum.

It is very important that you participate in selecting a service activity that is meaningful to you and others. Brainstorm service ideas relative to the lesson curriculum and program at hand. Then as a class or team, select the service activity.

Service learning opportunities can use **field education** principles to incorporate scholastic programs with the curriculum. You can integrate programs such as:

- **Lions-Quest Skills for Action®**
- **Groundhog Job Shadow Day®**
- **NEFE High School Financial Planning Program®**
- **You the People®**
- **Chief Justice®**
- **Cadet Ride®**

Key Note Term

field education – performing service and training to enhance understanding with a field of study.

In field education, you perform the service as a part of a **training** program designed primarily to enhance understanding of a field of study while providing substantial emphasis on the service.

Besides integrating curriculum and service, you will learn more about the different types, models, and terms of service in the next lesson, “Project Reflection and Integration.”

Key Note Term

training – to form by or undergo instruction, discipline, or drill; to teach so as to make fit, qualified, or proficient.

Planning the Service

After you have chosen an activity, you must plan the essential facets for project completion and prepare or train yourself for what is to come.

This is where service learning begins. Service learning efforts should start with clearly stated goals and development of a plan of action that encourages cadet responsibility. You can achieve those goals through structured preparation and brainstorming such as discussion, writing, reading, observation, and the service itself. Keep the goals consistent with the level of the activity planned and ensure that the goals and plan of action draw upon the skills and knowledge of your team. When corresponding goals to the curriculum, try to determine academic content standards you will address through the service.

Besides determining goals and standards, plans should be comprehensive to ensure adequate preparation for each step or task. Determine a description of the task(s) and answer the questions:

- **Who will be involved?**
- **What is involved and needs to be done?**
- **When will each step take place?**
- **Where will it all take place?**
- **Why will we do it?**
- **How will it work?**

For example, you might decide to visit a local veterans hospital. You could discover the needs of the elderly patients that reside there by discussions with the hospital’s administrative personnel or possibly by meeting with the residents themselves. You should also determine where the project fits into the curriculum. Together, you might decide that the patients need to have younger people help them write letters to family members, assist with their wellness and fitness, or plan and lead activities.

If you are aware of children who have a hard time learning to read, you could plan a service activity to a local elementary school. Because teachers rarely have extra time on their hands to spend one-on-one with those children, certain schools may welcome JROTC cadets who could come and spend time reading or listening to the children read. You do not have to limit this service to reading. Consider helping in

Service Learning Success Story

During lessons on Planning and Social Responsibility, cadets in Gastonia, North Carolina, decided to plant a garden at a nursing home. Their pre-planning resulted in a specially designed, waist-high “no stoop garden” so seniors could help maintain the plants and flowers. This is a good example of how the needs of the elderly were taken into consideration when the garden plan was developed.

mathematics or other subjects. Remember to maximize the use of your participating cadets’ skills and knowledge. Contact your local Junior Achievement office at <http://www.ja.org> for more service learning suggestions to help teach elementary students. You can also find service learning project ideas by searching the Internet.

Do not forget to accomplish the administrative details during the preparation phase. Teams often overlook these requirements or assume that someone else will do them. You must obtain permission from school administrators to conduct the service learning activity as a field trip and arrange for transportation, lunch, and parental release/permission slips for participating cadets, and the necessary supplies and equipment to perform the activity. Invite administrators, counselors, community members, and so on to be on your Advisory Board so that they will become more involved with your project.

Training for the Service

Before participating in the service activity, prepare yourself for different circumstances or outcomes. This may involve learning about the subject matter you will be expected to know to complete the tasks you have laid out, or discussing different outcomes and expectations within your teams. Try your best to be prepared for different situations you may encounter. Within teams, or as a class, brainstorm and discuss potential hazards you may encounter, and precautions you should take to make the task run smoothly.

Pretend you are taking a bus to a children’s hospital with a group of cadets to tutor sick children who cannot be in school. You may need to train yourselves on particular academic subjects/content, research what grade levels will be represented, and locate the hospital. Also, make sure to pair up and plan a meeting time and place.

Executing the Service

In this phase, there are a few rules to remember. Arrive on time and always be courteous. You are representing your school and you should act accordingly at all times. Also, ensure that you understand the task or goal at hand. If you are not sure, ask an authority. They should be able to point you in the right direction. If you are a team leader, make sure your team members feel completely comfortable with the tasks. Finally, if a situation or problem arises that needs an authority’s attention (for example, an accident occurs and someone is hurt), take what actions you can and have someone contact the person in charge.

Being well organized and completely prepared are fundamental for a successful execution phase. For example, if you are going to build a garden such as the one mentioned earlier in this lesson:

- **Ensure you have the correct tools and supplies to complete the service.**
- **Know the name or names of the contacts for the particular service you are performing.**
- **Identify alternate group leaders in case there are absences.**
- **Assign cadets to work on projects according to their experience and abilities.**
- **Be thoroughly prepared to complete the task, but be flexible to make changes. Things may not go as you plan them.**

Remember, you are there to render a service for your community.

Conclusion

The exploratory project will introduce you to service learning through active participation. From there, you will be ready to choose your own service activity. At that time, remember that good planning is the key to a successful service learning venture. Training may be necessary to complete the task, and learning should be the focus as well as making a difference through service.

You should now be prepared to use the proposed steps and planning procedures to conduct a proper service learning experience.

Lesson Review

1. **Define the term “problem-based learning.”**
2. **Why is it important to participate in a service activity that means something to you?**
3. **What materials might you need if you were visiting children in a hospital?**
4. **Name three projects in your community you might want to join.**
5. **What are the steps needed to conduct a service learning experience?**

Lesson 3

Project Reflection and Integration



Key Terms

advocacy service
after action review
analysis
direct service
indirect service
integration
observation
placement
project

What You Will Learn to Do

- Evaluate the effectiveness of a service learning project

Linked Core Abilities

- Communicate using verbal, non-verbal, visual, and written techniques
- Apply critical thinking techniques

Skills and Knowledge You Will Gain Along the Way

- Relate the projected goals of a service learning project to the final outcomes
- Identify ways to integrate service learning into the JROTC curriculum
- Outline service learning objectives for the future
- Define key words

Introduction

Now that you have an idea of what service learning is all about, what comes next? After the exploratory project, you will be able to determine and conduct appropriate service learning activities. Before choosing activities, you should know about the models, terms, and types of service available, and how to integrate service with what you are learning in class.

After you have completed a service activity, you should follow it up with a structured reflection, demonstration of learning, and evaluation of the service learning.

Short-term Versus Long-term Service

You need to understand how to meet others' needs through either short-term or long-term service activities. Short-term service projects include:

- Restoring a historical monument during history lessons
- Raising money at an event for charity during financial planning lessons
- Visiting a nursing home while discussing wellness and fitness issues

Long-term service projects include:

- Adopting a local waterway while studying environmental issues
- Setting up an advocacy campaign to raise financial resources for shelters during financial planning lessons
- Organizing an after-school tutoring program during lessons on teaching skills

Models of Service

Service can be done anywhere to reinforce what you are learning in class; you do not even have to leave the school grounds. The two models of service include **projects** and **placements**.

Project Model

Service learning projects are initiated and planned by cadets with instructor guidance. Tutoring elementary children in subjects you are currently studying or starting a recycling program based on information from your geography lessons are examples of service projects.

Key Note Term

projects – a task or problem engaged in usually by a group of students to supplement and apply classroom studies; service learning projects are initiated and planned by cadets with instructor guidance.

placement – service learning activities carried out beyond the classroom in a pre-existing, structured situation.

Placement Model

Service learning placements are activities carried out beyond the classroom in a preexisting, structured situation. The placement organization typically assigns responsibilities to students individually. Examples include: teaching lessons for Junior Achievement, or volunteering for Special Olympics during fitness lessons.

Three Types of Service

The three types of service are **direct**, **indirect**, and **advocacy**. These service types are described in the following sections.

Direct Service

Direct service involves face-to-face contact with those being served in either project or placement models of service learning. Examples of direct service include working in a soup kitchen or working with disadvantaged children while you are studying about group communication.

Indirect Service

Indirect service requires hands-on involvement in a service activity without any face-to-face contact with those served. An example would be raising money for a veterans hospital or e-mailing deployed soldiers during your military lessons unit.

Advocacy Service

Advocacy services do not require face-to-face contact with those served. Advocacy involves speaking out on behalf of an issue or cause. For example, starting a school-wide poster campaign to teach others about an issue would be an advocacy service.

Integrating Service Learning

Because the learning should equal the service in service learning, it is important to integrate classroom content with the chosen service. Service learning should reinforce curriculum content and standards for you to benefit academically, personally, and socially. Applying content standard material to real-life experiences will give you a better understanding of the curriculum.

When conducting a service learning project, take time to pinpoint the standards you should address and ways to assess your learning. As a team or class, consider:

- **What standards are we addressing?**
- **What should we know or be able to do?**
- **What assessments can illustrate our learning?**

Key Note Term

direct service – involves face-to-face contact with those being served in either project or placement models of service learning.

indirect service – requires hands-on involvement in a service activity without any face-to-face contact with those served.

advocacy service – does not require face-to-face contact with those served; involves speaking out on behalf of an issue or cause.

Not only will you fulfill an important need with your service project, you will be learning the national standards in a more relevant and engaging manner.

Service Learning Examples

Field education integrates curriculum programs with service learning. This section presents examples of how you can integrate service learning with curriculum related programs, including:

- **Lions-Quest Skills for Action®**
- **You the People®/Chief Justice®**
- **Groundhog Job Shadow Day®**
- **Cadet Ride®**
- **Winning Colors®**
- **NEFE High School Financial Planning Program®**

Lions-Quest Skills for Action®

Lions-Quest Skills for Action (SFA) is a student-centered program based on combining learning with service. The program is divided into four parts and a Skills Bank. The program curriculum is an elective that advocates service, character, citizenship, and responsibility.

The Skills for Action curriculum helps guide you through the crucial steps of conducting service learning activities. Those steps include identifying needs, choosing and planning a project to address the need, carrying out the project, and reflecting on experiences and exploring what was learned throughout the project.

You the People and Chief Justice®

There are a variety of ways to incorporate service learning with You the People (YTP) and Chief Justice. After you are grounded in YTP citizenship skills and have formed groups, you can identify a service learning activity to integrate into the skill-building curriculum.

For example, you could create, circulate, and publicize a petition that addresses a community issue and create a videotape to document the issue for community officials.

Groundhog Job Shadow Day®

Groundhog Job Shadow Day (GJSD) is a nationwide effort to introduce students to the skills and education needed to make it in today's job market by letting them explore various career options.

For example, you may decide to start a Job Shadow effort to link the schools to the community; then organize a career day or GJSD to make it possible for high school students in the community to explore different career opportunities.

For details about the program, go to <http://www.jobshadow.org>.

Cadet Ride®

The Cadet Ride is an extension of American history that allows you to choose different historical characters to research. You can reenact them on site or in the classroom and then complete a related service learning activity.

You first need to identify issues that still relate to the community today, such as homeless veterans or victims of terrorist attacks; then take time to discuss how you can use what you have learned to improve the community/world issue. Finally, complete a related service learning activity, taking time to reflect on each phase of the experience.

Project examples used with the Cadet Ride include supporting war memorials or assisting in veterans' hospitals or shelters. Specifically, you could decide to educate others on the service of Lieutenant General Maude, who died in the line of duty at the Pentagon on 11 September 2001. In addition, you could plan a memorial for him and/or other victims to commemorate the acts of war that occurred at the World Trade Center, the Pentagon, and in Pennsylvania.

Winning Colors®

Winning Colors states that everyone is capable of developing decision-making, thinking, feeling, and action behaviors. One example of a service learning project would be to teach senior citizens or elementary students about Winning Colors, how to discover their personal needs, and develop a plan to help them achieve a successful balance.

Note

You can earn two hours of college credit with Winning Colors and a service learning project. Ask your JROTC Instructor for more details.

For more information about Winning Colors go to <http://www.winningcolors.com>.

NEFE High School Financial Planning Program®

The National Endowment for Financial Education (NEFE) High School Financial Planning Program® (HSFPP) is designed to teach practical money management skills to introduce financial planning through course work. Numerous service learning activities can be integrated into the NEFE HSFPP curriculum.

Note

You can earn two hours of college credit when you do the NEFE curriculum and a service learning project. Ask your JROTC Instructor for more details.

Suggested service learning activities related to the NEFE HSFP include:

- Teach elementary students Junior Achievement material in relation to HSFP
- Provide a budget assistance program
- Host a Credit Awareness or Financial Fitness Fair
- Develop budgets and spreadsheets for local services
- Start an Investment Club in school
- Design, produce, and distribute informative posters
- Comparison-shop for homebound seniors' groceries

For more information, call NEFE at (303) 224-3510, or visit <http://www.nefe.org>.

Integration with Additional Unit Content

Besides using applicable curriculum programs in service learning, you may decide to integrate additional content and services. The key is to connect the service activity with course curriculum.

For example, after studying harmful effects of tobacco/drugs, you could teach elementary school kids by putting together an anti-drug advocacy program. You could create banners, skits and instructional materials, then plan and coordinate the elementary program teachings.

After the Service

After the service, you will participate in an **after action review** so you can reflect, demonstrate, and evaluate. This will be done in three phases, as described in the following sections.

Structured Reflection Phase

Remember, a strong reflection helps develop skills and extend your learning from the service experience. Besides keeping a running learning log of entries, you should hold team discussions to answer open-ended questions before, during, and after each service experience. Sharing what you learned with your teammates and listening to others, will add to your learning experience.

Types of reflection questions to ask about the service learning experience include:

Key Note Term

after action review – reflecting on what was learned after an act.

Key Note Term

observation – an act or instance of examining a custom, rule, or law; an act of recognizing and noting a fact or occurrence.

analysis – a study of something complex, its elements, and their relations.

integration – the act or process or an instance of forming, coordinating, or blending into a functioning or unified whole.

- **Observation/What—What did I do?**
- **Analysis/So What—What did it mean to me?**
- **Integration/Now What—What will I do because of what I accomplished or learned?**

This phase provides you with a structured opportunity to think about what you just did for your community and to describe the feelings that stimulated your actions throughout this activity. Experience indicates that reflection is the key to successful service learning programs.

After you actually perform the service, you should come together as a group to contemplate your service experiences in a project summary report, learning logs, essays, and class discussions. In doing so, you should thoroughly describe what happened during the activity; record any differences your activity actually made; and try to place this experience in a larger context. Specifically, do you believe you successfully accomplished your service learning goals? If not, why? What can you do better the next time? Share your feelings and thoughts. Discuss experiences that made you happy, sad, or angry, events that surprised or frightened you, and other topics related to the activity.

Demonstration Phase

In the demonstration phase, you share with others your mastery of skills, creative ideas, and the outcomes from this project; then identify the next steps to take to benefit the community. The actual demonstration can take many different forms. For example, you might:

- Give a presentation to peers, faculty, or community members about the activity.
- Write articles or letters to local newspapers regarding issues of public concern.
- Extend the experience to develop future projects that could benefit the community.

EVALUATION PHASE: Evaluating Service Learning

A goal in JROTC is to couple high service with high integration of course content to maximize learning and skill development, as well as meet identified needs. When evaluating your service learning activities, reflect upon accomplishments and determine ways to improve.

High service meets a clear and important need and is organized and implemented by students. High integration with curriculum addresses classroom goals, incorporates classroom content, and improves course-related knowledge and skills. Use the following quadrants to rate your service learning experience.

Quadrant 1

Example: After studying financial planning lessons from the National Endowment of Financial Education, cadets teach Junior Achievement lessons to elementary students and assist them in making posters to advocate financial responsibility.

Quadrant 2

Example: Cadets organize a drive for stuffed animals and blankets after learning about work skills and participating in Groundhog Job Shadow Day.

Quadrant 3

Example: Teacher directs cadets to send e-mail to deployed service members after studying a historic event through a cadet ride.

Quadrant 4

Example: Teacher assigns cadets to perform a color guard in the community after studying lessons in You the People.

Service Learning Authentic Assessments

Authentic assessments that evaluate the service activity and student learning are imperative to a successful service learning initiative. Choose assessment tools that measure and affirm learning, program goals, and impact on the need identified, to determine potential improvements.

Service learning lends itself to performance-based assessment, enabling you to exhibit what you have learned in a hands-on and meaningful context. Be sure to take advantage of college credits available through service learning and your curriculum.

Conclusion

In addition to teaching you the value of volunteering, service learning fosters your development of citizenship skills, as well as personal, social and thinking skills. It teaches service responsibilities and prepares future service commitments. Most importantly, service learning builds a spirit of cooperation among you, your peers, the school, and the community.

Lesson Review

1. List the three types of services and give an example of each.
2. Choose one service learning curriculum-related program and discuss it.
3. Define the term “placement.”
4. State what you learn through the evaluation phase.

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*“To motivate young people
to be better citizens”*



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