

Basic Course Guided Doctrinal Reading



CES Basic Course students enhance their abilities as civilian Army leaders who exercise either formal and/or informal leadership as members of the Army Profession.

Army Civilian Corps Creed

*I am an Army Civilian - a member of the Army Team
I am dedicated to our Army, our Soldiers and Civilians I
will always support the mission
I provide stability and continuity during war and peace
I support and defend the Constitution of the United States and
consider it an honor to serve our Nation and our Army
I live the Army values of Loyalty, Duty, Respect, Selfless Service,
Honor, Integrity, and Personal Courage*

I am an Army Civilian

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Preface

This file contains specifically selected excerpts from various Army doctrinal manuals. The excerpts in this collection serve as a resource to provide you easy access to the readings you need to successfully complete this online course. Additionally, this file will help prepare you with the baseline knowledge necessary for the two week Basic Course (BC) Phase II (Resident) course. All of the final exam questions are located within these excerpts.

The BC Phase I (DL) course introduces you to the five (5) Basic Course graduate outcomes that result in graduates who are:

- Problem solvers who think critically and understand basic Army problem solving methodology.
- Communicate effectively by speaking and writing clearly, concisely and persuasively.
- Understand and apply elements of effective leader interpersonal skills
- Understand and apply basic leadership principles to effectively lead small teams.
- Embrace personal and professional development for self and subordinates as part of the requirement for Army service.

Full achievement of these BC graduate outcomes occurs with successful completion of both the BC Phase I (DL) and the BC Phase II (Resident) courses.

The subjects in this Guided Doctrinal Reading flow in the same sequence as they occur in the BC Phase II (Resident) course:

- Self-Development
- Army Writing
- Briefing and Public Speaking
- Critical Thinking
- Leadership Styles
- Problem Solving
- Team Building
- Coaching, Counseling, Mentoring
- Values and Ethics
- Leadership Philosophy

Each doctrinal extract in this reading file begins with a short narrative that describes the reading's relevance to you.

Please take your time to read and understand the contents of this file to help you prepare for the final exam. Also, consider printing this document for your future reference and continued use including the two-week BC Phase II (Resident) course.

Self-Development

This reading provides you with knowledge in the areas of self-development and self-awareness. You will explore these topics in depth at Basic Course Phase II (Resident).

Extracted from the Army Self Development Handbook

SELF-DEVELOPMENT IN THE ARMY

The Army defines self-development as planned, goal-oriented learning that reinforces and expands the depth and breadth of an individual's knowledge base, self-awareness, and situational awareness. Self-development will complement what you have learned in the classroom and on the job, enhance your professional competence, and help you meet your objectives.

ARMY SELF DEVELOPMENT HANDBOOK

The Army accomplishes a wide array of missions in diverse and unusual circumstances around the world. At the same time, the Army is engaged in a massive and accelerated transformation that will infuse new organizations, technologies, and capabilities throughout the Army. To meet the recurring challenges, Army personnel must supplement institutional and organizational training and education with continuous, planned self-development.

Self-development is also important to achieving your personal and professional goals. Maybe you want to qualify for an advanced level in your career or for a different career track all together. Maybe you lack skills or knowledge. Or, maybe there is something you've just always wanted to learn or become more knowledgeable about. Whatever the case you can use the information and exercises in this Self-Development Handbook to set your direction for self-development and help you take action.

Your personal growth benefits both you and the Army. Due to the diversity of the Army's missions and needs, there are many self-development topics to study— from gaining leadership skills to learning a new language. No matter what you choose to focus on, you will make yourself and your current or future organization more adaptable, agile, and resilient by adding depth and variety of expertise. There are three types of self-development the Army considers:

- **Structured Self-Development:** Required learning that continues throughout your career and that is closely linked to and synchronized with classroom and on-the-job learning.
- **Guided Self-Development:** Recommended but optional learning that will help keep you prepared for changing technical, functional, and leadership responsibilities throughout your career.
- **Personal Self-Development:** Self-initiated learning where you define the objective, pace, and process.

Wherever you find yourself in the journey for professional growth one-way to assist your self-development plan with organizing it:

- Recognizing strengths and weaknesses (*What are you good and not so good at?*)
- Setting or confirming self-development direction (*Where should you go?*)
- Making the most of learning opportunities (*How do you learn?*)
- Measuring progress and continuing to move forward (*How well are you doing?*)

Personal development is key for an Army Leader to be a Life Long Learner. Before you can set your self-development direction on you need to understand your current strengths and weaknesses. This is part of being self-aware.

- What are you good at? Maybe you excel at fixing engines, teaching others, or performing physically demanding activities. When using your strengths, times flies by and you learn quickly.
- What are you not so good at? Weaknesses are the areas where you feel uncomfortable, bored, ineffective, or frustrated. Maybe it's hard for you to speak in front of groups or to work with numbers.

Chances are, you have more strengths than you think (and possibly more weaknesses). The first step in identifying your strengths and weaknesses is to think about what you do and how well you do it. At a minimum, this information comes from your own self-examination. However, it is a good idea to get information about yourself from outside sources, such as formal assessments and others who know you, so that you can have this information in mind as you conduct a self-examination.

This chapter will help you identify your strengths and weaknesses by giving you the tools you need to:

- Collect results from formal assessments (such as evaluations and tests).
- Gather feedback from others.
- Perform a self-exam.
- Identify your strengths and weaknesses.

Army Writing

Civilian Army leaders that write effectively can influence others through clear concise written communications. Basic Course Phase II (Resident) students are required to complete one individual writing assignment in accordance with the Army Writing Style. This excerpt from AR 25-50 introduces you to the Army Writing Style.

Extracted from Army Regulation 25–50, Preparing and Managing Correspondence, 17 May 2013

Section IV - Effective Writing and Correspondence: The Army Writing Style

1–36. STANDARDS FOR ARMY WRITING

- a. Effective Army writing is understood by the reader in a single rapid reading and is free of errors in substance, organization, style, and correctness in accordance with PL 111–274.
- b. Army writing will be concise, organized, and to the point. Two essential requirements include putting the main point at the beginning of the correspondence (bottom line up front) and using the active voice (for example, “You are entitled to jump pay for the time you spent in training last year”).
- c. The standard English sentence order, subject-verb-object, works best. It speeds communication and helps the reader understand the main point.
- d. Active voice writing—
 - (1) Emphasizes the actor of the sentence.
 - (2) Shows who or what does the action in the sentence and puts the actor before the verb.
 - (3) Creates shorter sentences. By eliminating passive voice, you reduce the number of words in a sentence.
 - a) Passive voice: The test was passed by SGT Jones (seven words).
 - b) Active voice: SGT Jones passed the test (five words).
- e. Passive voice is easy to recognize. A passive construction occurs when the object of an action becomes the subject of the sentence. A verb in the passive voice uses any form of the verb “to be” (for example, am, is, are, was, were, be, being, and been), plus a past participle of the verb, which usually ends in “en” or “ed” (for example, were completed, is requested). Additionally, in passive voice the subject receives the action instead of taking the action.

Briefing and Public Speaking

Military briefings are how we as Army employees conduct formal oral communications.

Extracted from FM 6-0, 5 May 2014 Commander and Staff Organization and Operations

Military Briefings

This chapter describes the four types of military briefings presented to commanders, staffs, or other audiences and describes the steps of these military briefings. It also provides instructions for developing military briefings.

TYPES OF MILITARY BRIEFINGS

7-1. The Army uses four types of briefings: information, decision, mission, and staff.

INFORMATION BRIEFING

7-2. An information briefing presents facts in a form the audience can easily understand. It does not include conclusions or recommendations, nor does it result in decisions. The main parts of an information briefing are the introduction, main body, and conclusion. (See figure 7-1.)

1. Introduction

Greeting. Address the audience. Identify yourself and your organization.

Type and Classification of Briefing. Identify the type and classification of the briefing. For example, "This is an information briefing. It is unclassified."

Purpose and Scope. Describe complex subjects from general to specific.

Outline or Procedure. Briefly summarize the key points and general approach. Explain any special procedures (such as demonstrations, displays, or tours). For example, "During my briefing, I will discuss the six phases of our plan. I will refer to maps of our area of operations. Then my assistant will bring out a sand table to show you the expected flow of battle." The key points may be placed on a chart that remains visible throughout the briefing.

2. Main Body

Arrange the main ideas in a logical sequence.

Use visual aids to emphasize main points.

Plan effective transitions from one main point to the next.

Be prepared to answer questions at any time.

3. Closing

Ask for questions.

Briefly recap main ideas and make a concluding statement.

Figure 7-1. Information briefing format example

7-3. Examples of appropriate topics for information briefings include, but are not limited to-

- High-priority information requiring immediate attention.
- Information such as complicated plans, systems, statistics or charts, or other items that require detailed explanations.
- Information requiring elaboration and explanation.

DECISION BRIEFING

7-4. A decision briefing obtains the answer to a question or a decision on a course of action. The briefer presents recommended solutions from the analysis or study of a problem. Decision briefings vary informality and level of detail depending on the commander's or decision-maker's knowledge of the subject.

7-5. If the decision-maker is unfamiliar with the problem, the briefing format adheres to the decision briefing format. (See figure 7-2.) Decision briefings include all facts and assumptions relevant to the problem, a discussion of alternatives, analysis-based conclusions, and any coordination required.

7-6. When the decision-maker is familiar with the subject or problem, the briefing format often resembles that of a decision paper: problem statement, essential background information, impacts, and recommended solution. In addition to this format, briefers must be prepared to present assumptions, facts, alternative solutions, reasons for recommendations, and any additional coordination required.

1. Introduction

Greeting. Address the decision-maker. Identify yourself and your organization.
"This is a decision briefing."

Type and Classification of Briefing. Identify the type and classification of the briefing. For example, "This is a decision briefing. It is unclassified."

Problem Statement. State the problem.

Recommendation. State the recommendation.

2. Main Body

Facts. Provide an objective presentation of both positive and negative facts bearing upon the problem.

Assumptions. Identify necessary assumptions made to bridge any gaps in factual data.

Solutions. Discuss the various options that can solve the problem.

Analysis. List the screening and evaluation criteria by which the briefer will evaluate how to solve the problem. Discuss relative advantages and disadvantages for each course of action.

Comparison. Show how the courses of action rate against the evaluation criteria.

Conclusion. Describe why the recommended solution is best.

3. Closing

Ask for questions.

Briefly recap main ideas and restate the recommendation.

If no decision is provided upon conclusion of the decision briefing, request a decision. "Sir/Ma'am, what is your decision?" The briefer ensures all participants clearly understand the decision and asks for clarification if necessary.

Figure 7-2. Decision briefing format example

7-7. The briefer clearly states and precisely words a recommendation presented during decision briefings to prevent ambiguity and to translate it easily into a decision statement. If the decision requires an implementation document, briefers present that document at the time of the briefing for the decision-maker to sign. If the chief of staff or executive officer is absent, the briefer informs the secretary of the general staff or designated authority of the decision upon conclusion of the briefing.

MISSION BRIEFING

7-8. Mission briefings are information briefings that occur during operations or training. Briefers may be commanders, staffs, or special representatives.

7-9. Mission briefings serve to convey critical mission information not provided in the plan or order to individuals or small units. Mission briefings—

- Issue or enforce an order.
- Provide more detailed instructions or requirements.
- Instill a general appreciation for the mission.
- Review key points for an operation.
- Ensure participants know the mission objective, their contribution to the operation, problems they may confront, and ways to overcome them.

7-10. The nature and content of the information provided determines the mission briefing format. Typically a briefer will use the operation plan or order as a format for a mission briefing.

STAFF BRIEFING

7-11. Staff briefings inform the commander and staff of the current situation in order to coordinate and synchronize efforts within the unit. The individual convening the staff briefing sets the briefing agenda. Each staff element presents relevant information from its functional area. Staff briefings facilitate information exchange, announce decisions, issue directives, or provide guidance. The staff briefing format may include characteristics of the information briefing, decision briefing, and mission briefing. (See figure 7-1 [on page 7-1] and figure 7-2 for briefing formats.)

7-12. The commander, deputies or assistants, chiefs of staff or executive officers, coordinating personnel, and special staff officers often attend staff briefings. Representatives from other commands may also attend. The chief of staff or executive officer often presides over the briefing. The commander may take an active role during the briefing and normally concludes the briefing.

STEPS OF MILITARY BRIEFINGS

7-13. Staffs normally follow four steps when preparing an effective briefing:

- Plan—analyze the situation and prepare a briefing outline.
- Prepare—collect information and construct the briefing.

- Execute—deliver the briefing.
- Assess—follow up as required.

PLAN

7-14. Upon receipt of the task to conduct a briefing, the briefer analyzes the situation and determines the—

- Audience.
- Purpose and type of briefing.
- Subject.
- Classification.
- Physical facilities and support needed.
- Preparation timeline and schedule.

7-15. Based on the analysis, the briefer assembles a briefing outline and timeline. The briefing outline is the plan for the preparation, execution, and follow-up for the briefing. The timeline is a time management tool to manage briefing preparations and budget time if there is a need to refine the briefing as new information becomes available.

7-16. Briefers consider many factors while planning a briefing (see figure 7-3 on page 7-4). This planning includes, but is not limited to—

- Audience preferences for information delivery, such as how the decision-maker prefers to see information presented.
- Time available.
- Facilities and briefing aids available.

- Audience.
 - What is the size and composition? Single Service or joint? Civilians? Foreign nationals?
 - Who are the ranking members and their official duty positions?
 - How well do they know the subject?
 - Are they generalists or specialists?
 - What are their interests?
 - What is the anticipated reaction?
- Purpose and Type.
 - Information briefing (to inform)?
 - Decision briefing (to obtain decision)?
 - Mission briefing (to review important details)?
 - Staff briefing (to exchange information)?
- Subject.
 - What is the specific subject?
 - What is the desired depth of coverage?
 - How much time is allocated?
- Classification.
 - What is the security classification?
 - Do all attendees meet this classification?
- Physical Facilities and Support Needed.
 - Where is the briefing to be presented?
 - What support is needed?
 - What are the security requirements, if needed?
 - What are the equipment requirements? Computer? Projector? Screen?
- Preparation Timeline and Schedule.
 - Prepare preliminary outline.
 - Determine requirements for training aids, assistants, and recorders.
 - Schedule rehearsals, facilities, and critiques.
 - Arrange for final review by responsible authority.

Figure 7-3. Planning considerations for military briefings

7-17. The briefer then estimates deadlines for each task and schedules the preparation effort accordingly. The briefer alerts support personnel and any assistants as soon as possible.

PREPARE

7-17. The briefing construction varies with type and purpose. (See figure 7-4.) The analysis of the briefing determines the basis for this. Briefers follow these key steps to prepare a briefing:

- Collect materials needed.
- Prepare first draft.
- Revise first draft and edit.
- Plan use of visual aids.
- Check audiovisual delivery systems (computer and other technical aids) to ensure availability and functionality.
- Practice.

1. **Collect Materials Needed.**
*Use the seven-step Army problem-solving process. (See chapter 4.)
 Research.
 Become familiar with the subject. Collect authoritative
 opinions and facts.*
2. **Prepare First Draft.** *Prepare draft outline. Include visual aids.
 Review with appropriate authority.*
3. **Revise First Draft and Edit.**
*Verify facts, including those that are important and necessary.
 Include answers to anticipated questions. Refine materials.*
4. **Plan Use of Visual Aids.** *Check for simplicity. Check for
 readability.*
5. **Check Audiovisual delivery systems.**
Ensure availability and functionality.
6. **Practice.**
*Rehearse (with assistants and visual aids). Refine.
 Isolate key points. Memorize outline. Develop
 transitions.
 Anticipate and prepare for possible questions.*

Figure 7-4. Preparation considerations for military briefings

EXECUTE

7-19. The success of a briefing depends on a concise, objective, accurate, clearly enunciated, and forceful delivery. The briefer must also be confident and relaxed. The briefer should consider the following:

- The basic purpose is to present the subject as directed and ensure the audience understands it.
- Brevity precludes a lengthy introduction or summary.
- Conclusions and recommendations must flow logically from facts and assumptions.

7-20. Interruptions and questions may occur at any point. If they occur, briefers answer each question before continuing, or they indicate that they will answer the question later in the briefing. When briefers answer questions later in the briefing, they specifically reference the earlier question when they introduce material. They anticipate possible questions and are prepared to answer them.

ASSESS

7-21. When the briefing is over, the briefer conducts a follow-up, as required. To ensure understanding, the briefer prepares a memorandum for record. This memorandum records the subject, date, time, and location of the briefing as well as the ranks, names, and positions of audience members. The briefer concisely records the briefing's content to help ensure understanding. The briefer records recommendations and their approval, disapproval, or approval

with modification as well as instructions or directed actions. Recommendations can include who is to take action. The briefer records the decision. When a decision is involved and any ambiguity exists about the commander's intent, the briefer submits a draft of the memorandum for record for correction before preparing the final document. Lastly, the briefer informs proper authorities. The briefer distributes the final memorandum for record to staff elements and agencies required to act on the decisions or instructions or whose plans or operations may be affected.

Critical Thinking

Critical Thinking is an essential skill for Army civilian leaders. This is also a topic that is embedded in every Basic Course Phase II (Resident) lesson. The doctrinal excerpt below from ADRP 6-22 describes our Army's emphasis on this learned skill.

Extracted from ADRP 6-22, Army Leadership, August 2012

INTELLECT

BASICS OF AN ARMY LEADER'S INTELLECT

5-1. An Army leader's intellect draws on the mental tendencies and resources that shape conceptual abilities applied to one's duties and responsibilities. Conceptual abilities enable effective problem solving and sound judgment before implementing concepts and plans. They help one think creatively and reason analytically, critically, ethically, and with cultural sensitivity to consider unintended as well as intended consequences. Leaders must anticipate the second- and third-order effects of their actions.

5-2. The conceptual components affecting an Army leader's intellect include—

- Mental agility.
- Sound judgment.
- Innovation.
- Interpersonal tact.
- Expertise.

MENTAL AGILITY

5-3. Mental agility is a flexibility of mind, an ability to anticipate or adapt to uncertain or changing situations. Agility enables thinking through second- and third-order effects when current decisions or actions are not producing the desired results. Mental agility provides organizations with operational adaptability to develop situational understanding to seize, retain, and exploit the initiative.

5-4. Mental agility relies upon inquisitiveness and the ability to reason critically. Inquisitive leaders are eager to understand a broad range of topics and keep an open mind to multiple possibilities before reaching an optimal solution. Critical thinking is a thought process that aims to find facts, to think through issues, and solve problems. Central to decision-making, critical thinking enables understanding of changing situations, arriving at justifiable conclusions, making good judgments, and learning from experience. Critical and creative thinking are the basis for the Army Design Methodology to understand, visualize, and describe complex, ill-structured problems and develop approaches to solve them. Critical thinking captures the reflection and continuous learning essential to applying Army Design Methodology concepts. Creative thinking involves thinking in innovative ways while capitalizing on imagination, insight, and novel ideas.

5-5. Critical thinking examines a problem in depth from multiple points of view. This is an important skill for Army leaders—it allows them to influence others and shape organizations. The first and most important step in finding an appropriate solution is to isolate the main problem. A leader’s mental agility to quickly isolate a problem and identify solutions generates initiative to adapt during operations. Leaders must instill agility and initiative within subordinates by creating a climate that encourages participation and trust. Identifying and accepting honest mistakes in training makes subordinates more likely to develop initiative. These qualities are necessary in the generating force and the operational Army.

SOUND JUDGMENT

5-6. Judgment requires the capacity to assess situations shrewdly and to draw rational conclusions. Consistent good judgment enables leaders to form sound opinions and make reliable estimates and sensible decisions. Leaders acquire experience through trial and error and by observing others. Learning from others can occur through mentoring and coaching by superiors, peers, and even subordinates (see Part Three).

5-7. Often, leaders must juggle facts, questionable data, and intuitive feelings to arrive at a quality decision. Good judgment informs the best decision for the situation. It is a key attribute of transforming knowledge into understanding and quality execution.

5-8. Judgment contributes to an ability to determine possible courses of action and decide what action to take. Before choosing, leaders consider the consequences. Some sources that aid judgment are senior leaders’ intents, desired outcomes, laws, regulations, experience, and values. Good judgment includes the ability to assess subordinates, peers, and the enemy for strengths and weaknesses to create appropriate solutions and action. Like mental agility, it is a critical part of problem solving and decision-making.

INNOVATION

5-9. Innovation describes the ability to introduce something new when needed or as opportunities exist. Innovative leaders tend to be inquisitive and good problem solvers. Being innovative includes creativity in producing original and worthwhile ideas. Leaders should seize such opportunities to think creatively and to innovate. A key concept for creative thinking is developing new ideas and approaches to accomplish missions. Creative thinking uses adaptive approaches (drawing from previous circumstances) or innovative approaches (developing completely new ideas).

5-10. Leaders think creatively to adapt to new environments. Innovative leaders prevent complacency by finding new ways to challenge subordinates with forward-looking approaches and ideas. To be innovators, leaders rely on intuition, experience, knowledge, and input from subordinates. Innovative leaders reinforce team building by making everybody responsible for, and stakeholders in, the innovation process.

INTERPERSONAL TACT

5-11. Effectively interacting with others depends on knowing what others perceive. It relies on accepting the character, reactions, and motives of oneself and others. Interpersonal tact combines

these skills, along with recognizing diversity and displaying self-control, balance, and stability in situations.

RECOGNIZING DIVERSITY

5-12. Background, schooling, race, religion, and other factors shape Soldiers and Army Civilians. Personal perspectives vary within societal groups. By acknowledging differences, qualifications, contributions, and potential, Army leaders further strengthen the team effort by creating an environment where subordinates know they are valued for their talents, contributions, and differences. A leader's job is to employ the different capabilities and talents brought to the team to build the best possible team.

5-13. Army leaders should remain open to cultural diversity; it is unknown how the talents of individuals or groups will contribute to mission accomplishment. During World War II, Marines from the Navajo Nation formed a group of radio communications specialists called the Navajo Code Talkers. They handled command radio traffic in their native language—a unique talent. This significantly contributed to successful operations because the Japanese code breakers could not decipher their messages.

SELF-CONTROL

5-14. Effective leaders control their emotions. Leaders should display the right amount of sensitivity and passion to tap into subordinates' emotions, instead of hysterics or lack of emotion. Maintaining self-control inspires calm confidence in the team. Self-control encourages feedback from subordinates that can expand understanding of what is really happening. Self-control in combat is especially important for Army leaders. Leaders who lose their self-control cannot expect those who follow to maintain theirs.

EMOTIONAL FACTORS

5-15. An Army leader's self-control, balance, and stability greatly affect their ability to interact with others. People have hopes, fears, concerns, and dreams. Understanding that emotional energy sparks motivation and endurance is a powerful leadership tool. Giving constructive feedback helps mobilize the team's emotional energies to accomplish difficult missions.

5-16. Self-control, balance, and stability enable making ethical choices. An ethical leader successfully applies ethical principles to decision-making. It is critical for leaders to remain calm under pressure and expend energy on things they can positively influence and not worry about things they cannot.

BALANCE

5-17. Emotionally balanced leaders are able to display the right emotion for a given situation and can read others' emotional state. They draw on experience to provide subordinates the proper perspective on unfolding events. They have a range of attitudes, from relaxed to intense, with which to approach diverse situations. They know how to choose what is appropriate for the

circumstances. Balanced leaders know how to convey urgency without throwing the entire organization into chaos.

STABILITY

5-18. Effective leaders are steady, levelheaded when under pressure and fatigued, and calm in the face of danger. These characteristics stabilize subordinates who are always looking to their leader's example—

- Model the emotions for subordinates to display—calm and rational under pressure.
- Do not give in to the temptation to do what personally feels good.
- If under great stress, it might feel better to vent—but will that help the organization?

EXPERTISE

5-19. Expertise is the special knowledge and skill developed from experience, training, and education. Domain knowledge is what leaders know about application areas used in their duties and positions. Leaders create and use knowledge in at least four domains. Tactical knowledge relates to accomplishing a designated objective through military means. Technical knowledge consists of the specialized information associated with a particular function or system. Joint knowledge is an understanding of joint organizations, their procedures, and roles in national defense. Cultural and geopolitical knowledge is awareness of cultural, geographic, and political differences and sensitivities.

TACTICAL KNOWLEDGE

5-20. Army leaders know fundamentals, tactics, techniques, and procedures (TTP). Their tactical knowledge allows them to employ individuals, teams, and organizations effectively with the activities of systems (combat multipliers) to fight and win engagements and battles or to achieve other objectives. Competent readiness-focused leaders try to replicate actual operational conditions during training to develop tactical knowledge. Unfortunately, leaders cannot always take the entire unit to the field for full scale maneuvers. They must achieve maximum readiness by training parts of a scenario or a unit on the ground, while exercising larger echelons with simulations.

5-21. Field-craft describes the skills Soldiers require for self-sustainment during operations. Understanding and excelling at field-craft sets conditions for mission success and reduces the likelihood of casualties. Likewise, Army leaders ensure their Soldiers take care of themselves and provide the means to do so. Leaders gain proficiency in field-craft through formal training, study, and practice. They must enforce tactical discipline and ensure Soldiers practice field-craft to prevent future casualties.

TECHNICAL KNOWLEDGE

5-22. Technical knowledge relates to equipment, weapons, and systems—from individual weapons to systems that give leaders technical means to execute decisive action. Closer to their equipment than organizational and strategic leaders, direct leaders have a greater need to know how it works and how to use it. Subordinates expect their first-line leaders to be experts in the applicable technical skills.

5-23. Leaders ensure their subordinates know how to operate the organizations' equipment. They often set an example with a hands-on approach. When new equipment arrives, direct leaders learn how to use it and train their subordinates to do the same. Once individuals are trained, teams, and, in turn, units train together. Army leaders know understanding equipment strengths and weaknesses is critical.

5-24. Leaders need to know what value the equipment has for their operations and how to employ the item. At higher levels, the technical knowledge requirement shifts from understanding how to operate single items to employing entire systems. Higher-level leaders have a responsibility to understand capabilities and the organizational impact. Some organizational and strategic level leaders have general oversight responsibility for new system development. Their interests lay in understanding how systems affect doctrine, organizational design, training, related materiel, personnel, and facilities. They must provide the necessary resources to properly field, train, maintain, operate, inventory, and turn-in equipment.

JOINT KNOWLEDGE

5-25. Leaders acquire joint knowledge through formal training in the Joint Professional Military Education program and assignments in joint organizations. Army leaders acknowledge all Services possess certain strengths and limitations. Only close cooperation of the Services can assure swift mission accomplishment in the complex operational environment.

CULTURAL AND GEOPOLITICAL KNOWLEDGE

5-26. Culture consists of shared beliefs, values, and assumptions about what is important. Army leaders are mindful of cultural factors in three contexts:

- Sensitive to the different backgrounds of team members to best use their talents.
- Aware of the culture of the country in which the organization is operating.
- Consider and evaluate the possible implications of partners' customs, traditions, doctrinal principles, and operational methods.

5-27. The operational environment requires cultural and geopolitical awareness. Leaders ensure the organization is properly prepared to deal with the population of particular areas—as partners, neutrals, or adversaries. These are important factors when Army leaders attempt to extend influence beyond the chain of command.

5-28. Success in decisive action requires understanding unified action partner cultures. Multiple organizational cultures exist within the DOD. Typically, the Army is solution-oriented, focused on accomplishing the mission efficiently. Other agencies may be process-oriented and unconcerned about the speed of mission accomplishment. Leaders must bridge the cultures to accomplish the mission.

5-29. Cultural understanding is crucial to the success of unified action operations. Leaders should learn the customs, traditions, operational procedures, and doctrine of their unified action partners. To operate successfully in a multinational setting, Army leaders must understand differences in doctrinal terminology and the interpretation of orders and instructions. They must

learn how and why others think and act as they do. A multicultural environment requires leaders to keep plans and orders as simple as possible to prevent misunderstandings and needless losses. Dedicated liaison teams and linguists provide a cultural bridge between partners to mitigate some differences, but they cannot eliminate them.

Table 5-1. Summary of the attributes associated with *Intellect*

The mental resources or tendencies that shape a leader's conceptual abilities and effectiveness.	
Mental agility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Flexibility of mind; the ability to break habitual thought patterns. • Anticipating or adapting to uncertain or changing situations; to think through outcomes when current decisions or actions are not producing desired effects. • The ability to apply multiple perspectives and approaches.
Sound judgment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The capacity to assess situations shrewdly and draw sound conclusions. • The tendency to form sound opinions, make sensible decisions and reliable guesses. • The ability to assess strengths and weaknesses of subordinates, peers, and enemy to create appropriate solutions and action.
Innovation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The ability to introduce new ideas based on opportunity or challenging circumstances. • Creativity in producing ideas and objects that are both novel and appropriate.
Interpersonal tact	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The capacity to understand interactions with others. • Being aware of how others see you and sensing how to interact with them effectively. • Conscious of character, reactions and motives of self and others and how they affect interactions. • Recognizing diversity and displaying self-control, balance, and stability.
Expertise	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Possessing facts, beliefs, logical assumptions and understanding in relevant areas.

Leadership

This doctrinal extract is from our Army's premier manual on Leadership. The content of this reading underpins all Army Leader Development Programs.

Extracted from ADP 6-22, Army Leadership, August 2012

FORWARD

Leadership is paramount to our profession. It is integral to our institutional success today and tomorrow. As we transition to meet the challenges of an increasingly complex and uncertain environment, our Army requires intelligent, competent, physically and mentally tough leaders of character. Decentralized operations require leaders at all levels that understand their environment, learn quickly, make sound decisions, and lead change. Because there are no predetermined solutions to problems, Army leaders must adapt their thinking, formations, and employment techniques to the specific situation they face. This requires an adaptable and innovative mind, a willingness to accept prudent risk in unfamiliar or rapidly changing situations, and an ability to adjust based on continuous assessment.

General of the Army Omar Bradley once remarked: **“Leadership in a democratic army means firmness, not harshness; understanding, not weakness; generosity, not selfishness; pride, not egotism.”**

His words continue to resonate today in both peace and war. This requires personal commitment, constant learning, self-assessment, and passion for your Soldiers and units. Being a leader is not about giving orders, it's about earning respect, leading by example, creating a positive climate, maximizing resources, inspiring others, and building teams to promote excellence. Along the way, you will make honest mistakes. You will face difficult decisions and dilemmas. This is all part of the process of learning the art of leadership. You must internalize the Army's values, demonstrate unimpeachable integrity and character, and remain truthful in word and deed. Soldiers trust their leaders. Leaders must never break that trust, as trust is the bedrock of our profession.

My leader expectations are straightforward:

- Have a vision and lead change
- Be your formation's moral and ethical compass
- Learn, think, adapt
- Balance risk and opportunity to retain the initiative
- Build agile, effective, high-performing teams
- Empower subordinates and underwrite risk
- Develop bold, adaptive, and broadened leaders
- Communicate—up, down, and laterally; tell the whole story

ADP 6-22, *Army Leadership*, describes our foundational leadership principles. I challenge each of you to study and build upon this doctrine to prepare yourselves, your peers, and your Soldiers to meet the challenges you are sure to face.

Army Strong!

RAYMOND T. ODIERNO GENERAL, UNITED STATES ARMY CHIEF
OF STAFF

Preface

Army Doctrine Publication (ADP) 6-22, *Army Leadership*, establishes the Army leadership principles that apply to officers, noncommissioned officers and enlisted Soldiers as well as Army Civilians.

The principal audience for ADP 6-22 is all leaders, military and civilian. Commanders and staffs of Army headquarters serving as joint task force or multinational headquarters should also refer to applicable joint or multinational doctrine concerning the range of military operations and joint or multinational forces. Trainers and educators throughout the Army will also use this manual.

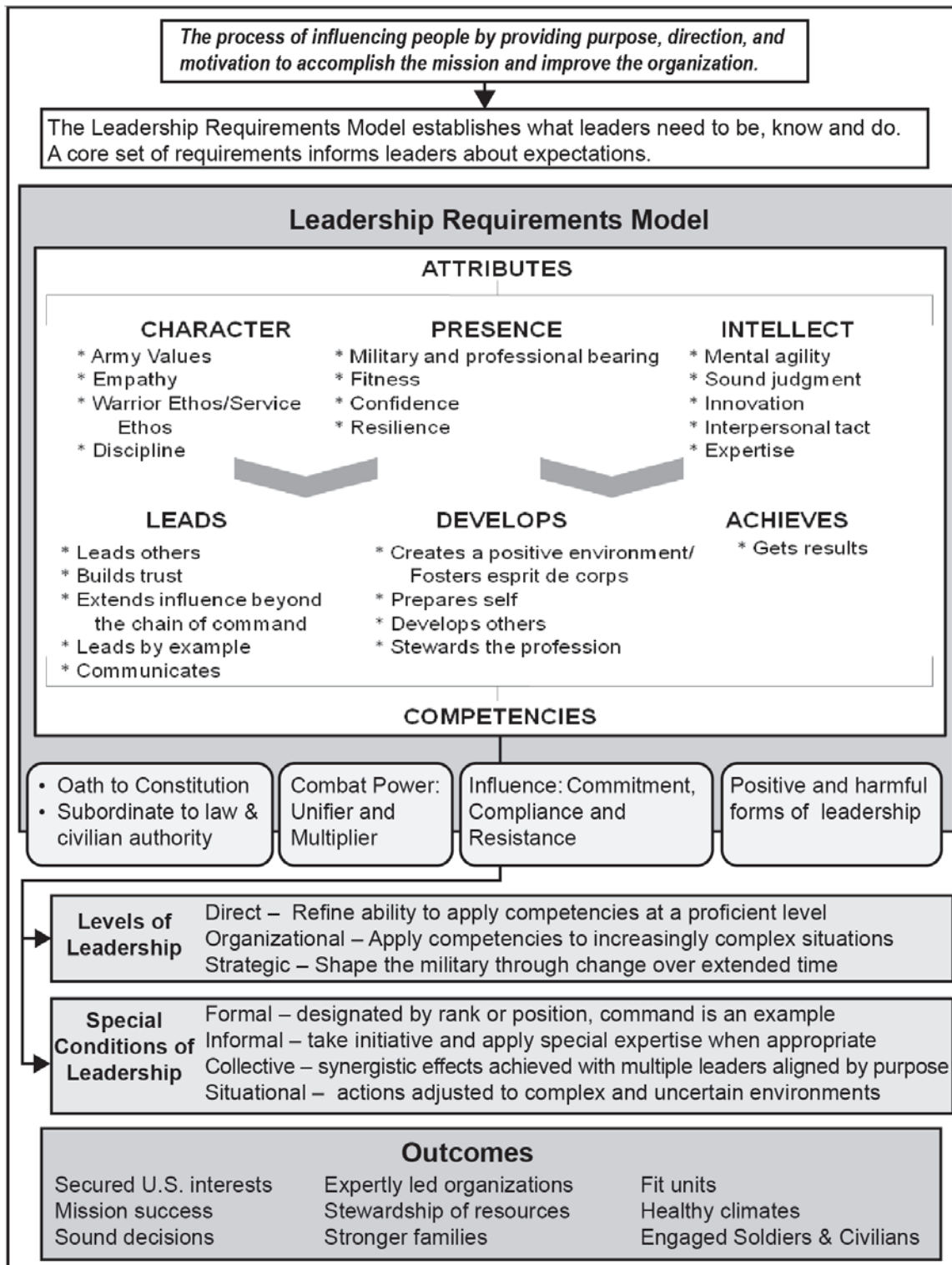


Figure 1. Underlying logic of Army leadership

The Army exists to serve the American people, protect enduring national interests, and fulfill the nation's military responsibilities. Fulfilling these purposes relies on leaders who embody values-based leadership, impeccable character, and professional competence. Leaders require these enduring qualities regardless of the mission or assignment, at all levels, across all cohorts.

ARMY LEADER DEFINED

1. Leadership, the lifeblood of an army, makes a difference every day in the United States Army. Since the formation of the Continental Army until today with Soldiers deployed around the globe, Army leaders have accepted the challenges before them. The United States Army has always had great leaders who have risen above hardships and have drawn on a range of leadership qualities to influence Soldiers, build units, and accomplish the mission.
2. Leadership is characterized by a complex mix of organizational, situational, and mission demands on a leader who applies personal qualities, abilities, and experiences to exert influence on the organization, its people, the situation, and the unfolding mission. Difficult and complex situations are the proving ground for leaders expected to make consistent timely, effective and just decisions.

An Army leader is anyone who by virtue of assumed role or assigned responsibility inspires and influences people to accomplish organizational goals. Army leaders motivate people both inside and outside the chain of command to pursue actions, focus thinking and shape decisions for the greater good of the organization.

PURPOSE OF LEADERSHIP

3. The Army requires leadership to make choices and establish unifying direction for the organization. Organizations have multiple sources to monitor and assess situations and provide input for decisions; however, a central leader must oversee and ultimately accept responsibility for the conduct of missions.

Leadership is the process of influencing people by providing purpose, direction, and motivation to accomplish the mission and improve the organization.

4. Leadership is a process of influence. Since first publishing leadership doctrine in 1948, the Army has consistently defined leadership as a process. This is significant because a process can be learned, monitored and improved. While personality and innate traits affect a process, the Army endorses the idea that good leadership does not just happen by chance but is a developable skill. A leader influences other people to accomplish a mission or fulfill a purpose. The means of influence include actions to convey motivation. Accomplishing the current mission is not enough—the leader is responsible for developing individuals and improving the organization for the near- and long-term.

5. As an element of combat power, leadership unifies the other elements (information, mission command, movement and maneuver, intelligence, fires, sustainment, and protection). Leadership is a multiplier of effects; with it, organizations are focused and synchronized,

resources are used efficiently, people become energized and motivated, and missions are more likely to achieve desired outcomes. Leadership serves a motivational purpose: to energize others to achieve challenging goals. An organization with effective leadership has a clear purpose, common methods, and ordered processes; sustains itself; and accomplishes its missions. Effective organizations rely on leaders to balance uncertainty, remain flexible, and provide a climate where subordinates have the latitude to explore options.

COMPONENTS OF LEADERSHIP

6. Leadership involves at least two people or groups, one which leads and another which follows. The influence process aims at getting results and developing the organization. This accomplishes missions of high quality while sustaining and improving the organization within available resources. Leaders must balance successful mission accomplishment with how they treat and care for organizational members. Taking care of people involves creating and sustaining a positive climate through open communications, trust, cohesion, and teamwork.

7. Followers respond to the authority of a leader in general or in response to specific guidance. Effective organizations depend on the competence of respectful leaders and loyal followers. Given the hierarchical structure of the Army, every Army leader is also a follower. Learning to be a good leader also needs to be associated with learning to be a good follower—learning loyalty, subordination, respect for superiors, and even when and how to lodge candid disagreement.

APPLYING INFLUENCE

8. Influence falls along a continuum from commitment, where followers willingly act for a higher purpose, to compliance, where followers merely fulfill requests and act in response to the leader's positional power. The degree of commitment or compliance affects initiative taken, motivation to accomplish missions, and the degree of accepted responsibility. Commanders expect subordinate leaders and Soldiers to commit to successful mission accomplishment. Trust, commitment, and competence enable mission command and allow the freedom of action to be operationally agile and adaptive.

9. Leaders can encounter resistance when attempting to influence others internal or external to their unit. Leaders can mitigate resistance by anticipating what others value, their reactions to influence, their shared understanding of common goals, and their commitment to the general organization or the purpose of the mission and their trust in the organization and the leader. After taking measure of underlying causes of resistance, leaders can work to build or restore relationships, determine shared goals, remove perceived threats or other actions, and clarify how the influence action relates to their personal values.

10. A leader can influence others outside the chain of command and succeed in gaining support for stated goals. Leaders can influence these outside groups, such as the local populace, using indirect means of influence. Success in these situations relies upon the relationships established between the Army leader and the outside parties. Trust characterizes positive relationships. Army leaders build trust by being honest and dependable. Without trust, there will be no relationship, no commitment, and no effective communication among parties.

11. Occasionally, negative leadership occurs in an organization. Negative leadership generally leaves people and organizations in a worse condition than when the leader- follower relationship started. One form of negative leadership is toxic leadership. Toxic leadership is a combination of self-centered attitudes, motivations, and behaviors that have adverse effects on subordinates, the organization, and mission performance. This leader lacks concern for others and the climate of the organization, which leads to short- and long-term negative effects. The toxic leader operates with an inflated sense of self-worth and from acute self-interest. Toxic leaders consistently use dysfunctional behaviors to deceive, intimidate, coerce, or unfairly punish others to get what they want for themselves. The negative leader completes short-term requirements by operating at the bottom of the continuum of commitment, where followers respond to the positional power of their leader to fulfill requests. This may achieve results in the short term, but ignores the other leader competency categories of *leads* and *develops*. Prolonged use of negative leadership to influence followers undermines the followers' will, initiative, and potential and destroys unit morale.

12. Encouragement and inspiration characterize leadership whereas coercive techniques run counter to Army leadership principles. Subordinates respond well to leadership that encourages commitment to achieve shared goals, thus improving the leader's ability to use indirect influence in situations where clear lines of authority do not exist. Leadership seeks to influence others through the communication of ideas and common causes. Positive, empowering influence comes by knowing how to lead, relate to others, and free others to manage tasks.

LEADERS AND COURAGE

13. Army leaders accept the responsibility to develop and lead others to achieve results. All members of the Army—Soldiers and Army Civilians—swear an oath to support and defend the Constitution of the United States against all enemies, foreign and domestic. This oath subordinates the military leader to the laws of the nation and its elected and appointed leaders, creating a distinct civil-military relationship. Fulfilling that oath, leaders will face—and have to overcome—fear, danger, and physical and moral adversity while caring for those they lead and protecting the organization entrusted to them.

14. It takes personal courage to take the initiative to make something happen rather than standing by or withdrawing and hoping events will turn out well. Leaders require personal courage when confronting problems of discipline or disorderly conduct, when innovation and adaptation are needed to try something that has never been done before, when leading Soldiers in harm's way, when being candid with a superior about a risky or improper course of action, when deferring to a more technically competent subordinate, or when freeing units and personnel to solve problems. Leaders must have the courage to make tough calls, to discipline or demand better when required. Consistent and fair leaders will earn the respect of their followers.

15. A self-aware leader will learn from each decision and action; with guidance from superiors, the leader will grow in confidence. Resilient and fit leaders have the psychological and physical capacity to bounce back from life's stressors to thrive in an era of high operational tempo and persistent conflict.

SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP

16. Leaders adjust their actions based on the situation. A situation influences what purpose and direction are needed. Situations include the setting, the people and team, the adversary, cultural and historical background, and the mission to be accomplished. The effectiveness of influence methods also vary with the situation and the time available for action. Education, training and experience are vital to develop the knowledge necessary to lead.

INFORMAL AND COLLECTIVE LEADERSHIP

17. Leadership guidance does not have to come only from the highest-ranking leader. Informal leadership that exists throughout organizations supports legitimate authority and plays an important role in mission accomplishment and organizational improvement. Informal leadership manifests itself through knowledge, experience or technical expertise. Informal and collective leadership are important types of leadership that do not adhere entirely to hierarchical levels of authority.

18. Collective leadership refers to the combined effects and synergies when leaders at different levels synchronize their leadership actions to achieve a common purpose. High performing collective leadership occurs when leadership processes are mutually reinforcing and the result is greater than the sum of its parts—a sense of shared responsibility for the unit exists.

19. Anyone can demonstrate leadership. The person with the highest rank or date of rank in a situation technically has the greatest authority. The ranking leader present is expected to exert influence as needed. The Army expects those with the greatest expertise and knowledge of the situation to lead. Presence is not solely projected by physical presence but through communications and situational awareness.

COMMAND AND LEADERSHIP

20. *Command* is the authority that a commander in the armed forces lawfully exercises over subordinates by virtue of rank or assignment. Command includes the authority and responsibility for effectively using available resources and for planning the employment of, organizing, directing, coordinating, and controlling military forces for the accomplishment of assigned missions. It also includes responsibility for health, welfare, morale, and discipline of assigned personnel (see JP 1-02). *Mission command* is the exercise of authority and direction by the commander using mission orders to enable disciplined initiative within the commander's intent to empower agile and adaptive leaders in the conduct of unified land operations (see ADP 6-0).

21. Leaders can influence each other and subordinates regardless of rank, though subordination based on rank occurs with both command and leadership. AR 600-20 specifically charges commanders to perform functions such as establishing a positive climate, caring for the well-being of Soldiers, properly training their Soldiers and developing subordinates' competence. By extension, subordinate leaders have a role to support each of these functions.

LEADERSHIP REQUIREMENTS MODEL

22. The Leadership Requirements Model conveys the expectations that the Army wants leaders to meet. A common model of leadership shows how different types of leaders work together and is useful for aligning leader development activities and personnel management practices and systems. One set of requirements consists of attributes of what leaders should be and know and the second is a set of competencies that the Army requires leaders to do. The single model organizes the disparate requirements and expectations of leaders at all levels of leadership.

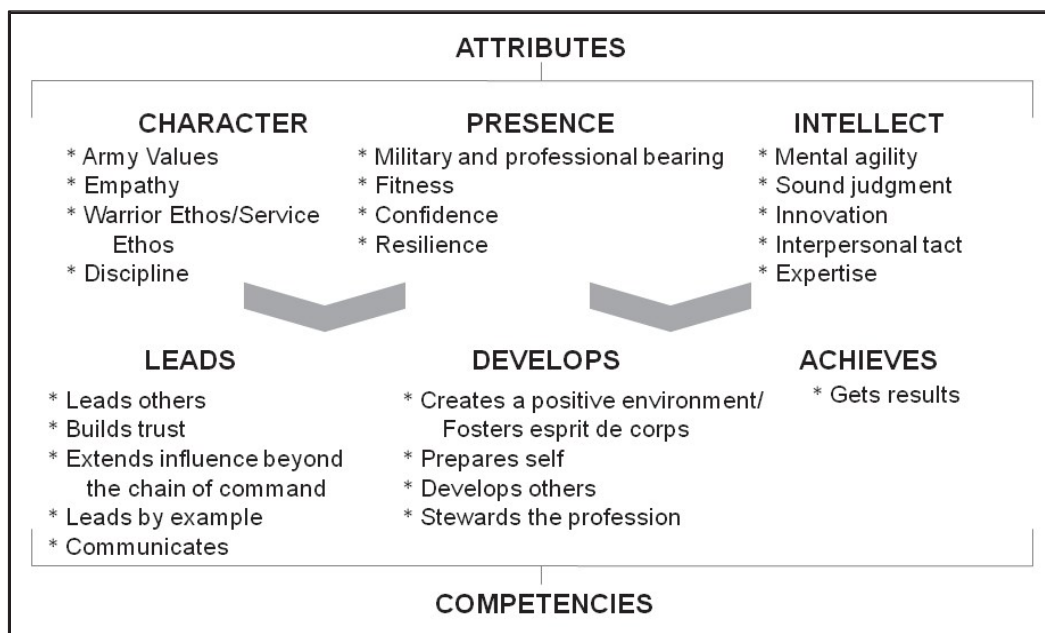


Figure 2. Army leadership requirements model

23. Leadership attributes are characteristics internal to a leader. Character is the essence of who a person is, what a person believes, how a person acts. The internalization of Army Values is one type of character attribute. Empathy is identifying and understanding what others think, feel and believe. Leaders of character who embrace the Army leader attributes and competencies will be authentic, positive leaders. While *character* relates to the internal identity of the leader, *presence* attributes relate how others see the leader and *intellect* relates to what abilities and knowledge the leader possesses to think and interact with others.

24. Leadership competencies are groups of related actions that the Army expects leaders to do—lead, develop and achieve. Core competencies are those groups of actions universal to leaders, across cohorts and throughout organizations.

LEADER ATTRIBUTES

25. Attributes shape how an individual behaves and learns in their environment. The leader attributes are character, presence and intellect. These attributes capture the values and identity of the leader (*character*); the leader’s outward appearance, demeanor, actions and words (*presence*); and the mental and social faculties the leader applies in the act of leading

(*intellect*). Attributes affect the actions that leaders perform. Good character, solid presence and keen intellect enable the core leader competencies to be performed with greater effect.

CHARACTER

26. Leadership is affected by a person's character and identity. Integrity is a key mark of a leader's character. It means doing what is right, legally and morally. The considerations required in leader choices are seldom obvious as wholly ethical or unethical. The Soldier's Rules, which codify the law of war, outline ethical and lawful conduct in operations and are useful for everyday conduct (see AR 350-1). Leaders who unwaveringly adhere to applicable laws, regulations, and unit standards build credibility with their subordinates and enhance trust from the American people they serve.

27. Leaders of integrity adhere to the values that are part of their personal identity and set a standard for their followers to emulate. Identity is one's self-concept, how one defines him or herself. Leaders who are effective with followers identify with the role and expectations of a leader; they willingly take responsibilities typical of a leader and perform the actions of a leader. Leaders who are unsure of themselves may not have a strong idea of their identity.

PRESENCE

28. The impression a leader makes on others contributes to success in getting people to follow. This impression is the sum of a leader's outward appearance, demeanor, actions and words and the inward character and intellect of the leader. Presence entails the projection of military and professional bearing, holistic fitness, confidence and resilience. Strong presence is important as a touchstone for subordinates, especially under duress. A leader who does not share the same risks could easily make a decision that could prove unworkable given the psychological state of Soldiers and Civilians affected by stress.

INTELLECT

29. The leader's intellect affects how well a leader thinks about problems, creates solutions, makes decisions and leads others. People differ in intellectual strengths and ways of thinking. There is no one right way to think. Each leader needs to be self-aware of strengths and limitations and apply them accordingly. Being mentally agile helps leaders address changes and adapt to the situation and the dynamics of operations. Critical and innovative thought are abilities that enable the leader to be adaptive. Sound judgment enables the best decision for the situation at hand. It is a key attribute of the transformation of knowledge into understanding and quality execution.

LEADER COMPETENCIES

30. There are three categories of competencies. The Army leader serves to *lead* others; to *develop* the environment, themselves, others and the profession as a whole; and to *achieve* organizational goals. Competencies provide a clear and consistent way of conveying expectations for Army leaders.

31. The core leader competencies apply across all levels of leader positions, providing a good basis for evaluation and focused multisource assessment and feedback. A spectrum of

leaders and followers (superiors, subordinates, peers and mentors) can observe and assess competencies demonstrated through leader behaviors.

32. Leader competencies can be developed. Leaders acquire competencies at the direct leadership level. As the leader moves to organizational and strategic level positions, the competencies provide the basis for leading through change. Leaders continuously refine and extend the ability to perform these competencies proficiently and learn to apply them to increasingly complex situations.

LEADS

33. The category of *leads* encompasses five competencies. Two focus on the affiliation of the followers and the common practices for interacting with them. *Leads others* involves influencing Soldiers and Army Civilians in the leader's organization. *Extends influence beyond the chain of command* involves influencing others when the leader does not have designated authority or while the leader's authority is not recognized by others, such as with unified action partners. *Builds trust* is an important competency to establish conditions of effective influence and for creating a positive environment. Leader actions and words comprise the competencies of *leads by example* and *communicates*. Actions can speak louder than words and excellent leaders use this to serve as a role model to set the standard. Leaders communicate to convey clear understanding of what needs to be done and why.

34. Leaders are expected to extend influence beyond the chain of command, which usually has limited formal authority. This competency widens the responsibility and sphere of influence for a leader. Such influence requires insightful—and possibly non- standard—methods to influence others. Its limited authority stems from the audience's possible lack of the traditions, customs, and regulations of the Army and military forces. When extending influence, Army leaders have to assess who they need to influence and determine how best to establish their authority and execute leadership functions. Often they have little time to assess the situation beforehand and need to adapt as the interaction evolves. Extending influence is a competency that includes negotiation, consensus building and conflict resolution. Extending influence largely depends on the trust established with unified action partners and often applies to stability and defense support of civil authorities operations.

DEVELOPS

35. Leaders operate to improve or sustain high performance in their organization. They do so by focusing on the four *develops* competencies. *Create a positive environment* inspires an organization's climate and culture. *Prepares self* encourages improvement in leading and other areas of leader responsibility. Leaders *develop others* to assume greater responsibility or achieve higher expertise. A leader *stewards the profession* to maintain professional standards and effective capabilities for the future.

36. Leaders are responsible for development. They must ensure that they themselves are developing, that they are developing subordinates, and that they are sustaining a positive climate

and improving the organization. Leaders encourage development and set conditions while performing missions. Development occurs by having subordinates reflect on what happened during an event, by assessing whether units performed at or well above standard and why, in addition to having a positive mindset of improvement and learning. Every experience is developmental.

37. Leaders have choices to make about developing others. Leaders choose when and how to coach, counsel and mentor others. Leaders often have the freedom to place people in the best situation to maximize their talent. Then the leader provides resources the subordinate needs to succeed, makes expectations clear, and provides positive, meaningful feedback. While leaders need to develop others, they have to set a positive climate in which individuals and the unit can improve and operate. As part of their developmental responsibilities, leaders must prepare themselves and act to promote long-term stewardship of the Army.

ACHIEVES

38. *Gets results* is the single *achieves* competency and relates to actions to accomplish tasks and missions on time and to standard. Getting results is the goal of leadership but leaders must remain mindful that leading people and creating positive conditions enable them to operate as successful leaders. Getting results requires the right level of delegation, empowerment and trust balanced against the mission. Adaptability to conditions and adjustments based on adversarial actions are ever important elements of success.

HOW LEADERS DEVELOP

39. Leadership—and increased proficiency in leadership—can be developed. Fundamentally, leadership develops when the individual desires to improve and invests effort, when his or her superior supports development, and when the organizational climate values learning. Learning to be a leader requires knowledge of leadership, experience using this knowledge and feedback.

Formal systems such as evaluation reports, academic evaluation reports, and 360^o assessments offer opportunities to learn—but the individual must embrace the opportunity and internalize the information. The fastest learning occurs when there are challenging and interesting opportunities to practice leadership with meaningful and honest feedback and multiple practice opportunities. These elements contribute to self-learning, developing others and setting a climate conducive to learning.

40. Leader development involves recruiting, accessing, developing, assigning, promoting, broadening, and retaining the best leaders, while challenging them over time with greater responsibility, authority and accountability. Army leaders assume progressively broader responsibilities across direct, organizational and strategic levels of leadership. Military leadership is unique because the armed forces grow their own leaders from the lowest to highest levels. The Army entrusts leaders to develop professionally and be ready to accept greater responsibility when called upon.

CONCLUSION

41. ADP 6-22, *Army Leadership*, establishes the fundamental principles by which Army leaders accomplish their missions and care for their people. It describes the enduring concepts of leadership through the core leader competencies and attributes required of contemporary leaders of all cohorts and all organizations, regardless of mission or setting. These principles reflect decades of experience and the best scientific knowledge available. Leadership fundamentally remains a process of influence; how and when influence is applied determines the eventual mission success and the capabilities of Army organization.

Problem Solving

This doctrinal extract helps you understand problem solving for leaders and describes a standard, systematic approach for solving problems. Additionally, the extract discusses how leaders develop recommendations during the problem solving process.

Extracted from FM 6-0, Commander and Staff Organization and Operations, May 2014

4-6. Troop leading procedures and the MDMP (Military Decision Making Process) are specifically designed for planning and problem solving for conducting operations. For situations when operational planning is not appropriate, the Army's approach to problem solving involves the following steps:

- Gather information and knowledge.
- Identify the problem.
- Develop criteria.
- Generate possible solutions.
- Analyze possible solutions.
- Compare possible solutions.
- Make and implement the decision.

GATHER INFORMATION AND KNOWLEDGE

4-7. Gathering information and knowledge and is an important first step in problem solving. Leaders cannot understand or identify the problem without first gathering information and knowledge. While described as a step, gathering information and knowledge continues throughout the problem solving process. It helps leaders understand the situation and determine what the problem is by defining its limitations and scope. Leaders never stop acquiring and assessing the impact of new or additional information relevant to the problem.

4-8. Leaders require facts and assumptions to solve problems. Understanding facts and assumptions is critical to understanding problem solving. In addition, leaders need to know how to handle opinions and organize information.

FACTS

4-9. Facts are verifiable pieces of information that have objective reality. They form the foundation on which leaders base solutions to problems. Regulations, policies, doctrinal publications, commander's guidance, plans and orders, and personal experiences are just a few sources of facts.

ASSUMPTIONS

4-10. An *assumption* is a supposition on the current situation or a presupposition on the future course of events, either or both assumed to be true in the absence of positive proof, necessary to enable the commander in the process of planning to complete an estimate of the situation and make a decision on the course of action (JP 5-0). In other words, an assumption is information

that is accepted as true in the absence of facts, but cannot be verified. Appropriate assumptions used in decision-making have two characteristics:

- They are valid; that is, they are likely to be true.
- They are necessary; that is, they are essential to continuing the problem solving process.

4-11. If the process can continue without making a particular assumption, leaders discard that assumption. So long as an assumption is both valid and necessary, leaders treat it as a fact. Problem solvers continually seek to confirm or deny the validity of their assumptions.

OPINIONS

4-12. When gathering information, leaders evaluate opinions carefully. An opinion is a personal judgment that the leader or another individual makes. Opinions cannot be totally discounted. They are often the result of years of experience. Leaders objectively evaluate opinions to determine whether to accept them as facts, include them as opinions, or reject them.

ORGANIZATION OF INFORMATION

4-13. Leaders check each piece of information to verify its accuracy. If possible, two individuals should check and confirm the accuracy of facts and the validity of assumptions. Being able to establish whether a piece of information is a fact or an assumption is of little value if those working on the problem do not know the information exists. Leaders share information with the decision-maker, subordinates, and peers, as appropriate. A proposed solution to a problem is only as good as the information that forms the basis of the solution. Sharing information among members of a problem-solving team increases the likelihood that a team member will uncover the information that leads to the best solution.

4-14. Organizing information includes coordination with units and agencies that may be affected by the problem or its solution. Leaders determine these as they gather information. They coordinate with other leaders as they solve problems, both to obtain assistance and to keep others informed of situations that may affect them. Such coordination may be informal and routine. For an informal example, a squad leader checks with the squad to the right to make sure their fields of fire overlap. For a formal example, a division action officer staffs a decision paper with the major subordinate commands. As a minimum, leaders always coordinate with units or agencies that might be affected by a solution they propose before they present it to the decision-maker.

IDENTIFY THE PROBLEM

4-15. A problem exists when the current state or condition differs from or impedes achieving the desired end state or condition. Leaders identify problems from a variety of sources. These include—

- Higher headquarters' directives or guidance.
- Decision-maker's guidance.
- Subordinates.
- Personal observations.

4-16. When identifying a problem, leaders actively seek to identify its root cause, not merely the symptoms on the surface. Symptoms may be the reason that the problem became visible. They are often the first things noticed and frequently require attention. However, focusing on the symptoms of a problem may lead to false conclusions or inappropriate solutions. Using a systematic approach to identifying the real problem helps avoid the “solving symptoms” pitfall.

4-17. Leaders do the following to identify the root cause of a problem:

- Compare the current situation to the desired end state.
- Define the problem’s scope or boundaries.
- Answer the following questions:
 - Who does the problem affect?
 - What does the problem affect?
 - When did the problem occur?
 - Where is the problem?
 - Why did the problem occur?
- Determine the cause of obstacles between current and desired end state.
- Write a draft problem statement.
- Focus information collection efforts specific to the problem.
- Redefine the problem as necessary as the staff acquires and assesses new knowledge and information.
- Update facts and assumptions.

4-18. After identifying the root causes, leaders develop a problem statement—a statement that clearly describes the problem to be solved. When the staff bases the problem upon a directive from a higher authority, it is best to submit the problem statement to the decision-maker for approval. This ensures the problem solver has understood the decision-maker’s guidance before continuing.

4-19. Once leaders develop a problem statement, they make a plan to solve the problem. Leaders make the best possible use of available time and allocate time for each problem-solving step. This allocation provides a series of deadlines to meet in solving the problem. Leaders use reverse planning to prepare their problem-solving timeline. They use this timeline to periodically assess progress. They do not let real or perceived pressure cause them to abandon solving the problem systematically. They change time allocations as necessary, but they do not omit steps.

DEVELOP CRITERIA

4-20. The third step in the problem-solving process is developing criteria. A criterion is a standard, rule, or test by which something can be judged—a measure of value. Problem solvers develop criteria to assist them in formulating and evaluating possible solutions to a problem. Criteria are based on facts or assumptions. Problem solvers develop two types of criteria: screening and evaluation.

SCREENING CRITERIA

4-21. Leaders use screening criteria to ensure solutions they consider can solve the problem. Screening criteria defines the limits of an acceptable solution. They are tools to establish the baseline products for analysis. Leaders may reject a solution based solely on the application of screening criteria. Leaders commonly ask five questions of screening criteria to test a possible solution:

- Is it suitable?—Does it solve the problem and is it legal and ethical?
- Is it feasible?—Does it fit within available resources?
- Is it acceptable?—Is it worth the cost or risk?
- Is it distinguishable?—Does it differ significantly from other solutions?
- Is it complete?—Does it contain the critical aspects of solving the problem from start to finish?

EVALUATION CRITERIA

4-22. After developing screening criteria, the problem solver develops the evaluation criteria in order to differentiate among possible solutions. (See figure 4-1.) Well-defined evaluation criteria have five elements:

- Short Title—the criterion name.
- Definition—a clear description of the feature being evaluated.
- Unit of Measure—a standard element used to quantify the criterion. Examples of units of measure are U.S. dollars, miles per gallon, and feet.
- Benchmark—a value that defines the desired state or “good” for a solution in terms of a particular criterion.
- Formula—an expression of how changes in the value of the criterion affect the desirability of the possible solution. The problem solver states the formula in comparative terms (for example, less is better) or absolute terms (for example, a night movement is better than a day movement).

Short Title: Cost
Definition: The maximum total cost of each truck.
Unit of Measure: Dollars
Benchmark: \$38,600
Formula: $\leq \$38,600$ is an advantage; $> \$38,600$ is a disadvantage; less is better.

Figure 4-1. Sample evaluation criterion

4-23. A well thought-out benchmark is critical for meaningful analysis. Decision-makers employ analysis to judge a solution against a standard, determining whether that solution is good in an objective sense. It differs from comparison, in which decision-makers judge possible solutions against each other, determining whether a solution is better or worse in a relative sense. Benchmarks are the standards used in such analysis. They may be prescribed by regulations or guidance from the decision-maker. Sometimes, a decision-maker can infer the benchmark by the tangible return expected from the problem's solution. Often, however, leaders establish benchmarks themselves. Four common methods for doing this are—

- Reasoning—based on personal experience and judgment as to what is good.
- Historical precedent—based on relevant examples of prior success.
- Current example—based on an existing condition, which is considered desirable.
- Averaging—based on the mathematical average of the solutions being considered. Averaging is the least preferred of all methods because it essentially duplicates the process of comparison.

4-24. In practice, the criteria by which choices are made are almost never of equal importance. Because of this, it is often convenient to assign weights to each evaluation criterion. Weighting criteria establishes the relative importance of each one with respect to the others. Weighting should reflect the judgment of the decision-maker or acknowledged experts as closely as possible. For example, a decision-maker or expert might judge that two criteria are *equal* in importance, or that one criterion is *slightly favored* in importance, or *moderately* or *strongly favored*. If decision-makers assign these verbal assessments numerical values, from 1 to 4 respectively, they can use mathematical techniques to produce meaningful numerical criteria weights.

GENERATE POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

4-25. After gathering information relevant to the problem and developing criteria, leaders formulate possible solutions. They carefully consider the guidance provided by the commander or their superiors, and develop several alternatives to solve the problem. Too many possible solutions may result in time wasted on similar options. Experience and time available determine how many solutions leaders consider. Leaders should consider at least two solutions. Limiting solutions enables the problem solver to use both analysis and comparison as problem-solving tools. Developing only one solution to “save time” may produce a faster solution but risks creating more problems from factors not considered.

4-26. When developing solutions, leaders generate options. They then summarize solutions in writing, sketches, or both.

GENERATE OPTIONS

4-27. Leaders must use creativity to develop effective solutions. Often, groups can be far more creative than individuals. However, those working on solutions should have some knowledge of or background in the problem area.

4-28. The basic technique for developing new ideas in a group setting is brainstorming. Brainstorming is characterized by unrestrained participation in discussion. While brainstorming, leaders—

- State the problem and make sure all participants understand it.
- Appoint someone to record all ideas.
- Withhold judgment of ideas.
- Encourage independent thoughts. □ Aim for quantity, not quality.
- Hitchhike ideas—combine one person’s thoughts with those of others.
- At the conclusion of brainstorming, leaders may discard solutions that clearly miss the standards described by the screening criteria. If this informal screen leaves only one or no solution, then leaders need to generate more options.

SUMMARIZE THE SOLUTION IN WRITING AND SKETCHES

4-29. After generating options, leaders accurately record each possible solution. The solution statement clearly portrays how the action or actions solve the problem. In some circumstances, the solution statement may be a single sentence. For example, it might be “Provide tribal leader with the means to dig a well.” In other circumstances, the solution statement may require more detail, including sketches or concept diagrams. For example, if the problem is to develop a multipurpose small-arms range, leaders may choose to portray each solution with a narrative and a separate sketch or blueprint of each proposed range.

ANALYZE POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

4-30. Having identified possible solutions, leaders analyze each one to determine its merits and drawbacks. If criteria are well defined, including a careful selection of benchmarks, analysis is greatly simplified.

4-31. Leaders use screening criteria and benchmarks to analyze possible solutions. They apply screening criteria to judge whether a solution meets minimum requirements. For quantitative criteria, they measure, compute, or estimate the raw data values for each solution and each criterion. In analyzing solutions that involve predicting future events, they use war-gaming, models, and simulations to visualize events and estimate raw data values for use in analysis. Once raw data values have been determined, the leader judges them against applicable screening criteria to determine if a possible solution merits further consideration. Leaders screen out any solution that fails to meet or exceeds the set threshold of one or more screening criteria.

4-32. After applying the screening criteria to all possible solutions, leaders use benchmarks to judge them with respect to the desired state. Data values that meet or exceed the benchmark indicate that the possible solution achieves the desired end state. Data values that fail to meet the benchmark indicate a poor solution that fails to achieve the desired end state. For each solution, leaders list the areas in which analysis reveals it to be good or not good. Sometimes the considered solutions fail to reach the benchmark. When this occurs, the leader points out the failure to the decision-maker.

4-33. Leaders carefully avoid comparing solutions during analysis. Comparing solutions during analysis undermines the integrity of the process and tempts problem solvers to jump to conclusions. They examine each possible solution independently to identify its strengths and weaknesses. They are also careful not to introduce new criteria.

COMPARE POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

4-34. During this step, leaders compare each solution against the others to determine the optimum one. Comparing solutions identifies which solution best solves the problem based on the evaluation criteria. Leaders use any comparison technique that helps reach the best recommendation. The most common technique is a decision matrix. (See paragraphs 9-176 through 9-182 for information on using a decision matrix.)

MAKE AND IMPLEMENT THE DECISION

4-35. After completing their analysis and comparison, leaders identify the preferred solution. If a superior assigned the problem, leaders prepare the necessary products (verbal, written, or both) needed to present the recommendation to the decision-maker. Before presenting the findings and a recommendation, leaders coordinate their recommendation with those affected by the problem or the solutions. In formal situations, leaders present their findings and recommendations to the decision maker as staff studies, decision papers, or decision briefings.

4-36. A good solution can be lost if the leader cannot persuade the audience that it is correct. Every problem requires both a solution and the ability to communicate the solution clearly. The writing and briefing skills a leader possesses may ultimately be as important as good problem-solving skills.

4-37. Based on the decision-maker's decision and final guidance, leaders refine the solution and prepare necessary implementing instructions. Formal implementing instructions can be issued as a memorandum of instruction, policy letter, or command directive. Once leaders have given instructions, they monitor their implementation and compare results to the measure of success and the desired end state established in the approved solution. When necessary, they issue additional instructions.

4-38. A feedback system that provides timely and accurate information, periodic review, and the flexibility to adjust must also be built into the implementation plan. Leaders stay involved and carefully avoid creating new problems because of uncoordinated implementation of the solution. Army problem solving does not end with identifying the best solution or obtaining approval of a recommendation.

Team Building

This doctrinal extract helps you understand how teams are built, developed, and maintained. Additionally, you will learn about the dynamics needed for a team to be effective. Students of the BC Phase II (Resident) participate in a weeklong group project associated with this topic.

Extracted from ADRP 6-22, Army Leadership, August 2012

CHARACTERISTICS OF A TEAM

7-79. A team is any group that functions together to perform a mission or collective task. Teams that work well have the advantage of increasing motivation and accountability among members. The hallmarks of close teams include—

- Trusting each other and being able to predict what each will do.
- Working together to accomplish the mission.
- Executing tasks thoroughly and quickly.
- Meeting and exceeding the standard.
- Adapting to demanding challenges.
- Learning from their experiences and developing pride in their accomplishments.

7-80. The Army as a team includes many members who are not Soldiers. The contributions made by Army Civilians, contractors, and multinational workers in critical support missions during operations are often forgotten. In today's operational environment, many military objectives could not be achieved without the dedicated support of the Army's civilian team members.

7-81. Within a larger team, smaller teams may be at different stages of development. For instance, members of First Squad may be accustomed to working together. They trust one another and accomplish the mission, usually exceeding the standard without wasted effort. Second Squad in the same platoon just received three new Soldiers and a team leader from another company. As a team, Second Squad will take time to mature. Second Squad's new team members have to learn how things work. First, they have to feel like team members. Subsequently, they must learn the standards of their new unit and demonstrate competence before other members accept them. Finally, they must practice working together.

7-82. Competent leaders are sensitive to the characteristics of the team and its individual members. Teams develop differently and the boundaries between stages are not hard and fast. The results can help determine what to expect of the team and what improves its capabilities.

STAGES OF TEAM BUILDING

7-83. Teams do not come together by accident. Leaders must guide them through three developmental stages: formation, enrichment, and sustainment.

FORMATION STAGE

7-84. Army leaders often do not have a hand in selecting team members, but have the responsibility to ensure the team forms into a high performing unit. Teams work best when new members quickly feel a part of the team. The two critical steps of the formation stage—reception and orientation—are dramatically different in peace and combat. In combat, a good sponsorship process can literally make the difference between life and death for new arrivals and the entire team. In combat, Army leaders have countless things to worry about and the mental state of new arrivals might seem low on the list. If Soldiers cannot fight, the unit will suffer needless casualties and may ultimately fail to complete the mission.

7-85. Reception is the leader's welcome to new members of the organization. Time permitting, it should include a personal introduction. Orientation begins with meeting other team members, learning the layout and schedule of the workplace, and generally getting to know the environment. In combat, leaders may not have much time. In this case, new arrivals should receive sponsors. Sponsors help orient new members.

7-86. Leaders have an instrumental role in how a team works together, beginning with team formation. Leaders provide direction and reinforce the norms for how team members relate to one another and the standards of performance. Relational skills include everything from perceptiveness of each other's strengths, habits, and limits to tendencies in communicating and helping each other. The people skills internal to a team are important for how well the team performs technical skills. During team formation, leaders assess skills and expertise present on the team and determine procedures for optimal coordination.

ENRICHMENT STAGE

7-87. New team members gradually move from questioning everything to trusting themselves, their peers, and their leaders. Team members who trust each other are more willing to resolve differences of opinion and fact. Having trust in leaders allows members to suspend any doubts, to concentrate on duties and mission accomplishment. Leaders learn to trust by listening, following up on what they hear, establishing clear lines of authority, and enforcing standards. Leaders should understand signs of distrust during team building. Indicators of distrust include persistent defense of one's opinion, avoidance of conflict, ignoring the importance of team membership and goals, and suspicion about the motivation of others. Leaders can improve trust and build morale by getting to know team members, communicating truthfully with them, treating them fairly, and recognizing good work and teamwork. The most important thing is training. Training takes a group of individuals and molds them into a team while preparing them to accomplish missions. Training occurs during all three stages of team building, but is particularly important during enrichment. The team builds collective proficiency during this stage.

SUSTAINMENT STAGE

7-88. During this stage, members identify with "their team." They own it, have pride in it, and want the team to succeed. At this stage, team members will do what is necessary without

direction. Cohesion characterizes this stage of team building. Cohesion is a bond of relationships and motivational factors that make a team want to stay and work together. A cohesive team puts aside any interfering differences and chooses to work together. Every new mission gives the leader a chance to strengthen the bonds and challenge the team to reach new levels of accomplishment and confidence. The team's attitude about its capabilities elevates motivation and the desire to meet new challenges.

7-89. Teams can have ups and downs in the sustainment stage. Effective team leaders will watch for signs of complacency and intervene when it occurs by reinforcing good interaction practices and holding the team to standard. Changes for which the team is not prepared can be another challenge for the team leader. Shared experiences and regular training help teams address unexpected changes in situations. Empowering the team to improve coordination and SOPs can strengthen its ability to handle change.

7-90. Key responsibilities of the team leader in all stages of team building and teamwork include trust, cooperation, task commitment, accountability, and the work to be completed. When any of these erodes— trust is broken, conflict arises, commitments are disregarded, members are not accountable, or work goes undone—the leader must step in and get the team back on track.

Coaching, Counseling and Mentoring

This doctrinal excerpt makes it clear that Army leaders have a responsibility to develop their team members. Developing our employees is essential to creating teams capable of performing at a higher level. This topic is explored in depth at the Basic Course Phase II (Resident).

Extracted from ADRP 6-22, Army Leadership, August 2012

COUNSELING, COACHING AND MENTORING

7-59. Leaders have three principal ways of developing others. They can provide knowledge and feedback through counseling, coaching, and mentoring. Providing feedback is common to interacting with others during development. Feedback significantly contributes to development, accelerates learning in day-to-day experiences, and translates into better leader performance. Providing feedback starts with observation and accurate assessment of performance. Planning to make observations of a subordinate is the first step in feedback. The best observations occur when subordinates engage in critical performance, interact with their subordinates or other Soldiers, or address a challenging problem. Keeping observation notes is useful when tracking multiple subordinates.

COUNSELING

7-60. Counseling is central to leader development. Leaders who serve as designated raters have to prepare their subordinates to be better Soldiers or Army Civilians. Good counseling focuses on the subordinate's performance and issues with an eye toward tomorrow's plans and solutions. Leaders expect subordinates to be active participants seeking constructive feedback. Counseling cannot be an occasional event but should be part of a comprehensive program to develop subordinates. With effective counseling, no evaluation report—positive or negative—should be a surprise. A consistent counseling program includes all subordinates, not just the people thought to have the most potential.

7-61. Counseling is the process used by leaders to guide subordinates to improve performance and develop their potential. Subordinates are active participants in the counseling process. Counseling uses a standard format to help mentally organize and isolate relevant issues before, during, and after the counseling session. During counseling, leaders help subordinates to identify strengths and weaknesses and create plans of action. To make the plans work, leaders actively support their subordinates throughout the implementation and assessment processes. Subordinates invest themselves in the process by being forthright in their willingness to improve and being candid in their assessment and goal setting.

COACHING

7-62. While a mentor or counselor generally has more experience than the person being supported does, coaching relies primarily on teaching and guiding to bring out and enhance the capabilities already present. Coaching refers to the function of helping someone through a set of tasks or with general qualities. Those being coached may, or may not, have appreciated their potential. The

coach helps them understand their current level of performance and guides them how to reach the next level of knowledge and skill.

7-63. Coaching is a development technique used for a skill, task, or specific behaviors. Coaches should possess considerable knowledge in the area in which they coach others.

7-64. An important aspect of coaching is identifying and planning for short- and long-term goals. The coach and the person being coached discuss strengths, weaknesses, and courses of action to sustain or improve. Coaches use the following guidelines—

- *Focus Goals*: This requires the coach to identify the purpose of the coaching session. Expectations of both the person being coached and the coach need to be discussed. The coach communicates to the individual the developmental tasks for the coaching session, which can incorporate the results of the individual's multisource assessment and feedback survey.
- *Clarify the Leader's Self-Awareness*: The coach works directly with the individual to define both strengths and developmental needs. During this session, the coach and the individual communicate perceived strengths, developmental needs, and focus areas to improve performance. Both the coach and the individual agree on areas of developmental needs.
- *Uncover Potential*: The coach facilitates self-awareness of the individual's potential and developmental needs by guiding the discussion with questions. The coach actively listens to how the individual perceives potential. The aim is to encourage the free flow of ideas. The coach also assesses the individual's readiness to change and incorporates this into the session.
- *Eliminate Developmental Barriers*: The coach identifies developmental needs with the individual and those areas that may hinder self-development. It is during this step that the coach helps the individual determine how to overcome barriers to development and how to implement an effective plan to improve the leader's overall performance. The coach helps the individual identify potential sources of support for implementing an action plan.
- *Develop Action Plans and Commitment*: The coach and the individual develop an action plan defining actions that can improve performance within a given period. The coach utilizes a developmental action guide to communicate those self-directed activities the individual can accomplish to improve their performance in a particular competency.
- *Follow-Up*: After the initial coaching session, there should be a follow-up as part of a larger transition. After the initial coaching, participants should provide feedback concerning the effectiveness of the assessment, the usefulness of the information they received, and progress. Leaders who coach provide frequent informal feedback and timely, proactive, formal counseling to regularly inspire and improve subordinates.

MENTORING

7-65. Current and anticipated operations place additional pressures on developing leaders rapidly. To help leaders acquire the necessary abilities, the Army relies on a leader development system that compresses and accelerates development of professional expertise,

maturity, and conceptual and team-building skills. Mentoring is a developmental tool that can effectively support many of these learning objectives.

7-66. It is not required for leaders to have the same occupational or educational background as those they coach or counsel. In comparison, mentors generally specialize in the same area as those they mentor. Mentors have likely experienced what their protégés are experiencing or are going to experience. Consequently, mentoring relationships tend to be occupation-specific, with the mentor having expertise in the particular area. Mentoring focuses primarily on developing a more experienced leader for the future.

7-67. *Mentorship* is the voluntary developmental relationship that exists between a person of greater experience and a person of lesser experience that is characterized by mutual trust and respect (AR 600-100). Mentorship is generally characterized by the following—

- Mentoring takes place when the mentor provides a less experienced leader with advice and counsel over time to help with professional and personal growth.
- The developing leader often initiates the relationship and seeks counsel from the mentor. The mentor takes the initiative to check on the well-being and development of that person.
- Mentorship affects personal development (maturity and interpersonal and communication skills) as well as professional development (technical, tactical, and career path knowledge).
- Mentorship helps the Army maintain a highly competent set of leaders.
- The strength of the mentoring relationship relies on mutual trust and respect. Protégés carefully consider assessment, feedback, and guidance; these become valuable for growth to occur.

7-68. Supportive mentoring occurs when a mentor does not outrank the person being mentored, but has extensive knowledge and experience. Contrary to common belief, mentoring relationships are not confined to the superior-subordinate relationship. They may occur between peers and often between senior NCOs and junior officers. This relationship can occur across many levels of rank. In many circumstances, this relationship extends past the time where one party has left the chain of command.

7-69. Individuals must be active participants in their developmental process. They must not wait for a mentor to choose them but have the responsibility to be proactive in their own development. Every Army officer, NCO, Soldier, and Civilian should identify personal strengths and areas for improvement. Each individual should then determine a developmental plan. Some strategies that may be used are—

- Ask questions and pay attention to experts.
- Read and study.
- Watch those in leadership positions.
- Find educational opportunities (civilian, military, and correspondence).
- Seek and engage in new and varied opportunities.

7-70. Soldiers can increase their chances of mentorship by seeking performance feedback and by adopting an attitude of lifelong learning. These self-development actions enable mentoring opportunities. Soldiers who seek feedback to focus their development, coupled with dedicated, well-informed mentors, will embed the concepts of lifelong learning, self-development, and adaptability into the Army’s culture.

7-71. While mentoring is generally associated with improving duty-related performance and growth, it may include a spiritual dimension. A chaplain or other spiritually trained individual may play a significant role in helping individuals cope with operational stress to find better professional balance and purpose.

	<i>Counseling</i>	<i>Coaching</i>	<i>Mentoring</i>
Purpose	Review past or current performance to sustain and improve current or future performance.	Guide learning or improvement skills.	Provide guidance focused on professional or personal growth.
Source	Rater, chain of command.	Assigned coach or trainer with special knowledge.	Those with greater experience.
Interaction	As a formal or informal conversation between superior and subordinate.	During practice or performance between a coach/trainer and the individual, observation, guidance.	Conversation on a personal level.
How it works (what the counselor, coach or mentor does)	Identify the need. Prepare for the session. Conduct counseling to encourage subordinate’s active participation. Set goals. Follow-up on progress.	From opportunities for demonstration of a skill, observe performance and provide guidance.	Apply the mentor’s experience to guide the protégé.
Outcome	Formal (Individual Development Plan) or informal goals for sustainment and improvement.	Behaviors identified for improvement, higher performance level.	Personal commitment to career choices, intent to improve.
Requirement	Required – all subordinates are to be developed and counseled.	Required or voluntary.	Voluntary, mutual commitment.
Occurrence	Prescribed times IAW performance evaluation or upon event when rater determines a need.	Training or performance events.	Initiated by either party.

Table 7-3. Counseling—Coaching—Mentoring Comparison

Values and Ethics

The Army is a values based organization. The behaviors expected of all members of the Army profession are guided by the Army Values, Warrior Ethos, and the Army Ethic. As Army leaders it is important to understand and enforce these expected behaviors. This doctrinal extract provides basic understanding of these behaviors within our Army's culture.

Extracted from ADRP 1, The Army Profession, 14 June 2013

ADRP 1

1-10. Applying these five aspects to the Army Profession starts with two critical definitions: the Army Profession and the Army professional. The ***Army Profession is a unique vocation of experts certified in the design, generation, support, and ethical application of land power, serving under civilian authority and entrusted to defend the Constitution and the rights and interests of the American people. An Army professional is a member of the Army Profession who meets the Army's certification criteria of competence, character, and commitment.***

1-11. Among American professions, the Army Profession has unique characteristics because of the lethality of our operations. The Nation tasks the Army to do many things besides combat operations, but

1-13. The American people, through civilian authorities, grant us the autonomy to use lethal force on their behalf because we have earned their trust. The Army cannot simply declare itself to be a profession; the American people, not the Army, determine when the U.S. Army is serving them as a military profession. And they will only continue to regard the Army as a profession based on our effective and ethical application of land-power. As long as they trust us to provide for their common defense, they will grant the respected status of profession to the Army and provide the autonomy we need to do our work effectively and ethically.

1-14. The Army, like other professions, regulates the behavior and effectiveness of Army professionals and units through its ethic. The ***Army Ethic is the evolving set of laws, values, and beliefs, deeply embedded within the core of the Army culture and practiced by all members of the Army Profession to motivate and guide the appropriate conduct of individual members bound together in common moral purpose.*** The Uniform Code of Military Justice, Army regulations, and policies set the minimum standard for behavior. Effectiveness is an outcome of the Army Ethic, as adhered to and practiced by stewards of the profession. The constituent parts of our ethic are evolving with the changes in the practice of warfare and our societal norms, but the manifestation of our ethic has not changed since the Constitution was adopted in 1787.

1-15. Simple or strict compliance with laws and regulations rarely generate a deeper understanding of why a prescribed behavior is right and good. The Army Ethic provides an additional moral dimension that aids in understanding the *why* behind right behavior. The Army

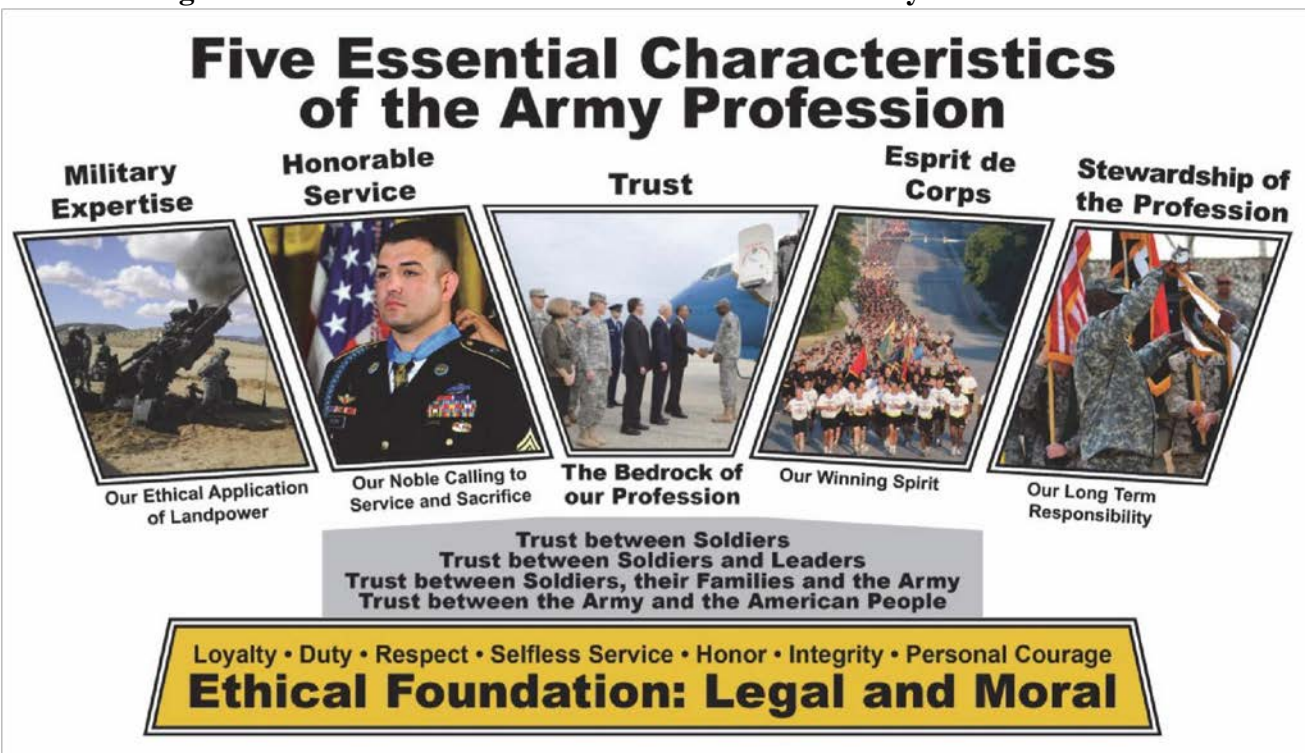
Ethic is embedded in and integral to each of the five essential characteristics of the Army Profession—trust, military expertise, honorable service, esprit de corps, and stewardship.

1-16. The Army Ethic provides and inspires the indispensable motivating spirit of those who commit to it. This is the ethos of the Army Ethic. The convention in this ADRP is to use the term ethos to describe intangible motivations of the human spirit and the word ethic when referring to the totality of the Army Ethic, the framework that includes both legal and moral components (see discussion beginning in paragraph 2-11). While the nature of an ethos precludes completely reducing it to words, our oaths, values, and creeds capture the essence of the Army Ethic.

1-17. Because of its effectiveness, the Army is highly trusted by the American public. This has not always been the case, and there is no guarantee that the Army will maintain that status. In fact, in the modern sense at least, the Army has not always been widely acknowledged as a military profession.

1-23. The unique environment of a military profession challenges Soldiers and Army Civilians to develop into professionals. The way ahead is clear—the Army will only be and perform as a military profession when five essential characteristics are present in its culture, in its professionals and their units, and in its external relationships

Figure 1-2. The five essential characteristics of the Army Profession



TRUST

1-24. The American people place special trust and confidence in the Army as a profession that considers service to the Nation its highest priority.

TRUST BASED ON ADHERENCE OF THE ARMY ETHIC

2-10. Army professionals discriminately use lethal force in conditions of moral complexity common to unified land operations. This requires Army professionals adhere to a strong professional ethic at the institutional level and develop strength of character to abide by that ethic. The Army Ethic stems from many sources and resides in many forms. The Army Ethic framework is depicted in table 2-1. The Army Ethic is an integrated and coherent whole. It may be discussed in parts for instructional purposes, but altogether it applies to what an Army professional is and does, everywhere, always.

The Framework of the Army Ethic		
	Legal Foundations <i>(codified)</i>	Moral Foundations
Army as Profession <i>(Laws/values/norms for performance of collective institution)</i>	Legal-Institutional The U.S. Constitution Titles 5, 10, 32, U.S. Code Treaties of which U.S. is party Status-of-Forces Agreements Law of Armed Conflict	Moral-Institutional The U.S. Declaration of Independence Just War Tradition Trust Relationships of the Profession
Individual as Professional <i>(Laws/values/norms for performance of individual professionals)</i>	Legal-Individual Oath of: Enlistment Commission Office U.S. Code – Standards of Exemplary Conduct UCMJ Rules of Engagement Soldier's Rules	Moral-Individual Universal Norms: Basic Rights Golden Rule Values, Creeds, and Mottos: "Duty, Honor, Country" NCO Creed, Civilian Creed 7 Army Values Soldier's Creed, Warrior Ethos
NCO noncommissioned officer UCMJ Uniform Code of Military Justice	U.S. United States	

Table 2-1. The framework of the Army Ethic

OUR OBLIGATIONS AND ASPIRATIONS FROM THE ARMY ETHIC

2-11. The framework shows the ethic as rich and varied in its sources and its content. Parts of the Army Ethic originate from codified legal documents, such as the Constitution and the Uniform Code of Military Justice. Institutionally, it is the codified part of our ethic that serves to establish the mission of the Army (ADP 1 discusses the mission of the Army). Army professionals perform individual duties according to the legal part of the Army Ethic. The Army considers an individual's performance of duty unacceptable if it prescribes penalties for Army professionals who neglect their duties.

2-12. In addition to the legal foundations, however, the Army also draws the moral foundations of its ethic from traditions, customs, and documents with immense moral content and civic importance for all Americans. Technically, these types of traditions and documents do not have standing in law; however, they often inform, support, and form the basis for (origin of) laws. Some include the Declaration of Independence, the just war tradition, and the golden rule for interpersonal behavior. The Army weaves these moral foundations throughout its culture and the

subcultures within it. The Army believes these moral foundations are effective and passes them on to succeeding generations through leadership, mentoring, customs, and traditions.

2-13. Motivated by both the legal and moral foundations of the Army Ethic, the individual Army professional must adhere to the law of armed conflict, Soldier's Rules, and rules of engagement. However, in situations where the law of armed conflict and rules of engagement fail to provide a clear and discernible course of action. In these situations, Soldiers base their decisions on the moral aspects of the Army Ethic, such as the protection of inalienable rights of all persons—and abide by the Army Values. By doing so, Army professionals are upholding the moral basis of using lethal force on behalf of the Nation and navigating the complexity and uncertainty of combat in a manner that brings honor to the Nation.

2-14. This motivating aspiration is also associated with the individual's honor—earning merits and recognition from the Army and peers for what the individual aspires to and actually accomplishes within a meritocratic culture, a culture based on abilities and achievements. Furthermore, this aspiration helps lead to a life of virtue that reinforces internal and external trust for the Army Profession and individual Army professionals. Citations for bravery and following the Warrior Ethos are examples of commendable virtuous behavior. All citations for bravery are actions above and beyond the call of duty that reflect the Army professional's action under such moral motivation. The Soldier's Creed and the Army Civilian Creed also articulate the basis for such aspiration (appendix B lists the creeds). Several aspects of the Army Ethic are discussed in the context of the five essential characteristics of the profession. For example, the moral content and legal obligations of individual oaths Army professionals take are discussed more fully in Chapter 4 within the context of honorable service.

HONORABLE SERVICE AND THE PROFESSION'S MORAL IDENTITY

4-1. Throughout history, every military society has had a distinct ethic and ethos (the indispensable motivating spirit of the ethic) that in the best of cases embodies the values and norms of the larger society it protected. The Army Ethic reflects unique American values embedded in our approach to warfighting, and they are particularly reflected in two of the five essential characteristics of the Army Profession: honorable service and esprit de corps. Together these two characteristics encompass core moral and motivational principles necessary to sustain the Army as a profession worthy of the trust of the American people. This chapter focuses on honorable service. Chapter 5 addresses esprit de corps.



Figure 4-1. Honorable service

4-2. Honorable service is the devotion to duty in defense of the Nation consistent with the Army Ethic. The Army Profession exists to provide for the common defense of the Nation. The Army supports and defends the Constitution in a manner consistent with American values, basic rights, and the Army Ethic.

4-3. Honor requires a person to demonstrate an understanding of what is right. No constitution or law is understood and obeyed in the right mind or manner without the cultivation of moral consciousness and sensitivity. Honesty, fairness, respect, and integrity between beliefs and actions define honor. Honor is integral to the Army Ethic. As stated in the Army Values, honor integrates all Army Values in the development of character for each Army professional. It prevents Soldiers from misapplying military expertise in a manner that dishonors the Army Profession and the Nation.

4-4. Army Values are more than recited words. Integrated through a sound understanding of the professional's honor, these values form the moral identity that motivates Army professionals. Army Values affirm the Army's long-standing moral tradition of our ethos and Army culture. The themes of the values must be woven through all facets of our daily life. Army Values are the basic moral building blocks of each Army professional's competence, character, and commitment.

4-5. As Army professionals, our duty is to make sound decisions and to take appropriate action. A right decision will be both effective and ethical. Making a right decision and demonstrating the courage to act accordingly requires competence, character, and commitment. Thus, developing character in Army professionals requires a commitment to honor Army Values in all decisions and actions.



Figure 4-2. Commander's award for civilian service

4-6. As Army professionals we accept the responsibility to continuously develop ourselves and others in competence, character, and commitment. These qualities, consistently demonstrated, engender trust—with the American people and those with whom we serve. Trust is essential to the successful accomplishment of every mission and professional endeavor; thus, we aspire to be trustworthy Army professionals.

4-7. Unfortunately, misconduct by some members, both on and off duty, can bring the profession as a whole into disrepute. Moral failure by Army professionals, in garrison or in a combat theater, devastates the Army's standing with the American people and the international community. Army professionals must choose to serve daily according to the profession's ethic and values to maintain the American people's trust. This is what it means for Army professionals to serve honorably.

4-8. Becoming a person and leader of character is a process involving day-to-day experience, education, self-development, developmental counseling, coaching, and mentoring. While individuals are responsible for their own character development, leaders are responsible for encouraging, supporting, and assessing the efforts of their subordinates. Leaders of character develop through continual study, reflection, experience, and feedback. Leaders hold themselves and subordinates to the highest standards (see ADP 6-22).

CREEDS



Figure B-2. Civilian oath of office

B-7. The Army is a values-based organization. It upholds principles grounded in the Constitution and inspires guiding values and standards for its members. These principles are best expressed by the Soldier's Creed, Army Values, and Warrior Ethos.

SOLDIER'S CREED

B-8. The Soldier's Creed captures the spirit of dedication Soldiers feel to be part of something greater than themselves. It outlines the fundamental obligations of Soldiers to their fellow Soldiers, their unit, and the Army itself. The Soldier's Creed extends beyond service as a Soldier; it includes commitment to family and society.

I am an American Soldier.

I am a Warrior and a member of a team.

I serve the people of the United States and live the Army Values.

I will always place the mission first.

I will never accept defeat.

I will never quit.

I will never leave a fallen comrade.

I am disciplined, physically and mentally tough, trained and proficient in my warrior tasks and drills. I always maintain my arms, my equipment, and myself.

I am an expert and I am a professional.

I stand ready to deploy, engage, and destroy the enemies of the United States of America in close combat.

I am a guardian of freedom and the American way of life.

I am an American Soldier.

ARMY CIVILIAN CREED

B-12. The Army Civilian Creed reads—

I am an Army civilian—a member of the Army team.

I am dedicated to our Army, our Soldiers and civilians.

I will always support the mission.

I provide stability and continuity during war and peace.

I support and defend the Constitution of the United States and consider it an honor to serve our nation and our Army.

I live the Army values of loyalty, duty, respect, selfless service, honor, integrity, and personal courage. I am an Army civilian.

Extracted from ADRP 6-22, Army Leadership, August 2012

ARMY VALUES

3-3. Soldiers and Army Civilians enter the Army with personal values developed in childhood and nurtured over years of personal experience. By taking an oath to serve the nation and the institution, one agrees to live and act by a new set of values—Army Values. The Army Values consist of the principles, standards, and qualities considered essential for successful Army leaders. They are fundamental to helping Soldiers and Army Civilians make the right decision in any situation. Teaching values is an important leader responsibility by creating a common understanding of the Army Values and expected standards.

3-4. The Army recognizes seven values that all Army members must develop. When read in sequence, the first letters of the Army Values form the acronym “LDRSHIP”:

- Loyalty.
- Duty.
- Respect.
- Selfless service.
- Honor.
- Integrity.
- Personal courage.

LOYALTY: BEAR TRUE FAITH AND ALLEGIANCE TO THE U.S. CONSTITUTION, YOUR UNIT AND OTHER SOLDIERS

3-5. All Soldiers and Army Civilians swear an oath to support and defend the Constitution of the United States. The Constitution established the legal basis for the Army in Article I, Section 8, where it outlines congressional responsibilities regarding America’s armed forces. Consequently, leaders—as members of the armed forces or Army Civilians—have an obligation to be faithful to the Army and its people.

3-6. To create strong organizations, superiors, subordinates, and peers must embrace loyalty. Good units build loyalty and trust through training. Leaders earn subordinates' loyalty by training them well, treating them fairly, and living the Army Values. Loyalty and trust are extremely critical for the successful day-to-day operations of all organizations. Ultimately, loyalty extends to other Services and agencies. The reality of modern operations shows that unified action partners are essential to successful mission outcomes.

DUTY: FULFILL YOUR OBLIGATIONS

3-7. Duty extends beyond law, regulation, and orders. Professionals consistently strive to do their best. Army leaders exercise initiative when they fulfill the purpose, not merely the letter, of received orders. With initiative, leaders take responsibility for their actions and those of their subordinates. Conscientiousness is a human trait that internalizes duty. Conscientious leaders have a sense of responsibility for personal contributions to the Army, demonstrated through dedicated effort, organization, thoroughness, reliability, and practicality. Conscientiousness guides leaders to do what is right.

RESPECT: TREAT PEOPLE AS THEY SHOULD BE TREATED

3-8. Respect for the individual is the basis for the Geneva Convention; this body of law codifies the ideal that Soldiers, even in the most trying of circumstances, are bound to treat others with dignity and respect. Army leaders must work with people from a wide range of backgrounds. An Army leader should prevent misunderstandings arising from cultural differences. Actively seeking to learn about different cultures and being sensitive to other cultures will aid in mentoring, coaching, and counseling subordinates. Leaders must actively seek opportunities to better understand other cultures, see other perspectives, and appreciate what others find important.

3-9. Army leaders should consistently foster a climate that treats everyone with dignity and respect, regardless of race, gender, sexual orientation, creed, or religious belief. Fostering a positive climate begins with a leader's personal example.

SELFLESS SERVICE: PUT THE WELFARE OF THE NATION, ARMY AND YOUR SUBORDINATES BEFORE YOUR OWN

3-10. People often refer to the military as "the Service." Selfless service means doing what is right for the nation, the Army, the organization, and subordinates. While the needs of the Army and the nation should come first, it does not imply leaders should neglect their Families or themselves. To the contrary, such neglect weakens a leader and can cause the Army more harm than good.

HONOR: LIVE UP TO ARMY VALUES

3-11. Honor provides the moral compass for character and personal conduct for all members of the Army. Honor holds the Army Values together. Honor requires a person to demonstrate an

understanding of what is right. Military ceremonies recognizing individual and unit achievements demonstrate and reinforce the importance the Army places on honor. Living honorably, in line with the Army Values, sets an example for every member of the organization and contributes to an organization's positive climate and morale.

3-12. How leaders conduct themselves and meet obligations define them as persons and leaders. In turn, how the Army meets the nation's commitments defines the Army as an institution. Honor demands putting the Army Values above self-interest and above career and personal comfort. Honor gives the strength of will to live according to the Army Values, especially in the face of personal danger. It is not coincidence that our military's highest award is the Medal of Honor. Its recipients clearly go beyond the call of duty.

INTEGRITY: DO WHAT IS RIGHT, LEGALLY AND MORALLY

3-13. Leaders of integrity consistently follow clear principles. The Army relies on leaders of integrity who possess high moral standards and are honest in word and deed. Leaders are honest to others by not presenting themselves or their actions as anything other than what they are, remaining committed to truth.

3-14. Leaders of integrity do the right thing because their character permits nothing less. To instill the Army Values in others, leaders must demonstrate them. Personal values inevitably extend beyond the Army Values, including such things as political, cultural, or religious beliefs. However, as an Army leader and a person of integrity, these values should reinforce, not contradict, the Army Values. Conflicts between personal and Army Values should be resolved before a leader can expect to become a morally complete Army leader. If in doubt, a leader may consult a mentor with respected values and judgment.

PERSONAL COURAGE: FACE FEAR, DANGER OR ADVERSITY (PHYSICAL OR MORAL)

3-15. Personal courage is not the absence of fear. It is the ability to put fear aside and do what is necessary. Personal courage takes two forms: physical and moral. Effective leaders demonstrate both. Physical courage requires overcoming fears of bodily harm and doing one's duty. It triggers bravery that allows a Soldier to take risks in combat in spite of the fear of wounds or even death.

3-16. Moral courage is the willingness to stand firm on values, principles, and convictions. It enables all leaders to stand up for what they believe is right, regardless of the consequences. Leaders, who take full responsibility for their decisions and actions even when things go wrong, display moral courage. Moral courage also expresses itself as candor. Candor means being frank, honest, and sincere with others. It requires impartiality and fairness.

Leadership Philosophy (Mission Command)

This excerpt from our Army's doctrine describes the Army's Leadership philosophy. Understanding the Army's leadership philosophy is an important first step towards development of one's individual leadership philosophy. Basic Course Phase II (Resident) students are required to submit their written personal leadership philosophy.

Extracted from ADP 6-0, Mission Command, May 2012 (with changes 1 and 2)

UNIFIED LAND OPERATIONS AND MISSION COMMAND

1. Unified land operations is the Army's operational concept. This concept is based on the central idea that Army units seize, retain, and exploit the initiative to gain a position of relative advantage over the enemy. This is accomplished through decisive action—the simultaneous combination of offensive, defensive, and stability operations (or defense support of civil authorities) that set the conditions for favorable conflict resolution.
2. The mission command philosophy of command is one of the foundations of unified land operations. **Mission command is the exercise of authority and direction by the commander using mission orders to enable disciplined initiative within the commander's intent to empower agile and adaptive leaders in the conduct of unified land operations.** The mission command philosophy effectively accounts for the nature of military operations. Throughout operations, unexpected opportunities and threats rapidly present themselves. Operations require responsibility and decision making at the point of action. Through mission command, commanders initiate and integrate all military functions and actions toward a common goal—mission accomplishment.

Extracted from ADRP 6-22, Army Leadership, August 2012

ARMY LEADERSHIP REQUIREMENTS MODEL

1-27. The Army exists to serve the American people, to protect enduring national interests and to fulfill the nation's military responsibilities. This requires values-based leadership, impeccable character, and professional competence. The requirements are for leaders at all levels and are common to all cohorts. The model informs leaders of the enduring capabilities needed regardless of the level of leadership, mission, or assignment. All model components are interrelated and relate to the Department of Defense (DOD) civilian leader development framework established by DODI 1430.16 (see figure 1-1).

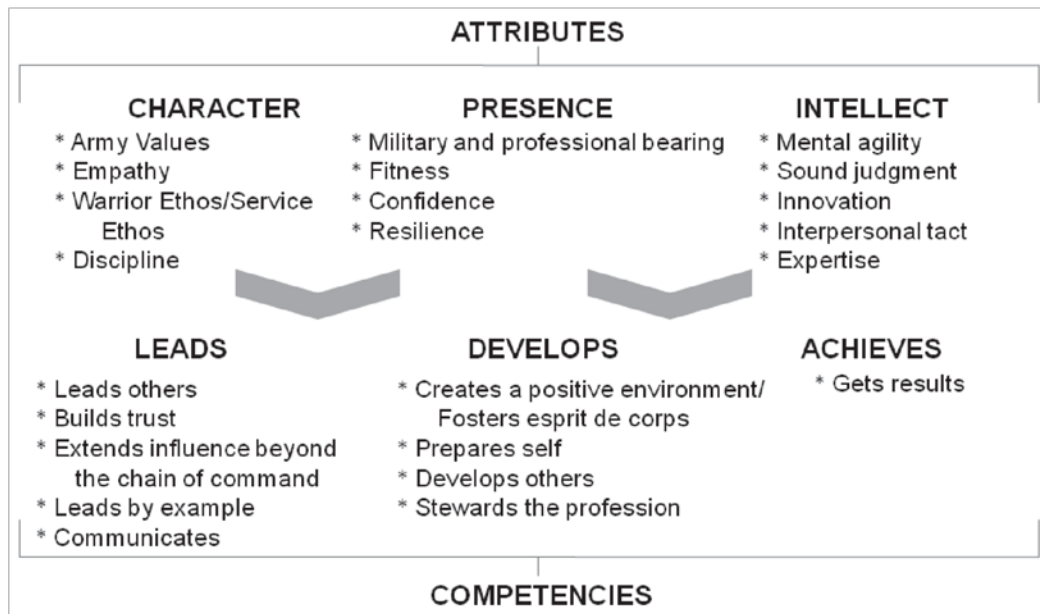


Figure 1-1. The Army leadership requirements model

1-28. The model's components center on what a leader is (attributes) and what a leader does (competencies). The leader's character, presence, and intellect enable the leader to master the core leader competencies. The Army leader is responsible to lead others; to develop the environment, themselves, others, and the profession as a whole; and to achieve organizational goals.

1-29. Effective leadership and leader development require mutual recognition and acceptance of leader and follower roles. Leadership is a reciprocal influence process between leaders and followers.

ATTRIBUTES

1-30. Attributes describe the leaders that the Army wants. Attributes describe how an individual behaves and learns within an environment. The leader attributes are character, presence, and intellect. These attributes represent the values and identity of the leader (character) with how the leader is perceived by followers and others (presence), and with the mental and social faculties the leader applies in the act of leading (intellect). Character, a person's moral and ethical qualities, helps a leader determine what is right and gives a leader motivation to do what is appropriate, regardless of the circumstances or consequences. Actions, words, and the manner in which leaders carry themselves convey presence. Presence is not just a matter of showing up; it involves the example that the leader projects to inspire others to do their best and follow their lead. An Army leader's intelligence draws from conceptual abilities and is applied to one's duties and responsibilities. Conceptual abilities enable effective problem-solving and sound judgment.

CORE LEADER COMPETENCIES

1-31. Leader competence develops from a balanced combination of institutional schooling, self-development, realistic training, and professional experience. Building competence follows a systematic and gradual approach, from mastering individual competencies to applying them in concert and tailoring them to the situation at hand. Leading people by giving them a complex task helps them develop the confidence and will to take on progressively more difficult challenges.

1-32. Competencies provide a clear and consistent way of conveying expectations for Army leaders. Current and future leaders want to know how to be successful leaders. The core leader competencies apply across all levels of leader positions and throughout careers, providing a good basis for evaluation and focused multisource assessment and feedback. A spectrum of leaders and followers (superiors, subordinates, peers, and mentors) can observe and assess competencies demonstrated through behaviors.

1-33. Leader competencies can be developed. Leaders acquire the basic competencies at the direct leadership level. As the leader moves to organizational and strategic level positions, the competencies provide the basis for leading through change. Leaders continuously refine and extend the ability to perform these competencies proficiently and learn to apply them to increasingly complex situations.

1-34. Performing missions develops, sustains, and improves these competencies. Leaders do not wait until deployments to develop their leader competencies. They use every training opportunity to assess and improve their ability to lead.

1-35. To improve their proficiency, Army leaders can take advantage of chances to learn and gain experience in the leader competencies. They should look for new learning opportunities, ask questions, seek training opportunities, conduct self-assessments, and request performance critiques. This lifelong approach to learning ensures leaders remain viable as professionals.

USING COMPLIANCE AND COMMITMENT

6-3. Compliance is appropriate for short-term, immediate requirements and for situations with little risk tolerance. Compliance methods are appropriate for leaders to use with others who are relatively unfamiliar with the tasks or unwilling or unable to commit fully to the request. If a task has little time for delay, and there is not a great need for a subordinate to understand why the request occurs, then compliance is an acceptable approach. Compliance is not particularly effective when a leader's greatest aim is to create initiative and high esteem within the team.

6-4. Commitment generally produces longer lasting and broader effects. Whereas compliance only affects a follower's behavior, commitment reaches deeper—changing attitudes, beliefs, and behavior. For example, when a leader builds responsibility among followers, they will likely demonstrate more initiative, personal involvement, and creativity. Commitment grows from an individual's desire to gain a sense of control and develop self-worth by contributing to the organization. Depending on the influence objective, leaders can strengthen commitment by reinforcing followers' identification with the nation (loyalty), the Army (professionalism), the unit or organization (selfless service), the leadership in a unit (respect), and to the job (duty).