2016 Center for Army Leadership Annual Survey of Army Leadership

Army Civilian Leader Findings

The Center for Army Leadership

Mission Command Center of Excellence,
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A separate report from the Center for Army Leadership, 2017-01, provides findings from this survey on uniformed leaders.

14. ABSTRACT CASAL is the Army's annual survey to assess the quality of leadership and leader development. 2016 findings are based on responses from 3,206 Army Civilians. This eighth year of the survey with the inclusion of Army Civilians has additional coverage on organizational citizenship behaviors within teams. Army Civilian leaders surpass a benchmark of 75% effective on 9 of 13 leader attributes. The 4 below 75% include:Total Fitness, Innovation, Interpersonal Tact, and Warrior Ethos/Service Ethos. Seven of the 10 leadership competencies from doctrine fall 5-10% below the acceptable level, while an eighth, Develops Others, could improve by 20% to reach the benchmark. Up to 9% of civilian leaders demonstrate more counterproductive than productive leadership behaviors. Two-thirds of civilian leaders rate their work experiences (68%) and self-development (69%) effective in developing them for increased leadership responsibility; a lack of upward job mobility is cited as a reason why levels are not higher. 76% of recent graduates of Army Civilian education courses rate the education quality as good or very good. Two-thirds or fewer graduates rate their most recent course effective at improving their leadership capabilities. Engagement is a measure of initiative and productivity, and is higher among civilian managers and first line supervisors than non-supervisory employees. Army Civilian engagement exceeds military leaders on items that reflect job latitude, perceived importance of duties, and team collaboration, but is less favorable on items that reflect active support by superiors for leader development. Four-fifths of civilians agree team members exhibit organizational citizenship behaviors that promote positive working environments. One-third of civilian leaders report workload stress as a serious problem, with unit personnel shortages cited as a key reason. Results of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (FEVS) corroborate several CASAL findings. Recommended steps that the Army and individual leaders can take are offered to address the areas for improvement.

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Executive Summary

Purpose

The Center for Army Leadership's (CAL) Annual Survey of Army Leadership (CASAL) is a recurring, longitudinal study to capture assessments from the field about leadership and leader development. CASAL provides information on the trends of attitudes surrounding how effective leaders lead, and how effective leader development practices are for preparing leaders to assume greater responsibility. Since 2009, survey administration has included Army Civilians. CASAL affords decision makers and stakeholders the option to make informed decisions, to make course adjustments, or to leverage prevailing strengths. Agencies and individuals may submit data queries to CAL for further analysis of CASAL results. CASAL findings inform groups such as the Army Profession and Leader Development Forum, Human Capital Enterprise Board, and Army Learning Coordination Council, as well as special studies and initiatives.

Method

CAL applies scientifically sound methods to survey development, sampling, data collection, analysis, interpretation, and reporting to obtain accurate and reliable information. The survey addresses leadership and leader development as covered by Army regulations and doctrine. Survey items are chosen based on historical tracking of issues, new input from stakeholders in the Army leader development community, and CAL-identification of emerging issues. Data were collected from 26 October through 28 November 2016. Random sampling identified 16,000 Army Civilians invited to take the survey, of which 3,206 participated for a response rate of 20.0%. The sampling included both Army Civilian leaders and followers to ensure representative upward assessments of leadership. A successive, post-collection screening approach to identify civilians in leadership positions resulted in a final sample of 897 managers, 1,175 first line supervisors, and 1,134 non-supervisory employees. Sampling practices produced results with a margin of error of ± 1.7% for the population of 212,391 Army Civilians. This level of sampling precision means that 95 times out of 100 the observed percentage will be within 1.7% of the true value.

Data analysis includes assessment of percentages by supervisory level, analysis of trends, comparisons across experiences and demographics, coding of short-answer responses, correlations, and regressions. Findings from other surveys and data sources are consulted to check the reliability of CASAL responses. This report discusses Army Civilian leader findings and serves as a companion document to the technical report of CASAL military leader findings (Riley, Cavanaugh, Jones, & Fallesen, 2017).

For most items, percentages are used to convey the relative frequency of respondents who assess leaders or leader development positively and to show trends across time. As an aid in interpretation, favorability levels have been set based on past CASALs and other surveys. A rule of thumb applied to CASAL's assessment of leadership behaviors is the "three-fourths favorable threshold" whereby item results receiving three-fourths or more favorable responses (i.e., 75% *effective* plus *very effective*) are considered positive. Items where favorable responses fall below this threshold and/or receive 20% or more unfavorable responses are considered areas for improvement. Across seven previous years of CASAL results, several consistent patterns emerged that provide a backdrop to aid in understanding specific findings:

- Group percentages indicating favorability of leadership and leader development increase with the supervisory level and length of service of the respondent.

- Ratings on items that have greater personal impact (e.g., agreement that your *immediate superior* is an effective leader) tend to be more favorable than ratings for items that are less specific (e.g., rating the effectiveness of your *superiors* as leaders).

- Army Civilians' assessments of their immediate superiors' effectiveness tend to be less favorable than ratings by uniformed leaders.

- The data confirm that items assessed by CASAL are not equally applicable to Soldiers and Army Civilian leaders because of differences in policies and conditions of military service and federal employment.

Summary of Findings

Leadership Competencies and Attributes

The Army's expectations for civilian leaders are established in Army leadership doctrine (ADRP 6-22, 2012d) and are consistent with leadership models for federal employees. Leader attributes are characteristics desired of leaders that shape their capability to perform leadership actions. The doctrinal set of leader attributes that support and enable leadership activities is nearly all met by three-fourths or more of civilian leaders. The most favorable attributes of civilian leaders are *Expertise*, *Confidence & Composure*, the *Army Values*, and *Discipline*. The lowest rated attributes at below 75% of civilian leaders rated effective are *Total Fitness* (physical, health, psychological, spiritual, behavioral, and social), *Innovation*, *Interpersonal Tact*, and *Warrior Ethos/Service Ethos*. Leadership competencies are observable activities that leaders are expected to do and can be improved through development. The highest rated competencies at 75% or more of civilian leaders rated effective are *Gets Results* and *Prepares Self*. Civilian leaders are assessed moderately favorable on 7 of 10 competencies, with effectiveness ratings falling below the three-fourths level by 5-10%. The lowest rated

competency, *Develops Others*, remains a key area for civilian leader improvement, currently assessed 20% below the three-fourths effective level. Findings at the competency level are reinforced by the results of supporting behaviors that also show room for improvement, such as assessing the developmental needs of subordinates, building effective teams, and taking action to help subordinates manage excessive workload demands.

Army Civilians are stakeholders in the Army-wide strategy to instill the mission command philosophy as a way of operating. About two-thirds of civilian leaders are assessed as effective at demonstrating behaviors reflecting the six principles of the mission command philosophy. The principle with the most room for improvement is *Building Effective Teams through Mutual Trust.* Less than two-thirds of civilian leaders are rated effective at building effective teams (63%) and at the competency *Builds Trust* (65%). Army Civilians trust superiors who *Lead by Example*, demonstrate *Sound Judgment*, and *Create a Positive Environment*.

The doctrinal leadership requirements are validated by CASAL results that show significant associations between how well civilian leaders perform and favorable outcomes that are achieved. Effective demonstration of the competencies and attributes by civilian leaders makes a significant and positive difference on organizational outcomes and subordinate attitudes, such as team cohesion and discipline, command climate, work quality, and individual morale, engagement, and commitment to the Army.

Counterproductive Leadership

Counterproductive leadership involves destructive conduct that decreases followers' well-being and undermines unit functioning. This is reflected in any leadership activity or attitude that goes against the desired outcomes of positive leadership actions (AR 600-100, 2017a). At the most detrimental levels, counterproductive behaviors are manifested as toxic leadership. The frequency of counterproductive leadership behaviors by civilian leaders remains limited and relatively unchanged since first assessed by CASAL in 2012.

Up to 9% of civilian leaders are assessed as displaying more counterproductive than productive behaviors, to the extent their behavior would be considered frequent or severe enough to be labelled as counterproductive. Counterproductive leadership behaviors tend to be assessed as more frequently occurring at the first line supervisor level of leadership than at higher levels. Analysis of subordinates' ratings shows that civilian leaders who effectively *Build Trust*, demonstrate *Sound Judgment,* and demonstrate *Empathy* are least often perceived to demonstrate counterproductive leadership behaviors. Counterproductive leadership behaviors run contrary to the *Army Values* and strain bonds of trust in organizations. Subordinates report

low levels of trust in civilian leaders whom they perceive to demonstrate counterproductive leadership behaviors, and assess these leaders as less effective in trust-building behaviors. Civilian leaders who engage in a combination of counterproductive behaviors are perceived as having adverse effects on command climate; the cohesion, discipline, and capability of the teams and work groups they lead; and the work quality, engagement, and morale of their followers.

Morale and Career Satisfaction

Morale is a measure of how people feel about themselves, their team, and their leaders. Nearly 50% of Army Civilians report high morale while one in four report low morale. Favorable levels of morale have re-stabilized after a notable decline in 2013 that reflected the fiscal climate of the federal government and especially the Department of Defense (e.g., pay and hiring freezes, budgetary constraints, and furloughs). Career satisfaction represents a compilation of affective and other attitudes regarding characteristics spanning a person's career. Career satisfaction remains at positive levels with three-fourths of managers and first line supervisors and two-thirds of non-supervisory employees reporting satisfaction with their Army career up to this point. The Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (FEVS) provides findings related to morale and satisfaction that are not assessed by CASAL. Results of the 2016 FEVS indicate fewer Army Civilians report satisfaction with their current job, with their organization, and with their pay compared to levels observed prior to 2013 (U.S. Office of Personnel Management, 2016).

Working Environments

Army Civilians feel positive about the environments in which they work. Commitment to their team or immediate work group is high—96%. Over four-fifths know what is expected of them in their positions, believe their assigned duties are important to their organization, and have confidence in the ability of their organization to perform its mission.

Army Civilians continue to assess their organization's climate as supportive of effective leadership, learning, and development. Many believe that unit members are enabled to determine how best to accomplish their work (71%), are allowed to learn from honest mistakes (69%), and are encouraged to try new and better ways of doing things (75%). Trust is a quality that serves as a basis for effective relationships between leaders and followers. Of Army Civilians, 76% report a favorable level of trust among unit members (40% report high or very high trust, 36% report moderate trust). Collective felt trust, or the shared feelings by an organization's members who agree on the extent to which they are trusted by senior leaders, is reported by nearly two-thirds of civilians.

A majority of civilians report that members of their teams or immediate work groups engage in organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), or discretionary behaviors that promote organizational effectiveness. Examples include helping others in the performance of their duties when needed (88%), showing respect toward one another even under stressful conditions (82%), and willingly performing additional tasks beyond their assigned duties (80%). These behaviors are associated with high levels of trust among unit members, satisfaction with the quality of leadership in units, and confidence in the ability of the unit to perform its mission.

Workload stress continues to be assessed as a less favorable condition of Army Civilian working environments. Stress from a high workload negatively affects one in three civilian leaders. A key factor cited as contributing to workload stress is personnel shortages in organizations, a finding corroborated by FEVS results. Distribution of workloads among personnel is an effective way leaders can mitigate stress, though this is less feasible in organizations with insufficient personnel (or insufficiently qualified personnel) to do the work.

Levels of satisfaction with the quality of military and civilian leadership remain stable since first assessed in 2013. The factors within the working environment that most strongly contribute to civilian leader satisfaction with unit leadership include the overall level of trust among unit members, perceptions that senior leaders place trust in subordinates (collective felt trust), senior leader effectiveness at lessening or limiting the effects of workload stress, feeling informed about decisions affecting work responsibilities, and satisfaction with the freedom or latitude to perform one's duties.

Engagement

Engagement represents the level of commitment one has for their organization and the level of initiative they apply to their duties. Army Civilian engagement, as measured by an index score using a set of 10 items, remains at a favorable level, consistent with results from 2015. Seventy-two percent of Army Civilians report a positive level of engagement, ranging from 69% of non-supervisory employees to 75% of managers. Engagement indicators with the smallest percentage of favorable responses include respondent agreement that they have access to the right resources (e.g., people, materials, budget) to accomplish their duties to standard, the effectiveness of Army Civilian job experiences in developing respondents for higher levels of leadership or responsibility, and the frequency with which respondents' immediate superiors talk with them about how they are doing in their work and how they can improve their duty performance. Results of the FEVS, which offers an established measure of Federal employee engagement, indicate that Army Civilian levels declined from 2011 to 2014 before showing a slight recovery in recent years. FEVS results for engagement support CASAL findings that

indicate civilian leader skill improvement in the *Leads* category of competencies is warranted, especially among managers.

Civilian Leader Development

Civilian leader development occurs at moderate levels in the Army. Managers and first line supervisors favor the development they receive through operational work experiences and self-development over formal education opportunities. Of civilian leaders, 68% rate their development through job experiences as effective. Informal methods of development that occur in work settings (such as opportunities to lead others, on-the-job training, and learning from peers) are viewed as having the largest positive impact on development. Those who view their experiences as ineffective cite a lack of upward mobility or opportunity for advancement as primary reasons why they are not developing skills for higher levels of leadership or responsibility.

Civilian leader involvement in their subordinates' development continues to show room for improvement. Performance counseling occurs inconsistently and the perceived impact on development remains low, with only 43% of civilian leaders agreeing that counseling feedback was useful for setting performance goals for improvement. A majority of civilian leaders report that their immediate superior engages with them at least occasionally on how they are doing in their work (69%) and how they could improve their duty performance (53%). Conversations about how to prepare for future assignments rarely or never occur for half of civilian leaders (51%). Mentoring relationships are less common among civilian leaders than active component (AC) uniformed leaders. About one-fourth of civilian leaders currently receive mentoring (27%), and twice as many (54%) provide mentoring to others. Of those who receive mentoring, 74% rate it as having a large or great positive impact on their development.

Civilian Education System

More than half of civilian leaders who have completed a recent CES course (56%) rate institutional courses as effective or very effective in developing them for higher levels of leadership or responsibility. Nearly two-thirds of civilian managers and first line supervisors have completed a CES course in their career. A majority of recent attendees rate their course as providing a good quality of education, though courses are viewed as moderately favorable for improving civilian leadership capabilities (53% to 67% of graduates from the individual courses rating it as effective or very effective). Blended learning courses with distributed learning (DL) and resident phases are assessed as more effective than entirely DL courses for preparing learners to work on teams, deal with unfamiliar situations, develop subordinates' leadership

skills, influence others, improve the organization, and solve complex problems. The three courses assessed most favorably in terms of preparing learners to demonstrate a range of learning outcomes and in offering useful and relevant content are the Intermediate Course, the Advanced Course, and Continuing Education for Senior Leaders.

Conclusions

Army Civilian leaders effectively demonstrate the leader attributes; however, less than three-fourths effectively display key leadership competencies such as *Leading Others*, *Leading by Example*, C*reating a Positive Environment*, *Building Trust*, and *Communicating.* Improvement is also warranted in behaviors such as building effective teams, and actions related to getting results (e.g., managing people and time, providing sufficient guidance, providing resources).

Develops Others has consistently been the lowest rated of the 10 leadership competencies, and this represents an important area for improvement for both civilian and uniformed leaders. The need for improvement in civilians developing subordinates is reflected by both CASAL and FEVS results that indicate performance counseling tends to occur inconsistently and has a relatively low impact on development, that only one in four civilian leaders currently receive mentoring, and that superior-subordinate discussions about work quality and ways to improve performance occur only occasionally or less frequently for most. The most frequently reported methods for development used by civilian leaders include minimal-effort actions, such as remaining approachable, offering encouragement or praise, and allowing subordinate input during decision-making or planning.

Army Civilians report strong commitment to and efficacy within their teams and immediate work groups, and hold pride and confidence in their organizations. A majority of civilians assess their organization's climate as supportive of effective leadership, learning, and development. Army Civilians' assessments of their commitment, the quality of leadership in their organizations, and team member willingness to engage in organizational citizenship behaviors equal or surpass uniformed leaders' assessments. However, other indicators show that the current operating environment is marked with high levels of workload stress for many, insufficient time to develop oneself, limited developmental impact of job experiences, and up to 8% of civilian leaders demonstrating more counterproductive than productive leadership behaviors.

Civilian leaders are often without incentives for development, unlike uniformed leaders. Due to conditions of federal employment, civilian leader development is not tied to automatic promotions or advancement. There are no provisions in organizations for back-fill or added

manpower to cover dedicated developmental or educational experiences for civilians. Thus, a good option is to provide development through job experiences and activities that best fit the conditions of civilian employment. Developmental methods assessed as having the greatest positive impact on civilian leaders include opportunities to lead others, on-the-job training, and learning from peers. Two out of three civilian leaders have completed a formal CES course. Courses with a resident phase are assessed as moderately favorable in preparing civilian leaders to perform a range of leadership behaviors, but could be more effective at improving learners' leadership capabilities.

The Army Civilian Corps remains a critical component of the Army Total Force. Civilian leaders serve as professional, technically proficient experts who provide a continuity of operations essential to the Army's mission. By increasing the performance capabilities in *leadership* skills across the civilian workforce, the Army can alleviate concerns in a number of related areas including counterproductive leadership and developing others, which will also positively affect trust, cohesion, engagement, retention, and workload stress in organizations.

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2016 Center for Army Leadership
Annual Survey of Army Leadership (CASAL):
Army Civilian Leader Findings

Introduction

The Center for Army Leadership's (CAL) Annual Survey of Army Leadership (CASAL) is a recurring, longitudinal study to capture assessments from the field about leadership and leader development. CASAL has been used to inform senior leaders about levels of leadership quality and associated upward or downward trends, and affords decision makers and stakeholders the option to make informed decisions, course adjustments, or to leverage prevailing strengths. Since 2009, survey administration has included Army Civilians. CAL accepts data queries submitted by agencies and individuals for further analysis of CASAL results. CASAL findings inform groups such as the Army's Training and Leader Development Conference, Army Profession and Leader Development Forum, Human Capital Enterprise Board, and Army Learning Coordination Council, as well as special studies and initiatives conducted by various other organizations. This report is a companion document to the technical report for military leader findings (Riley, Cavanaugh, Jones, & Fallesen, 2017).

Survey Development, Administration, and Response Rates

Each year, survey development begins with the identification of issues of importance in leadership and leader development. As one purpose of CASAL is to adequately track trends and identify patterns in results over time, many survey items from past years are used without change during each administration of the survey. Other items are dropped, added, or modified in order to balance the coverage of leadership topics with the time required to respond and respondent fatigue. Stakeholders from the Army leader development community are contacted to provide recommendations for new topics. This is done to ensure CASAL assesses relevant and timely issues in the Army. Data are collected from respondents through both quantitative (e.g., select a rating) and qualitative (e.g., type a brief answer) means. In an effort to minimize survey length and respondent fatigue, item skip patterns and branching are employed to tailor sections of the survey to specific ranks or to leaders with relevant experiences. Items are developed and selected to address the survey's essential elements of analysis (EEAs), which is a list of targeted topics, issues, and survey items. A sampling of EEAs includes:

Quality of Leadership

- What is the overall level of quality of Army leaders?
- How effectively do Army leaders demonstrate core leadership competencies and leader attributes?
- How do climate and situational factors affect leadership?
- What is the impact of counterproductive leadership behavior in the Army?

Leader Development

- How effective are Army leader development practices?
- How effective are Army leaders at supporting the development of subordinate leaders?
- How effective is the mentoring that occurs between mentors and mentees?
- How effective are Army institutional courses/schools for preparing leaders?

The 2016 CASAL was administered online from 26 October through 28 November 2016. Random sampling identified 16,000 Army Civilians to be invited to take the survey, of which 3,206 participated for a response rate of 20.0%. Sampling practices produced results with a margin of error of ± 1.7% for the population of 212,391 Army Civilians. This level of sampling precision means that 95 times out of 100 the observed percentage will be within 1.7% of the true value. The sampling included both Army Civilian leaders and followers to ensure representative upward assessments of leadership.

Demographic Results

The sample of Army Civilian respondents to the 2016 CASAL reflects the Army Civilian workforce with regard to gender and ethnic origin (Office of the Assistant G-1 for Civilian Personnel, 2014). The reported education level of survey respondents exceeded the levels of the DoD workforce, with 31% holding bachelor degrees (compared to 27% of DoD workforce) and 39% holding graduate or professional degrees (compared to 17% of DoD workforce; Defense Civilian Personnel Advisory Service, 2015).

Of the Army Civilian respondent sample, 62% previously served in the military (65% of managers; 64% of first line supervisors; 58% of non-supervisory employees).[1] The average tenure of civilians in their current organization was 125 months; average time in current

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[1] Results for Army civilian respondents with previous military experience do not differ significantly from those without previous military experience.

position was 70 months; average time in current grade or pay level was 80 months; and average time reporting to current leader or supervisor was 37 months.

There were two points at the beginning of the survey that required respondents to indicate whether or not they were in a position represented by a bargaining unit and/or union. Data were not collected from respondents who indicated bargaining unit or union membership. Federal statute 5 USC 7116(a)(1) and (5) seeks to limit an agency's ability to 'bypass the union' using a survey to poll/question bargaining unit employees (typically consisting of GS-5 through GS-11 non-supervisory employees) on matters affecting their conditions of employment.

Supervisory Status Classification

The 2016 CASAL sampling plan included Army Civilian managers, first line supervisors, and non-supervisory employees. A random sample was drawn from a current population database of all Army Civilians based on a supervisory status variable and excluded Senior Executive Service (SES). Prior to conducting data analyses, CASAL classifications of supervisory status relied on a combination of self-reported data (i.e., position, GS level, supervisory responsibilities) to determine civilian supervisory cohort categorizations. Similar to previous years, a post-collection, multi-step process that examined consistency of responses on survey items was used.

A civilian leader is defined as an Army Civilian who holds direct supervisory responsibility for one or more Army Civilians and/or uniformed personnel. For the purposes of this research, civilian leaders are classified into one of two groups: managers or first line supervisors. To be included in one of the supervisory cohorts, civilian respondents had to respond 'yes' that they directly supervised subordinates (either civilian or uniformed personnel or both) and provide the number of direct-report subordinates they supervised (greater than zero). Respondents who also indicated their direct-report subordinates were supervisors themselves were classified as managers, while those who indicated their subordinates were not supervisors were classified as first line supervisors. Respondents who indicated they did not hold supervisory responsibilities were classified as non-supervisory employees. As a final determining factor, a survey item asked respondents to select a response that best represented their current position. These responses included short definitions of supervisory responsibilities, and were used to classify any remaining respondents not yet classified due to missing data for the other items.

The result of this successive screening approach defined three civilian cohorts for whom data were included in the analyses discussed in this report:

- Managers – supervise direct reports who are also supervisors (n = 897)

- First line supervisors – supervise employees that are non-supervisors (n = 1,175)

- Non-supervisory employees – do not hold supervisory responsibilities (n = 1,134)

Organization of Findings

This report is presented in two parts:

- The first part, *Quality of Leadership*, includes chapters that cover current levels of leader effectiveness in the Army, the climate and situational factors within the working environment, and counterproductive leadership.

- The second part, *Quality of Leader Development*, includes chapters that cover the Army leader development domains (i.e., operational, self-development, and institutional), the leader's role in the development of subordinates, and the civilian education system (CES).

The primary purpose of this report is to summarize CASAL results for Army Civilian leaders. To accomplish this objective, discussions on civilian leadership effectiveness include assessments by non-supervisory civilian employees (as followers of civilian leaders). Part two of this report, *Quality of Leader Development*, includes consideration of managers and first line supervisors, cohorts determined through the screening process described previously.

Results Interpretation

This report contains substantial detail and enumeration of percentages to facilitate precise interpretation of results. Additional statistical analyses are performed to aid in the interpretation of the survey topics and to draw out higher-level meaning across items. The appendix of this report includes a summary of the range of statistical analyses conducted for CASAL. Accumulated trends reported over the past decade increase the clarity of interpretations. Thus, a high degree of confidence can be placed in the findings.

Within each chapter, key findings are summarized and presented in call-out boxes. Where appropriate, trend comparisons are made to CASAL findings reported in past years. Comparisons to CASAL results pertaining to attitudes, opinions, and ratings of active component (AC) uniformed leader respondents are made when useful or for confirmation (Riley et al., 2017). Statistically significant differences between these groups, where relevant, are

referenced in footnotes throughout this report. CASAL findings are also supplemented with results from other Army and Federal surveys that have assessed similar topic areas. Specifically, Army Civilian findings from the 2016 Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (FEVS; U.S. Office of Personnel Management, 2016) assessed factors similar to CASAL; results are discussed where applicable.

Most quantitative items ask participants to respond on a scale of 1 to 5, where 5 is the most favorable (e.g., *very effective*, *strongly agree*, *very satisfied*) and 1 is the least favorable (e.g., *very ineffective*, *strongly disagree*, *very dissatisfied*), with a neutral middle point 3. To ease the interpretation of results, the 5-point response categories are collapsed into 3-point scales. For example, responses of 5 (strongly agree) and 4 (agree) are collapsed and reported as the percentage of participants who "agree or strongly agree." Thus, most charts in this report display the percentage of favorable, neutral, and unfavorable responses for an item or rank group. The appendix of this report includes a more detailed description of the survey item response scales used and methods for statistical analysis.

A rule of thumb applied to CASAL's assessment of leadership behaviors is the "three-fourths favorable threshold" whereby item results receiving three-fourths or more favorable responses (i.e., 75% agreement or effectiveness) are considered positive. The 75% threshold was derived from results of a recent supplemental CASAL study that examined the relationship between leadership behaviors and estimates for the level of risk to unit mission readiness. Items where favorable responses fall below this threshold and/or receive 20% or more unfavorable responses are considered areas for improvement. Similarly, a 6% difference in an item's results between years is a useful guideline for identifying meaningful change over time. While these rules of thumb may be applied as general guidelines to data interpretation, each item warrants its own consideration. Several factors affect the interpretation of item favorability and change, including the sampling error for each sub-group being examined, and in some cases, variation in the way items are worded between years.

Part One: Quality of Leadership

1.1   Army Leader Effectiveness

The Army defines leadership as "the process of influencing people by providing purpose, direction, and motivation while operating to accomplish the mission and improving the organization" (ADRP 6-22, 2012d, p. 1-1). The Army leadership requirements model (LRM) identifies core leader competencies and attributes which describe the expectations for both uniformed and civilian leaders and reflect what the Army Leader Development Strategy (ALDS, 2013b) aspires to produce or enhance. The practical value of the model is to define the actions and behaviors that are used to guide and assess leaders' performance.

CASAL serves as *the* benchmark in the Army for assessing leader effectiveness in demonstrating the doctrinal core leader competencies and leader attributes (ADRP 6-22, 2012d). Since 2009, CASAL has employed a consistent method of assessing leaders' performance, which enables trend comparisons across years. CASAL items ask respondents to assess their immediate superior, supervisor, or first line leader on a range of behaviors, attributes, and outcomes. This approach of capturing upward ratings of a single target leader is effective, as most Army leaders have an appropriate opportunity to observe and become familiar with patterns of effectiveness of their immediate superior's leadership. In the 2016 CASAL, 72% of civilian respondents indicate their immediate superior or supervisor is an Army Civilian (23% indicate they report to a uniformed leader). The results of this report focus on civilian respondents' assessment of civilian leaders. Findings have demonstrated that Army leaders reflect a relatively stable profile of strengths and developmental areas across the competencies and attributes. Leaders are consistently assessed more favorably in demonstrating the leader attributes compared to the competencies.

Core Leader Competencies

Competencies provide a clear and consistent way of conveying expectations for Army leaders, apply across all levels of leader positions, and can be developed through focus and effort. Army leaders continuously refine and increase their proficiency to perform the core leader competencies and learn to apply them to increasingly complex situations (ADRP 6-22, 2012d).

CASAL results for civilian leaders demonstrate a three-tiered competency trend which is an established pattern in the relative position of highest, lowest, and middle tier competencies. The same pattern is evident for ratings of uniformed leaders. The highest rated competences are *Prepares Self* and *Gets Results*, as 75% or more of civilian leaders are rated as effective or very effective, while 11% or less are rated ineffective or very ineffective. Seven competencies

constitute the middle tier across the set of 10 competencies, including *Stewards the Profession, Extends Influence Outside the Chain of Command, Leads by Example, Communicates, Creates a Positive Environment, Leads Others*, and *Builds Trust*. Favorable ratings for these competencies include 65% to 70% of civilian leaders (i.e., effective or very effective), while 14% to 19% are rated ineffective or very ineffective. *Develops Others* persists as the lowest rated competency and the area most in need of improvement for both civilian and uniformed leaders (see Figure 1)[2].
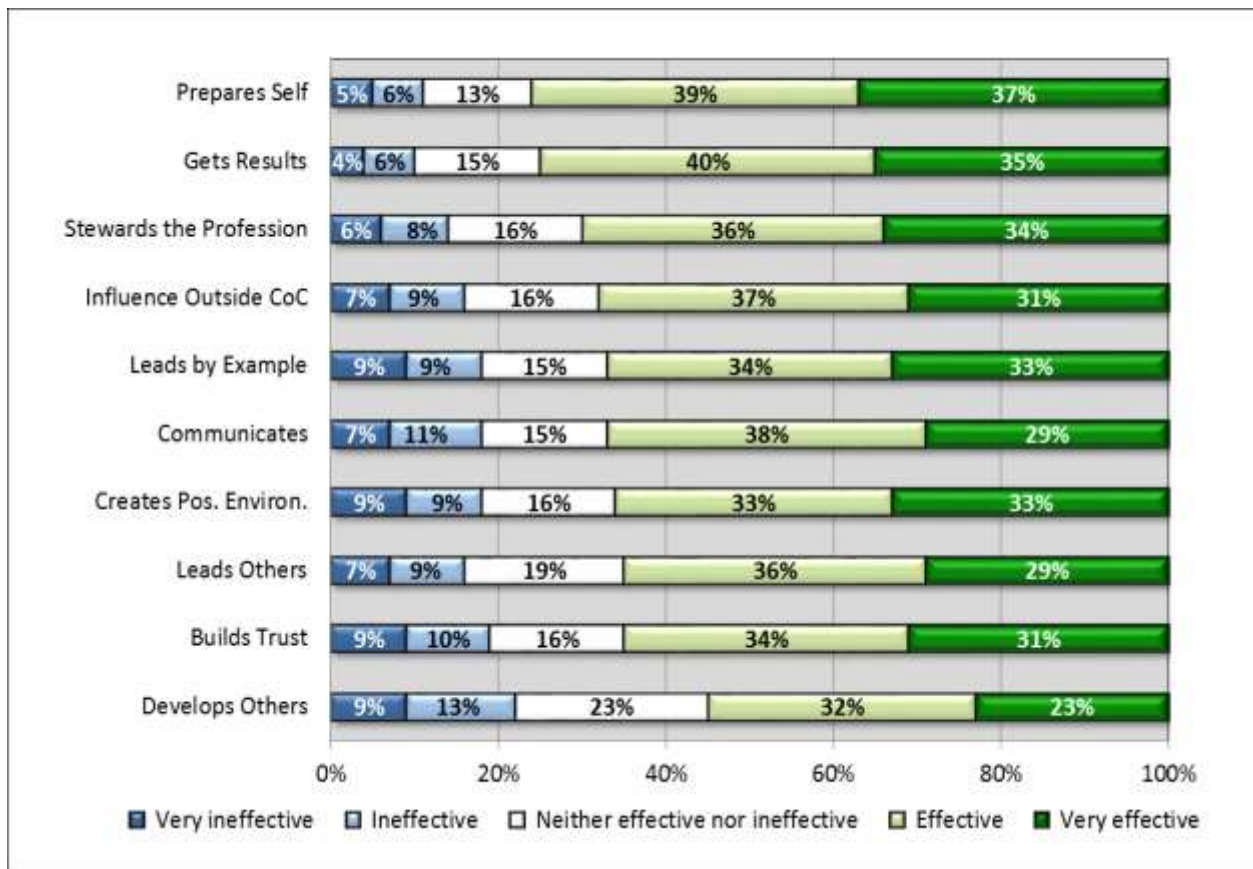
Figure 1. Army Civilian Leader Effectiveness in Demonstrating the Core Leader Competencies

Assessments of civilian leader effectiveness in demonstrating the core leader competencies have remained fairly stable since 2012 (within ± 5% when transforming responses to three

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[2] Figures 1 and 3 include the results of all five response options showing Army Civilian ratings for the 10 core leader competencies and 13 attributes to provide a more detailed understanding. The majority of the other charts in this report present results using a collapsed 3-point scale for ease of interpretation.

response option categories). Figure 2 presents CASAL trends for civilian leader effectiveness in demonstrating the competencies from 2009 to 2016.
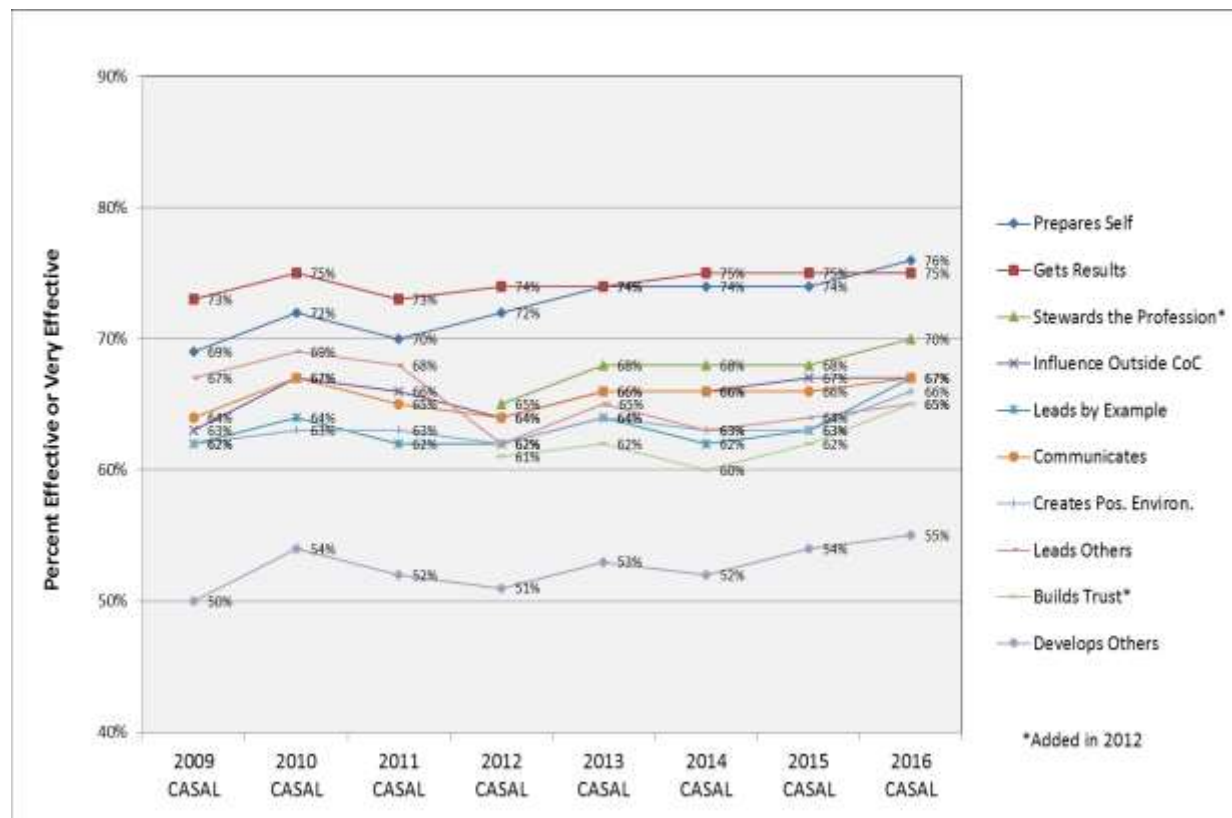
Figure 2. Comparison of Army Civilian Leader Effectiveness in Demonstrating the Core Leader Competencies from 2009 to 2016

Leader Attributes

Attributes represent the values and identity of Army leaders (character), how leaders are perceived by followers and others (presence), and the mental and social faculties that leaders apply when leading (intellect). CASAL results have consistently captured favorable assessments of Army Civilian and AC uniformed leaders across the range of attributes, and overall, findings indicate no widespread deficiencies. CASAL's assessment of the leader attributes has evolved since 2009 to reflect changes in descriptions within the LRM (ADRP 6-22, 2012d), to better reflect the underlying attributes being assessed, and to limit perceived redundancy in survey items. CASAL assesses the demonstration of attributes with modifications to the doctrinal terms to help respondents focus on key aspects. The current list of assessed attributes has been included in CASAL since 2012, which provides a consistent means for examining trends.

Civilian leaders are assessed most favorably on the attributes of *Expertise in Primary Duties*, *Confidence & Composure*, the *Army Values*, and *Self-discipline* (see Figure 3)[3], findings that represent well-established trends in CASAL results. The four attributes that are consistently ranked least favorably are *Total Fitness* (physical, health, psychological, spiritual, behavioral, and social), *Innovation*, *Interpersonal Tact,* and the *Warrior Ethos/Service Ethos*, with favorable results (68% to 72%) that fall below the 75% acceptable threshold. Encouragingly, only 9% to 15% of civilian respondents rate their civilian immediate superior as ineffective or very ineffective in demonstrating any of the leader attributes. Since 2012, the level of favorable assessment for each individual leader attribute has remained fairly stable (± 4%). Trend results for civilian leader effectiveness in demonstrating the attributes from 2009 to 2016 are presented in Figure 4.

> *Army Civilian leaders are assessed most favorably in demonstrating Expertise, Confidence & Composure, the Army Values, and Self-discipline.*

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[3] The percentages of civilian leaders rated effective/very effective at demonstrating the *Army Values* (78%), the *Warrior Ethos/Service Ethos* (73%), and *Total Fitness* (68%) are significantly lower than ratings for AC uniformed leaders (85%, 82%, and 77%, respectively).
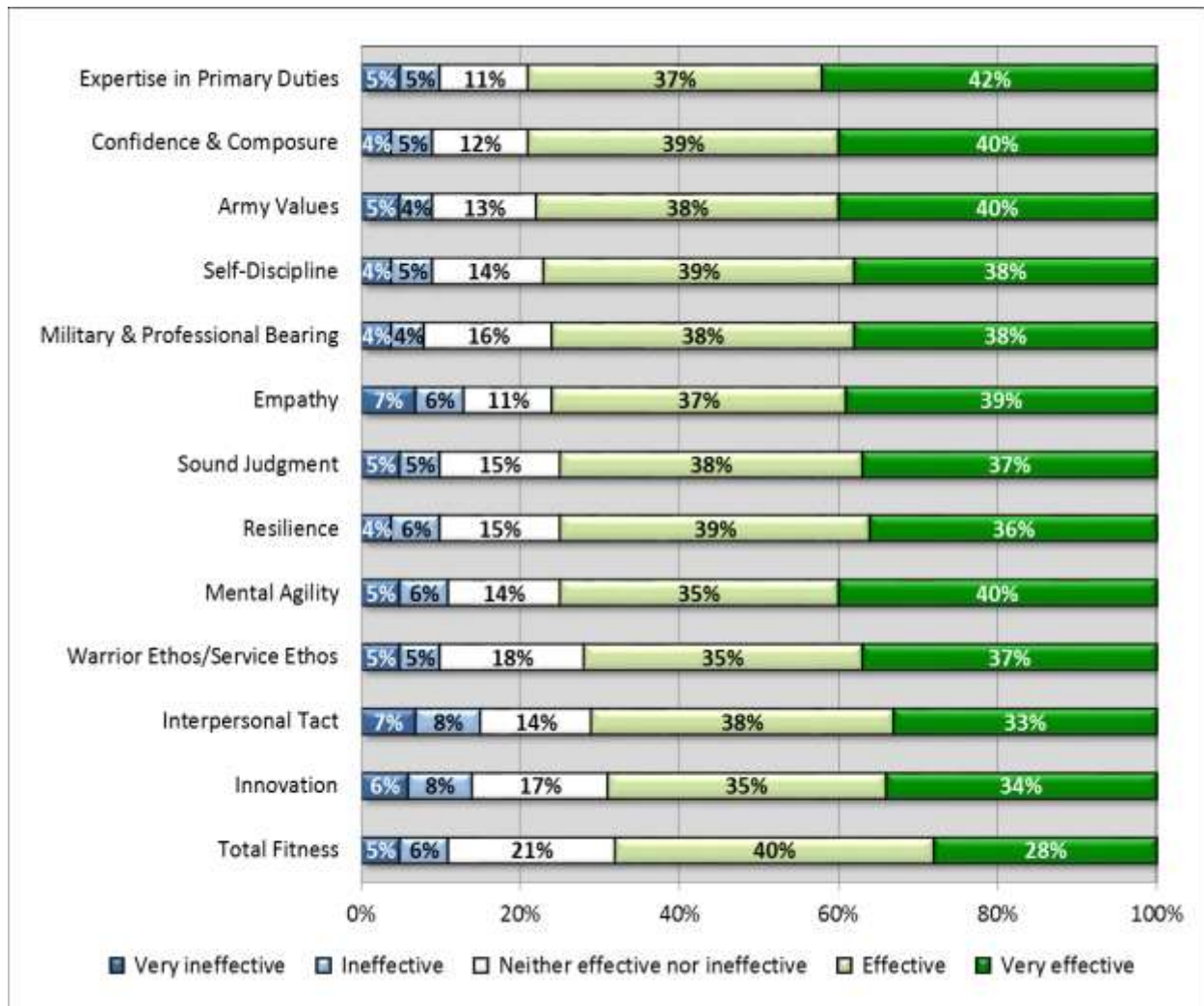
Figure 3. Army Civilian Leader Effectiveness in Demonstrating the Leader Attributes
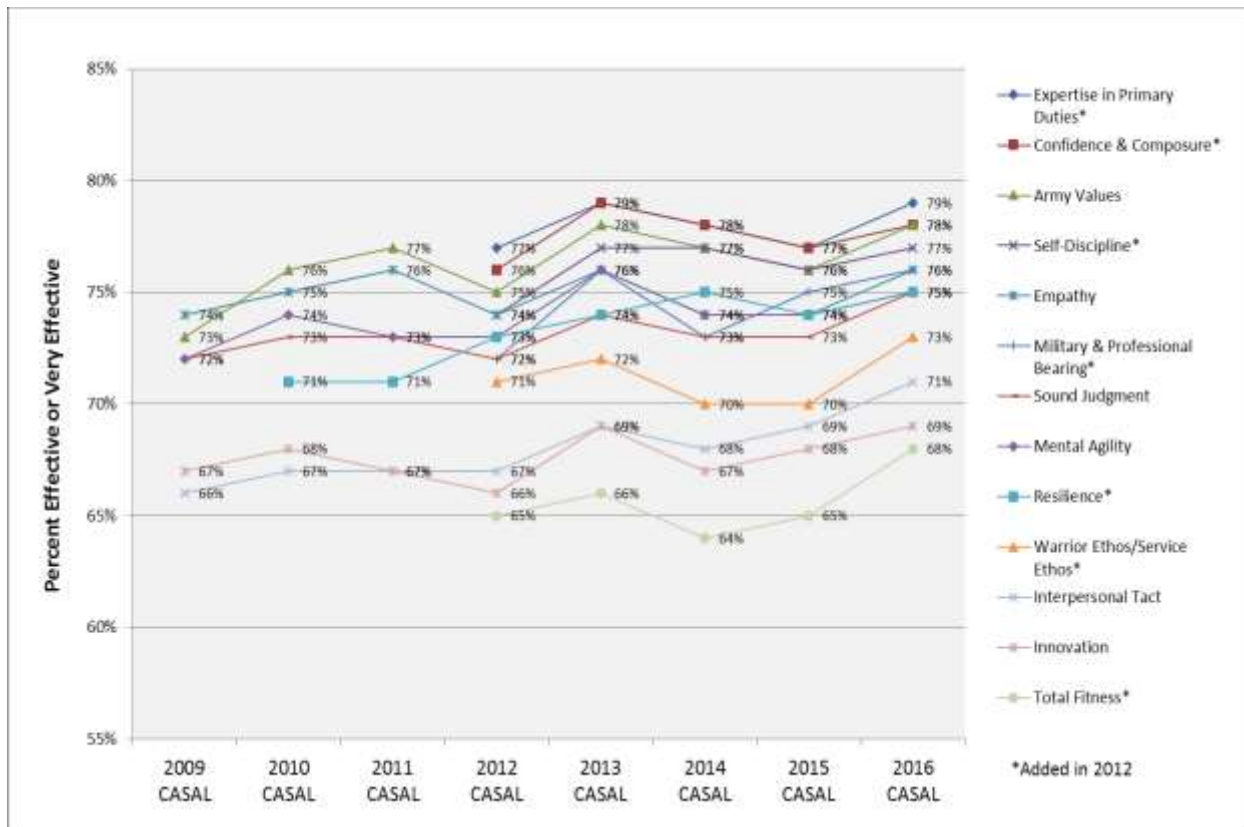
Figure 4. Comparison of Army Civilian Leader Effectiveness in Demonstrating the Leader Attributes from 2009 to 2016

Leadership Effectiveness Index Scores

An alternative method for examining leader competency and attribute ratings is through leadership effectiveness index scores. An index score is a measure of the proportion of favorable responses across a set of survey items. Index scores are calculated as the average of the percent positive of each item in a set of items. Leadership effectiveness index scores were calculated for the 10 competencies, the 13 attributes, and for all 23 competencies and attributes together as a more comprehensive measure of leadership effectiveness. A key benefit of an index score is that it allows for examination of change in the level of favorable ratings across a large set of items (e.g., competencies and/or attributes) in a more holistic fashion rather than just trying to interpret individual item results over time.

Figure 5 presents the trend results for civilian leadership effectiveness index scores (as assessed by civilian subordinates) for the competencies, attributes, and a combined average reflecting all

components of the LRM.[4] The figure provides a concise picture of how assessments of Army Civilian leadership effectiveness have shown slight variation (within 3.0 points) and is currently at the most favorable levels observed since 2012.
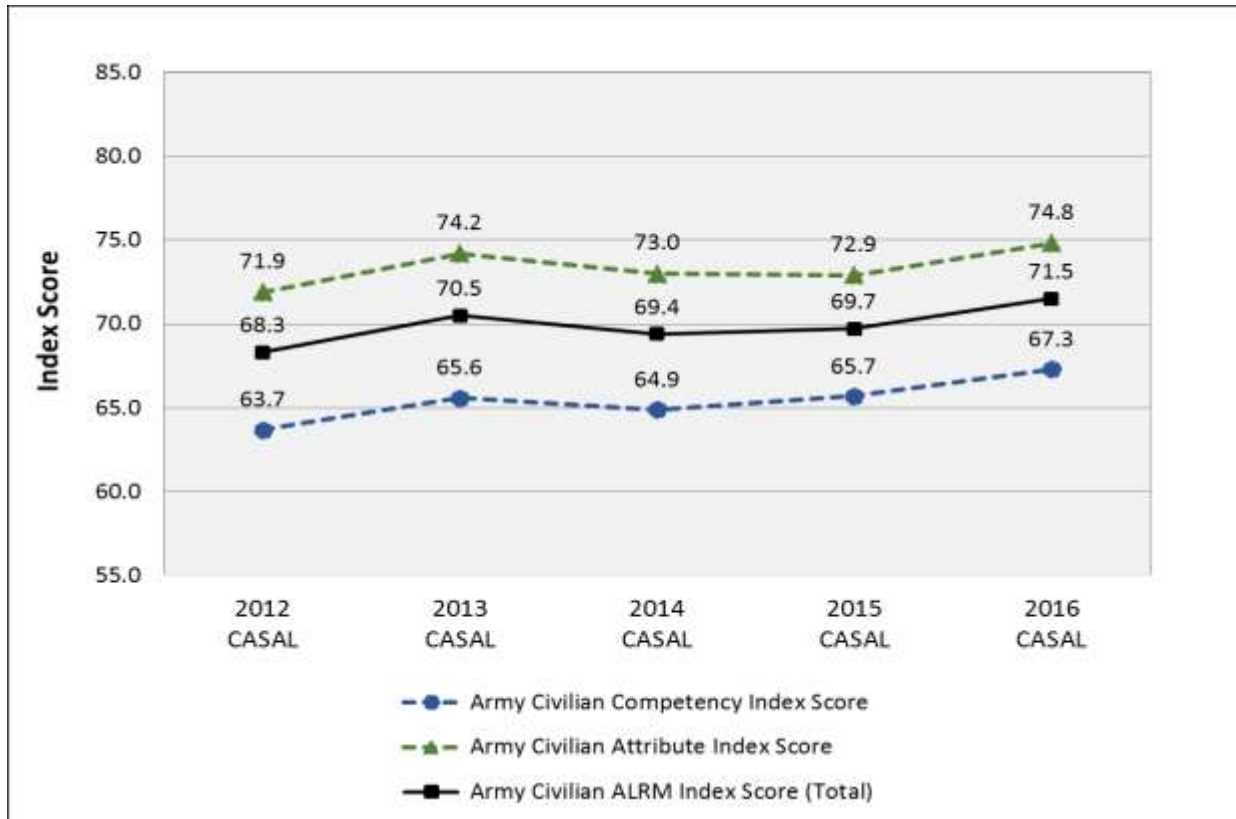
Figure 5. Trends for Army Civilian Leadership Effectiveness Index Scores (2012 to 2016)

Supporting Leadership Behaviors

The 2016 CASAL included additional coverage on leader behaviors that are listed as behaviors in the competency and attributes summary tables in ADRP 6-22 (2012d). Civilian leader results for these behaviors are presented in Figure 6. Additionally, a closer examination of behaviors related to *Developing Others* is presented in chapter 2.2 of this report.

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[4] Trend results for leadership effectiveness index scores begin in 2012. This is the year in which CASAL items began reflecting the current competencies and attributes described in leadership doctrine, ADRP 6-22 (2012d).

How effective is your immediate superior at the following?

Behavior	Ineffective or Very ineffective	Neither effective nor ineffective	Effective or Very effective
Developing a quick understanding of complex situations (Mental Agility)	11%	15%	74%
Setting the standard for integrity and character (Leads by Example)	13%	14%	73%
Agreement immediate superior keeps an open mind to multiple possibilities (Mental Agility)	13%	16%	71%
Dealing with unfamiliar situations (Mental Agility)	13%	18%	69%
Emphasizing organizational improvement (Stewards the Profession)	13%	18%	69%
Providing resources needed by subordinates to accomplish organizational missions (Gets Results)	15%	16%	69%
Balancing subordinate needs with mission requirements (Leads Others)	15%	18%	67%
Providing sufficient guidance on how to accomplish tasks (Gets Results)	17%	18%	65%
Taking action to help subordinates manage excessive workload demands (Leads Others)	20%	21%	59%

■ Ineffective or Very ineffective □ Neither effective nor ineffective ■ Effective or Very effective

Figure 6. Army Civilian Leader Effectiveness in Performing Leadership Behaviors

Three categories of behaviors in Figure 6 can be considered near-strengths of civilian leaders, as results fall narrowly below the three-fourths favorable threshold (i.e., from 1% to 6% improvement is needed). First, civilian leaders who set the standard for integrity and character model *the Army Values*. Standard bearers in units and organizations positively influence followers and others through *Leading by Example*. Second, civilian leaders demonstrate *Mental Agility* through flexibility of mind and when anticipating or adapting to uncertain or changing situations (ADRP 6-22, 2012d). While 75% of civilian leaders are assessed as effective in demonstrating *Mental Agility*, slightly smaller percentages are assessed favorably on the supporting behaviors of developing a quick understanding of complex situations, keeping an open mind to multiple possibilities, and dealing with unfamiliar situations. Each of these three behaviors is positively related to the attribute *Mental Agility* ($r's$ = .72 to .82, $p's$ 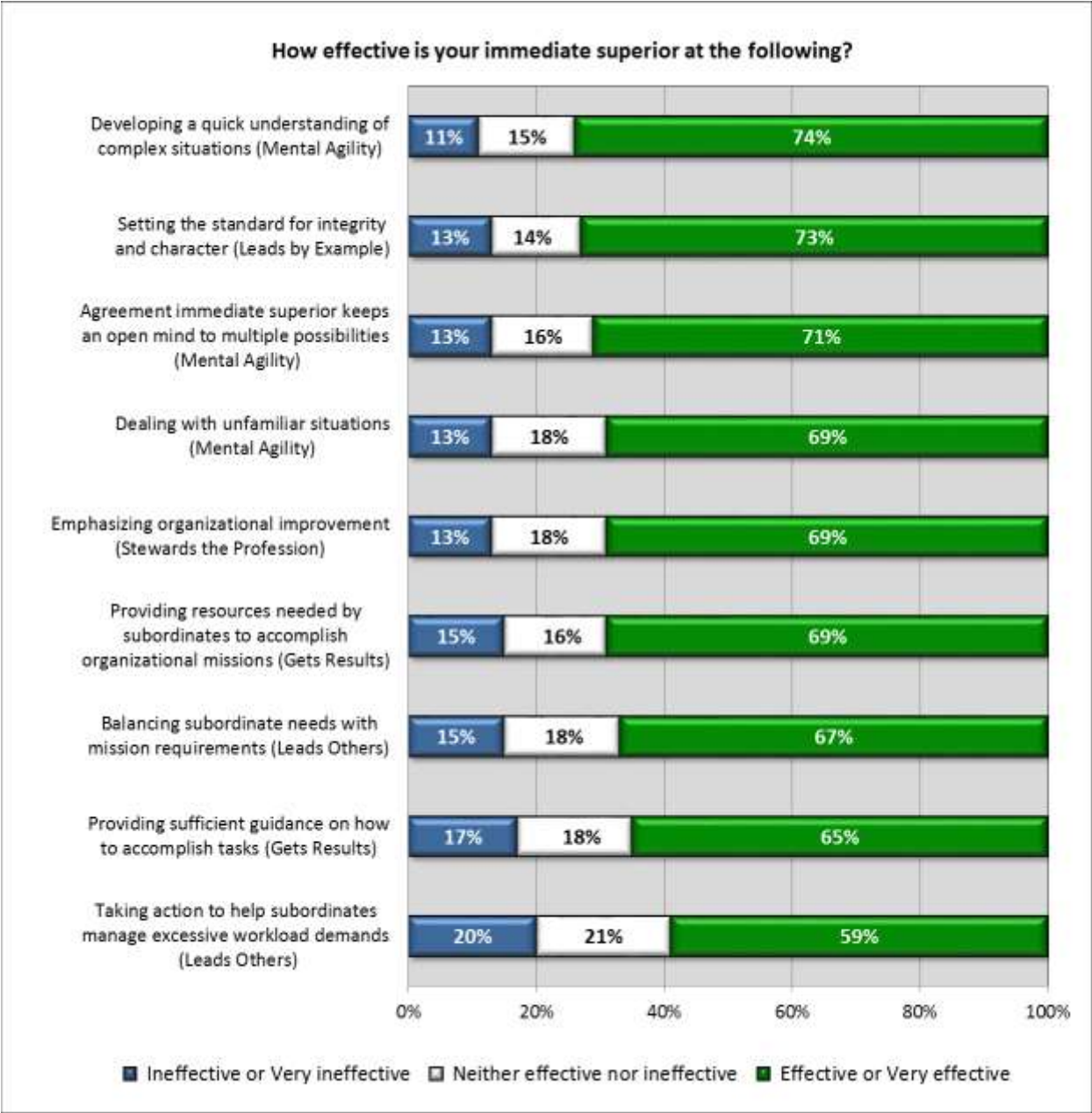< .001). Third, civilian leaders who effectively emphasize organizational improvement practice good stewardship of the profession and care about the functioning of the units and organizations in which they operate. Improving one's organization is part of the Army's definition of leadership (ADRP 6-22, 2012d).

> *Civilian leaders are viewed favorably in demonstrating behaviors related to mental agility and setting the standard for integrity and character.*

Civilian leaders show more room for improvement on several other behaviors presented in Figure 6. As discussed previously, 75% of civilian leaders are assessed as effective at *Gets Results*, and this is consistently among the most favorably rated competencies. Smaller percentages of civilian leaders are assessed as effective at the supporting behaviors of providing resources needed by subordinates to accomplish organizational missions and at providing sufficient guidance on how to accomplish tasks. Each of these behaviors is positively related to the competency *Gets Results* ($r's$ = .72 to .75, $p's$ < .001) and show room for 6% to 10% improvement to reach the three-fourths favorable threshold. Subordinates are the direct recipients of their superiors' effectiveness in resource and task management. In this way, an individuals' proficiency in these aspects of leading can have a large impact on their subordinates' effectiveness in performing their duties.

Proficiency in the competency *Leads Others* is reflected in how well civilian leaders balance subordinate needs with mission requirements and take action to help subordinates manage excessive workload demands. These leader behaviors are of elevated importance, as CASAL results have consistently demonstrated that one in three

> *Leadership is critical to mission accomplishment, yet competencies in the Leads category are not among the most favorably rated for civilian leaders.*

civilian leader respondents report stress from a high workload as a serious problem (see chapter 1.2). Favorable results for these two behaviors show room for 8% to 16% improvement to reach the three-fourths favorable threshold. Notably, *Leads Others* is not among the most favorably rated competencies, nor are any of the four other competencies from the Leads category (*Builds Trust*, *Extends Influence Beyond the Chain of Command*, *Leads by Example*, and *Communicates*). The competencies within the *Leads* category are central to the meaning of leadership, represent the essence of influence and providing purpose, motivation, and direction, and therefore warrant focus and attention to prepare civilian leaders to perform these skills effectively.

In summary, the results for the lowest-rated leadership behaviors align with critical elements of the LRM (ADRP 6-22, 2012d), but will not likely reach the acceptable threshold without focused effort in preparing civilian leaders to perform them well.

Builds Trust

All Army leaders are responsible for building a culture of trust in which superiors trust subordinates, subordinates trust superiors, and team members trust each other (ADRP 1, 2013a). Leaders build trust to facilitate relationships and to encourage commitment among followers. This starts with respect among people and grows from both common experiences and shared understanding. Trust establishes conditions for effective influence and mission command, and for creating a positive environment. The prevailing level of trust is important to each leader as he or she determines the level of rapport with others and the types of influence techniques that are most suitable (ADRP 6-22, 2012d).

Nearly two-thirds of civilian leaders are assessed as effective or very effective at the competency *Builds Trust*. Since 2012, favorable assessments of civilian leaders in building trust have ranged from 60% to 65% effective, which is more than 10 points below the three-fourths favorable threshold, indicating room for improvement. Results for supporting behaviors that comprise civilian leader effectiveness in building and sustaining trust are presented in Figure 7. These indices include levels of agreement that one's

> *Civilian leaders are rated effective across a range of trust-building behaviors by 55% to 72% of subordinates.*

civilian immediate superior honors commitments to others, positively corrects conditions that hinder trust[5], and looks out for subordinate welfare.
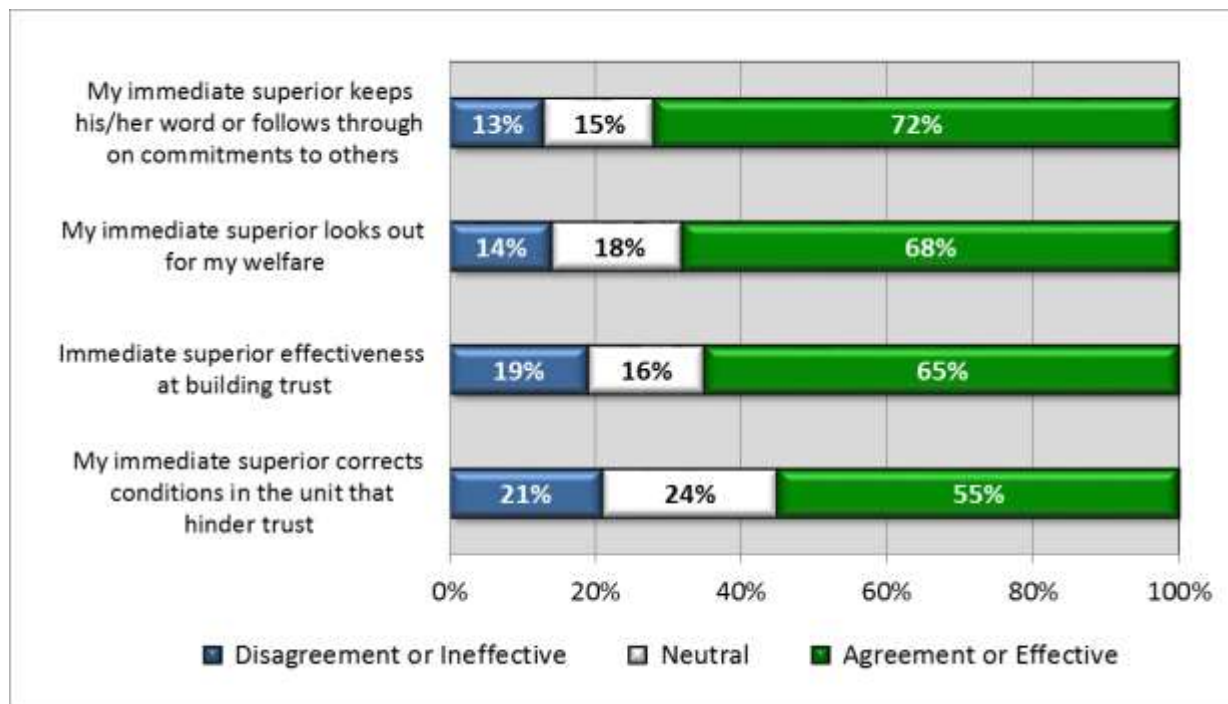
Figure 7. Civilian Leader Effectiveness in Demonstrating Trust-building Behaviors

CASAL uses a composite score to examine the relationships between trust-building behavior and subordinate attitudes and organizational outcomes. The composite score demonstrates strong internal consistency for the set of four trust-building behaviors presented in Figure 7 (α = .92). There is a positive relationship between civilian leader effectiveness in building trust and the leader's effects on their team or immediate work group's cohesion, discipline, capability to accomplish missions, and command climate ($r's$ = .78 to .83, p < .001), as well as subordinate work quality, engagement, and morale ($r's$ = .59 to .75, p < .001). These findings are consistent with past CASAL results and continue to reflect the important role of effective leadership in vertical trust relationships in the Army.

Civilian leaders effective at Building Trust are perceived as positively affecting the work quality, engagement, morale, cohesion, discipline, and the capabilities of those they lead.

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[5] The percentage of Army civilians indicating agreement/strong agreement that their civilian immediate superior corrects conditions in the unit that hinder trust (55%) is significantly lower than AC uniformed leader agreement (65%).

Civilian leaders who are effective at *Building Trust* are perceived as having a positive impact on their followers and on mission accomplishment.

Of civilian respondents, 84% report having a favorable level of trust in their civilian immediate superior (61% report high or very high trust and 23% report moderate trust). Trust in one's immediate superior is significantly related to the leader's effectiveness in *Leading by Example*, demonstrating *Sound Judgment*, and *Creating a Positive Environment,* as these two competencies and one attribute explain a significant amount of variance in the level of trust subordinates have in that leader (R^2 = .67, *p* < .001). These behaviors reflect the common elements of doing what is right and caring about subordinates. *Leading by Example* represents a civilian leader's demonstration of the Army's standards for leadership, while *Sound Judgment* represents an ability to demonstrate good decision making that will not subject subordinates to unwarranted risks.

Mission Command

Army doctrine on mission command (ADP 6-0) describes the mission command philosophy as "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" (2012a, p. 1). The mission command philosophy requires constant adjustments in the level of control, communications, risk, and initiative required of subordinate commanders to accomplish warfighting functions. A strategic end state of the Army Mission Command Strategy (AMCS) is Army-wide understanding and effective practice of the mission command philosophy. All Army military and civilian leaders are identified as stakeholders of the AMCS (Department of the Army, 2013c).

Since 2013, CASAL has assessed civilian leader effectiveness in demonstrating the six principles of the mission command philosophy as outlined in ADP 6-0, *Mission Command* (2012a). A majority of civilian respondents rate their civilian immediate superior favorably across the six mission command behaviors (see Figure 8). At an overall level, these results are positive yet remain short of the three-fourths favorable threshold, indicating there is room for improvement. The levels of effectiveness for each behavior are generally stable, with trend results showing minimal variation (± 3%) since 2013. An encouraging finding is that relatively small percentages of

> *Civilian leader effectiveness in demonstrating the mission command philosophy is moderate. Favorable ratings are 2-12% below the three-fourths threshold on all six principles. Building effective teams is the behavior with the most room for improvement.*

leaders are rated unfavorably on any individual behavior (13% to 19%). Results for civilian leader effectiveness in building effective teams[6], which is a component of the *Develops Others* competency, have increased from a low of 59% effective in 2011 to the current level of 63% in 2016. Results indicate that *Building Effective Teams through Mutual Trust* is the mission command behavior that shows the most room for improvement for civilian and uniformed leaders.
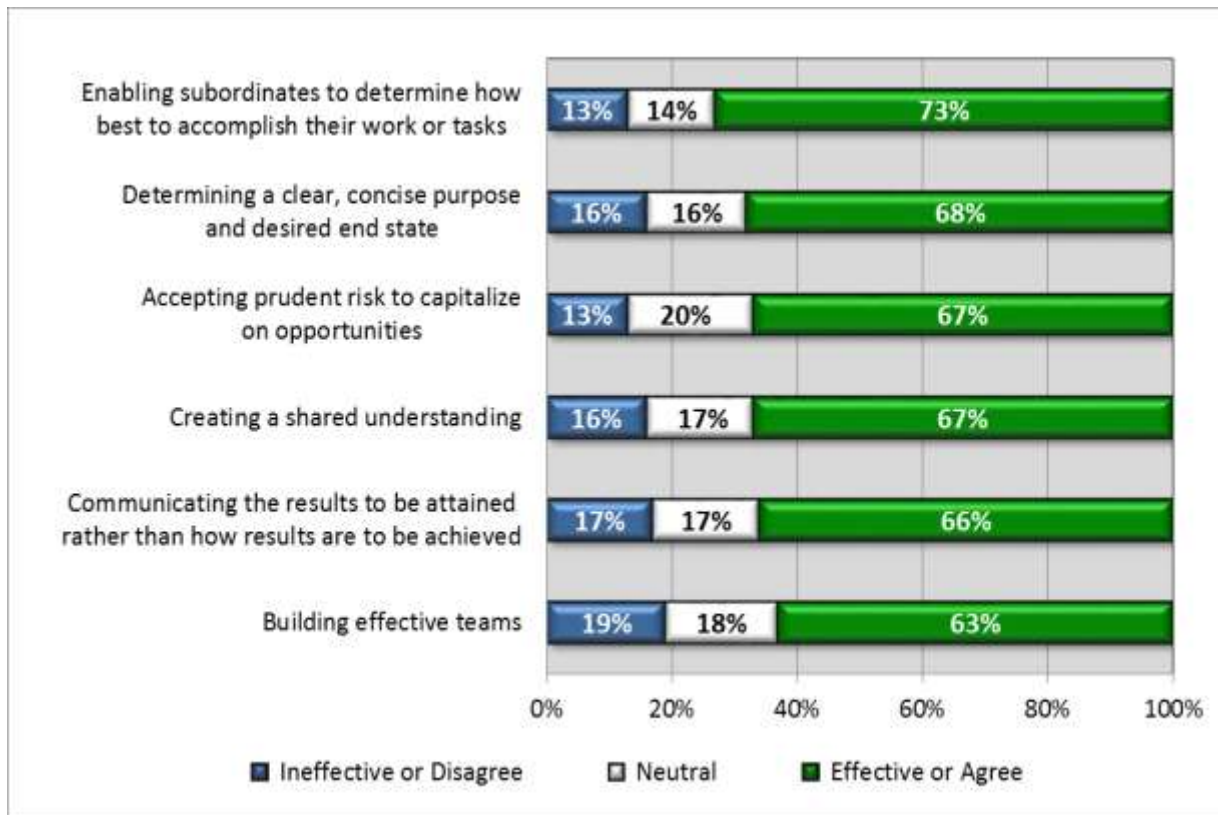
CASAL uses a composite score to examine the six behaviors that comprise effective demonstration of the mission command philosophy; the composite score continues to demonstrate strong internal consistency for the set of 6 mission command items presented in Figure 8 (α = .96). Positive demonstration of the mission command philosophy is strongly related to effective leadership. Civilian respondents who rate their civilian immediate superior favorably across the six behaviors also tend to rate their superior as effective in demonstrating

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[6] Army leader effectiveness in building effective teams has been assessed by CASAL since 2011. Items for the other five principles of the mission command philosophy were first added to CASAL in 2013.

the core leader competencies ($r = .92$, $p < .001$) and leader attributes ($r = .90$, $p < .001$)[7] and agree their superior is an effective leader ($r = .86$, $p < .001$).

As stated in ADP 6-22, "mission command calls for leaders with the ability to build a collaborative environment, the commitment to develop subordinates, the courage to trust, the confidence to delegate, the patience to overcome adversity, and the restraint to allow lower echelons to develop the situation" (2012b, p. 1-3). If executed effectively, these characteristics of mission command in practice should be evident in Army work settings. There are strong positive relationships between Army Civilian assessments of their civilian immediate superior effectively exercising mission command and their superior's positive impact on their team or immediate work group's cohesion, discipline, capability to accomplish missions, and command climate ($r's = .77$ to $.82$, $p < .001$). Similarly, civilian leader effectiveness in demonstrating mission command also positively relates to favorable subordinate attitudes, such as agreement that unit members are empowered to make decisions pertaining to the performance of their duties and are allowed to learn from honest mistakes, trust in one's immediate superior, satisfaction with the amount of freedom or latitude to perform duties, and subordinates feeling informed about decisions affecting their work responsibilities ($r's = .49$ to $.78$, $p < .001$). Notably, there are stronger correlations between a civilian leader's demonstration of effective mission command and effects on subordinates' states and processes (e.g., cohesion, discipline, engagement, motivation, and trust in that leader) than on subordinate attitudes about broader characteristics of the organization (e.g., level of trust among all members of organization).

Indicators of Leadership Effectiveness

CASAL includes two single-item assessments of respondents' immediate superiors' effectiveness as leaders. First, 66% of Army Civilian respondents agree or strongly agree their civilian immediate superior is an effective leader; 17% neither agree nor disagree, while another 17% disagree or strongly disagree. Second, respondents provided a single judgment on how well their civilian immediate superior met their expectations of a leader in his or her position. Overall, these findings are also positive and show that more than two-thirds (69%) of civilian respondents report their immediate superior is either meeting (34%), exceeding (23%), or greatly exceeding (12%) their expectations for leadership.

The 10 competencies and 13 attributes assessed by CASAL were examined using a stepwise multiple regression to identify which of the competencies and attributes best explain ratings of effective leadership. Three competencies and one attribute significantly explain 75% of the

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[7] Correlation coefficients reflect the relationships between composite scores for leader effectiveness in demonstrating the mission command philosophy, the core leader competencies, and the leader attributes.

variance ($R^2 = .78$, $p < .001$) in effectiveness ratings for one's civilian immediate superior: *Leading Others, Building Trust,* demonstrating the *Warrior Ethos/Service Ethos*, and *Communicating* are most strongly associated with agreement that one's immediate superior is an effective leader. This means that these four factors together differentiate levels of effective civilian leadership. Ratings for the other competencies and attributes, while favorable, explain considerably less unique variance in ratings after accounting for the impact of these four components. Factors not assessed by CASAL also contribute to respondents' perceptions of their immediate superior, such as personality, the history of the superior-subordinate working relationship, and the respondents' career experiences working with other leaders. Implicit leadership theory (Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Yukl, 2013) indicates followers' perceptions of leaders can be impacted by followers' own idea of what effective leadership is and how closely their leader's behaviors and characteristics align to this image.

Army leadership research by Horey and colleagues (2007) observed that in comparison to leader behaviors (e.g., competencies) leader traits (e.g., attributes) have less impact on leadership outcomes. Other research estimates that 25-30% of the capacity to serve in a leadership role is passed down to us genetically, while the rest is influenced by environmental factors and can be developed (Arvey, Rotundo, Johnson, Zhang, & McGue, 2004; Arvey, Zhang, Avolio, & Krueger, 2007; De Neve, Mikhaylov, Dawes, Christakis, & Fowler, 2013). This relationship has been supported by recent CASAL findings. Since 2012, multiple regression analyses utilizing composite scores for leader effectiveness have examined the impact of the competencies and attributes on indices of effective leadership. Results presented in Table 1 indicate that the core leader competencies continue to have a stronger impact than the leader attributes on ratings of effective leadership (by about 3-to-1). A new insight in 2016 is that leader effectiveness on the competencies is also better at differentiating whether leaders are falling short, meeting, or exceeding subordinates' expectations for a leader in that position (by about 15-to-1).

Table 1. Results of a Multiple Regression Examining the Impact of Leader Competencies and Attributes on Indices of Effective Army Civilian Leadership

	Agreement Immediate Superior is an effective leader	How well does your Immediate Superior meet your expectations of a leader in his or her position?
Core Leader Competency Composite Score	$\beta = .67$	$\beta = .78$
Leader Attribute Composite Score	$\beta = .21$	$\beta = .05$
Model Summary	$R^2 = .76$	$R^2 = .68$

Note. Standardized beta weight (β) and R^2 significant at $p < .001$.

Impact of Leadership on Organizational Outcomes and Subordinate Attitudes

A majority of civilian leaders are viewed as having a positive or very positive impact on factors (e.g., cohesion, discipline, capability to accomplish missions, work quality, command climate) affecting their subordinates and the teams or immediate work groups they lead (see Figure 9)[8]. Small percentages of civilian respondents (6% to 15%) report their civilian immediate superior has had a negative impact on subordinate or team performance, which is consistent with previous CASAL findings.

What effect, if any, has your immediate superior had on the following?

	Negative or Very negative	Neither positive or negative	Positive or Very positive
Team or immediate work group capability to accomplish missions	10%	22%	68%
Subordinate work quality	6%	32%	62%
Command climate	15%	26%	59%
Team or immediate work group cohesion	15%	27%	58%
Team or immediate work group discipline	12%	31%	57%

Figure 9. Effect of Army Civilian Leaders on Subordinate Attitudes and Organizational Outcomes

Civilian leader demonstration of the core leader competencies and leader attributes is significantly and positively related to organizational outcomes and subordinate attitudes that affect mission accomplishment. The strength of the relationship between the competencies and attributes and these outcomes continues to be uniformly high (see Tables 2 and 3). Civilian leaders who effectively demonstrate the competencies and attributes are viewed as positively affecting the cohesion, capabilities, and discipline of teams and immediate work groups, as well

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[8] The percentage of Army civilians indicating their civilian immediate superior has had a positive/very positive effect on their team or immediate work group's discipline (57%) is significantly lower than AC uniformed leader ratings (69%).

as command climate. Similarly, there are positive relationships between effective leadership and subordinates' work quality, level of trust in that superior, engagement, and morale. Results for current levels of Army Civilian morale and engagement are described in greater detail in chapter 1.2 of this report.

Table 2. Correlations between Effective Demonstration of the Leadership Competencies and Attributes and Organizational Outcomes

Organizational Outcomes	Core Leader Competencies	Leader Attributes
Effect on team or immediate work group cohesion	.81	.78
Effect on team or immediate work group capability to accomplish missions	.81	.78
Effect on command climate	.81	.79
Effect on team or immediate work group discipline	.77	.76

Note. All correlations significant at *p* < .001 (2-tailed).

Table 3. Correlations between Effective Demonstration of the Leadership Competencies and Attributes and Subordinate Attitudes

Subordinate Attitudes	Core Leader Competencies	Leader Attributes
Subordinate level of trust in immediate superior	.88	.77
Effect on subordinate work quality	.75	.72
Subordinate engagement composite score	.71	.69
Subordinate current level of morale	.57	.54

Note. All correlations significant at *p* < .001 (2-tailed).

Conclusions on Army Civilian Leader Effectiveness

The LRM is the Army's validated model that describes what is expected of all leaders (both uniformed and civilian) and what the Army Leader Development Strategy (ALDS, 2013b) aspires to produce or enhance in Army leaders. Index scores for leadership effectiveness show that civilian leader performance of the competencies and attributes has remained very stable over the past four years. The guiding benchmark of three-fourths favorability indicates civilian leaders are proficient in demonstrating most of the doctrinally defined leader attributes in the categories of character, presence, and intellect. The exceptions are for demonstrating *Total Fitness*, *Innovation*, *Interpersonal Tact*, and *Warrior Ethos/Service Ethos*, which civilian leaders are currently assessed at 3% to 7% below the favorable threshold.

The competencies *Gets Results* and *Prepares Self* continue to be rated as strengths, though fewer civilian leaders are rated as effective on the other eight leadership competencies.

Competencies are 3 times more predictive of desired leadership outcomes than are leader attributes. The competencies and attributes most strongly associated with effective civilian leadership are *Leads Others*, *Builds Trust*, demonstration of the *Warrior Ethos/Service Ethos*, and *Communicates*. While generally positive, perceptions of civilian leader effectiveness in demonstrating the six principles of the mission command philosophy fall short of a three-fourths favorable threshold, and improvement should focus specifically on the principle *Builds Effective Teams through Mutual Trust*.

Results confirm that measures of attributes, competencies, and supporting behaviors from the LRM have a significant positive impact on desired outcomes. High ratings of the attributes, competencies, and behaviors correspond to positive effects on ratings of command climate; on team or work group cohesion, discipline, and capability to accomplish missions; and on subordinate work quality, trust, engagement, and morale.

Civilian leadership skills can be improved through focused development and practice. The *Leads* category of competencies represents the essence of the Army's definition of leadership: influence and providing purpose, motivation, and direction. These are the most critical of leadership competencies, yet the five competencies in this category (*Leads Others*, *Builds Trust*, *Extends Influence Outside the Chain of Command*, *Leads by Example*, and *Communicates*) are not among the most favorably assessed for civilian leaders.

What can be done. Self-assessment programs could be developed for leadership proficiency levels to encourage focused attention on leadership skill improvement. A leader could attain a level of proficiency after meeting a prescribed set of conditions. Examples of activities include being assessed through the Multi-source Assessment and Feedback (MSAF) program and/or through an assessment center, receiving coaching through the MSAF program, completing certain leadership training materials (e.g., interactive media instruction (IMI) training materials), and providing evidence of actions taken to develop others. Completion of the leadership program would be included in personnel files and could be used for personnel decisions (i.e., promotion and assignment), and thus would serve as an incentive for development. Aspects of the program could be similar to a virtual assessment center in which leaders participate in activities online and their performance is assessed over a short and defined period of time (e.g., 4 hours). Other aspects, such as participating in an MSAF assessment and actions taken to develop others, would be long-term activities that take place over a few months. In addition to promoting the continuous development of leadership skills, the existence of a program on leadership proficiency communicates to the force that leadership skill improvement and developing others is valued and rewarded by the Army. Existing developmental resources such as the MSAF assessment and the MSAF Virtual Improvement

Center (VIC; Center for Army Leadership, 2012) offer a head start for a progressive skill attainment program.

1.2 Climate and Situational Factors Within the Working Environment

CASAL assesses factors related to climate and situational factors because many leadership and leader development topics are a product of the larger Army environment. Climate and situational factors provide the context within which leadership occurs and can influence the quality of leadership. Similarly, climate and situational factors can influence whether effective leader development is facilitated or inhibited.

CASAL tracks trends in Army Civilian attitudes surrounding morale and career satisfaction, and examines the interrelationships between these factors. Broader attitudes about the quality of leadership in Army units and organizations serve as a backdrop for the current performance of leadership competencies and attributes. Civilian attitudes and perceptions about job characteristics, the working environment, team efficacy, and unit climate provide context for factors that affect leadership, duty performance, and mission outcomes. Each of these factors is important for maintaining a healthy organizational culture, which in turn enhances organizational readiness.

Morale and Career Satisfaction

Morale is a measure of how people feel about themselves, their team, and their leaders. Organizations achieve high morale through effective leadership, shared effort, trust, and mutual respect. Competent leaders know that morale holds a team together and sustains it during operations. High morale results in a cohesive team striving to achieve common goals (ADRP 6-22, 2012d).

Army Civilian morale levels assessed by CASAL have remained very stable since 2010, with a notable decline observed in 2013.

Levels of civilian morale reported by CASAL have remained very stable since first assessed in 2010, with the exception of a sharp decline observed in 2013 (see Figure 10). This downturn coincided with a climate of fiscal uncertainty within the federal government and specifically the Department of Defense around the time of the survey (October/November 2013). Army Civilians experienced pay and hiring freezes, budgetary constraints, and furloughs, which suspended many civilian employees from their assigned duties for short periods of time. Understandably, these widespread challenges affected the overall morale in the workforce. Levels of morale have since increased and stabilized.

How would you rate your current level of morale?
(Army Civilians, 2010 to 2016)

	Low or Very low	Neither high nor low	High or Very high
2016 CASAL	23%	28%	49%
2015 CASAL	23%	29%	48%
2014 CASAL	24%	29%	47%
2013 CASAL	27%	31%	42%
2012 CASAL	24%	31%	45%
2011 CASAL	23%	29%	48%
2010 CASAL	22%	31%	47%
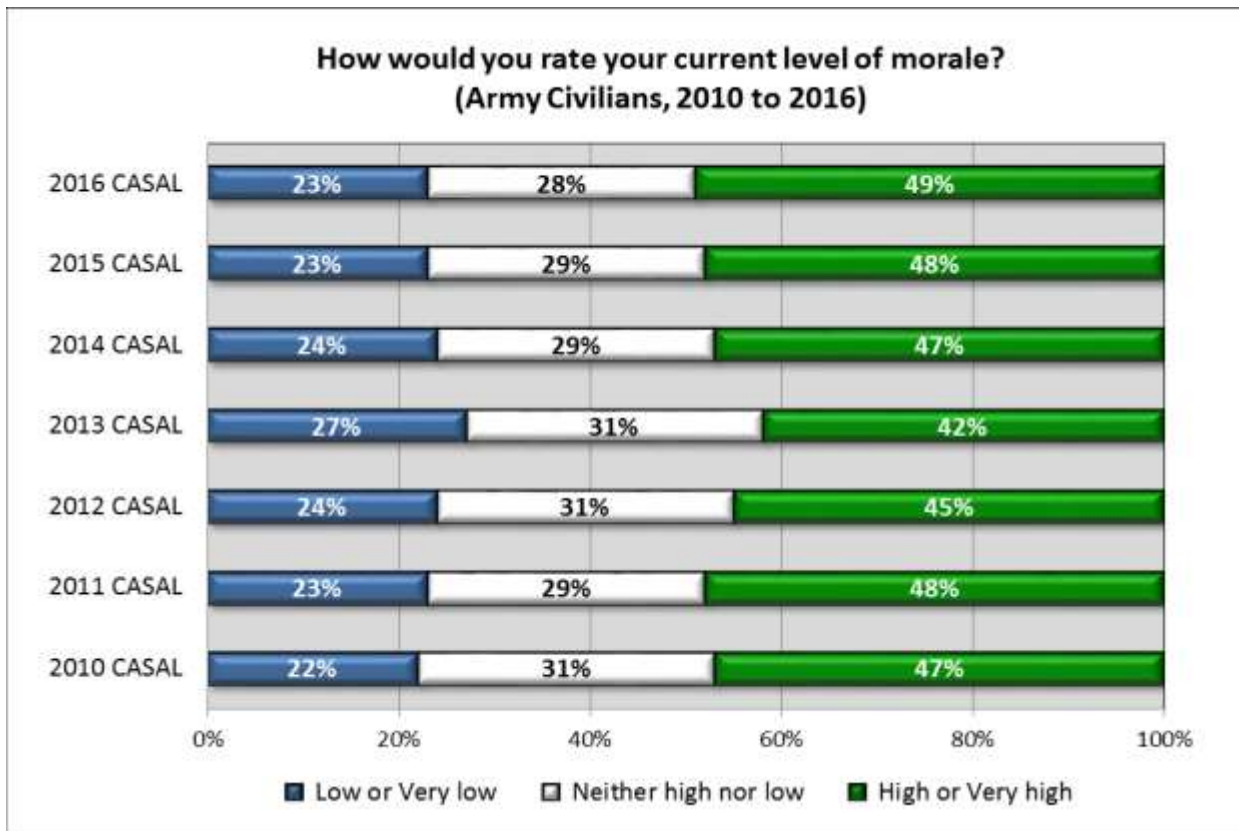
Figure 10. Levels of Army Civilian Morale from 2010 to 2016

While morale represents civilians' current affective reaction to the environment or job in which they operate, career satisfaction represents an accumulation of attitudes regarding characteristics spanning a civilian's career (Locke, 1976; Pinder, 1998). Overall levels of career satisfaction among civilians remain favorable; a pattern of slight decline and recovery has been observed since 2012 (see Figure 11).

There is a positive association between effective leadership and civilian morale and career satisfaction. Civilians who agree their immediate superior is an effective leader also tend to report favorable levels of morale ($r = .54$, $p < .001$) and career satisfaction ($r = .38$, $p < .001$). Other factors not assessed by CASAL, such as those mentioned previously (e.g., budgetary constraints, fiscal uncertainty) are likely to have considerable impacts on levels of civilian career satisfaction as well.

How satisfied are you with your Army career up to this point?

Non-supervisory Employee: 68% (2012), 64% (2013), 63% (2014), 66% (2015), 67% (2016)
First Line Supervisor: 76% (2012), 71% (2013), 73% (2014), 76% (2015), 75% (2016)
Manager: 83% (2012), 78% (2013), 79% (2014), 81% (2015), 80% (2016)
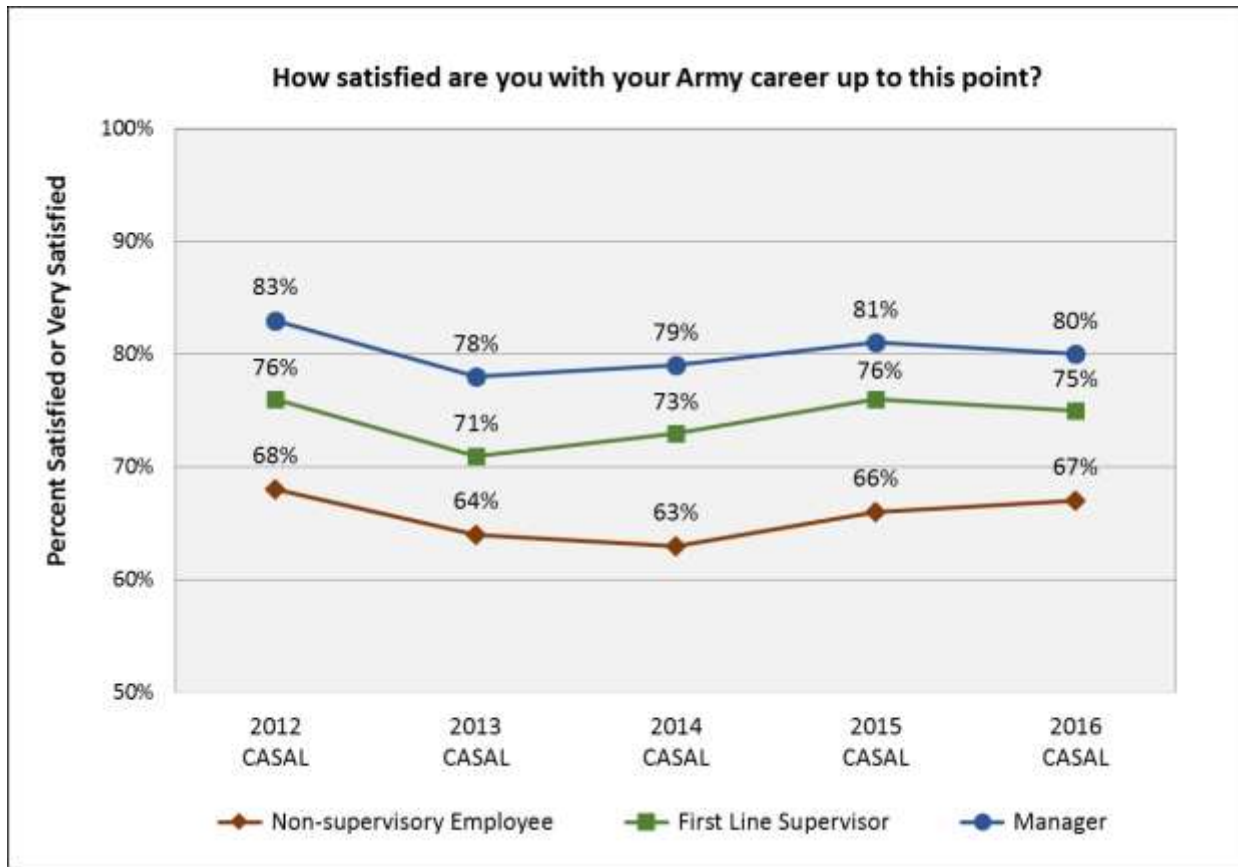
Figure 11. Career Satisfaction among Army Civilians by Supervisory Level from 2012 to 2016

Results of the 2016 Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (FEVS) provide additional indicators related to morale and satisfaction in Army organizations. The results presented in Figure 12 show that the level of job satisfaction among Army Civilians declined sharply from 2012 to 2013. The level has remained fairly steady in recent years, with just below two-thirds of civilians reporting they are satisfied or very satisfied with their job. In comparison to job satisfaction, FEVS results indicate smaller percentages of Army Civilians have reported satisfaction with their organization and with their pay since 2010. These results corroborate CASAL trend findings on Army Civilian morale levels. Specifically, a notable downturn in favorable attitudes occurred in 2013, and this has been slow to recover in recent years.
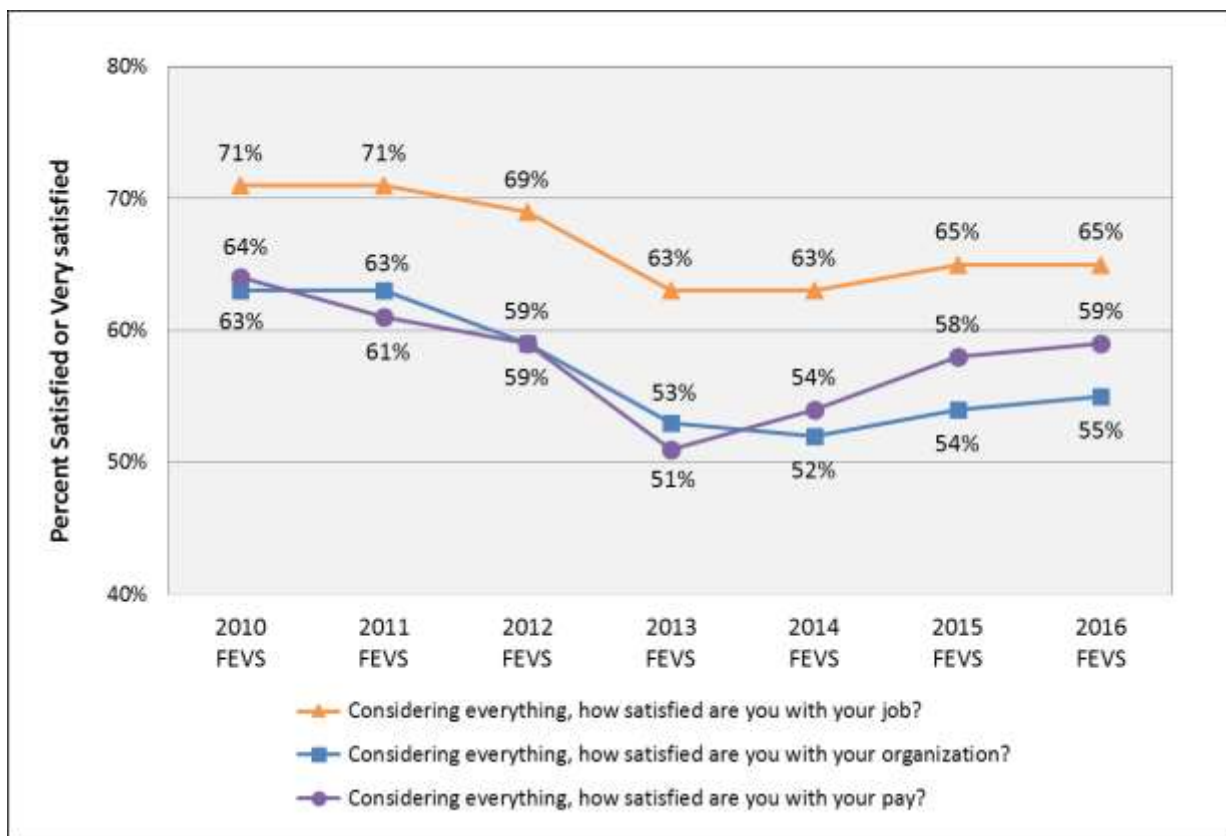
Figure 12. FEVS Trend Results for Army Civilian Satisfaction Levels from 2010 to 2016 (U.S. Office of Personnel Management, 2016)

Perceptions of Leadership Quality in Army Organizations

Army Civilian attitudes toward the quality of leadership in organizations continue to be generally positive. The results presented in Figure 13 serve as holistic and generalized assessments of the current quality of leadership in the Army. A majority of managers and first line supervisors view their superiors, peers, and subordinates as effective leaders. A smaller percentage of non-supervisory

Army Civilians perceive the quality of leadership in their organizations to be positive. A majority of respondents views their superiors, peers, and subordinates as effective leaders.

civilian employees report favorable assessments of their superiors as leaders. The consistent relative pattern of these results, with only subtle change over the past 8 years, provides evidence that attitudes toward the quality of leadership across the Army are generally positive and stable.
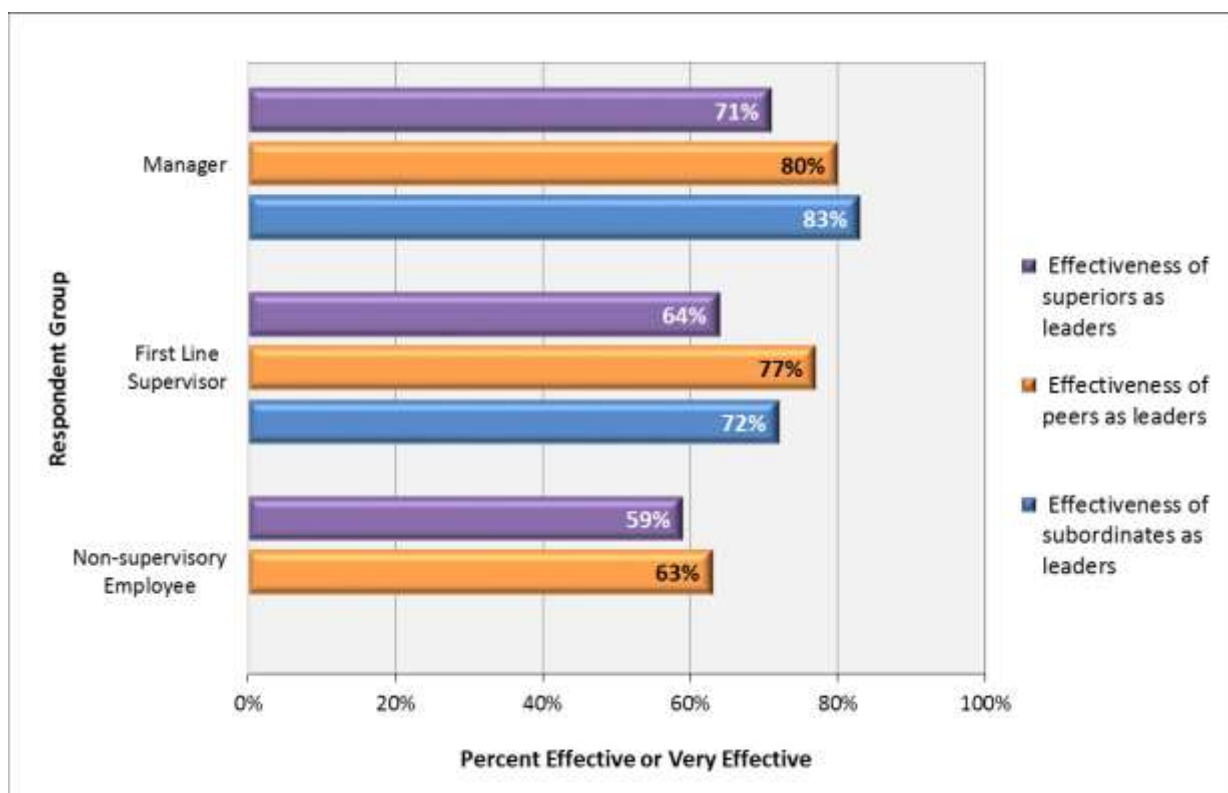
Figure 13. Respondents' Ratings for the Effectiveness of Their Superiors, Peers, and Subordinates as Leaders

Respondent satisfaction with the quality of leadership in units and organizations provides an indication of how leaders are performing and working together. CASAL assesses levels of satisfaction with the quality of leadership in Army units and organizations both within and across cohorts (i.e., uniformed respondent satisfaction with Army Civilian leadership and vice versa). Levels of satisfaction by uniformed and civilian respondents show only slight variation since first assessed in 2013 (see Figure 14).[9] Larger percentages of civilian leader respondents than AC uniformed leader respondents report satisfaction with the quality of military and civilian leadership in their unit or organization.

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[9] Levels of satisfaction with the quality of military and civilian leadership were asked of all CASAL respondents regardless of assignment type. Respondents were instructed to select the response option "No basis to assess" as appropriate in instances where their unit/organization did not consist of military or civilian leaders. The No basis to assess response was selected by 32% of AC uniformed leader respondents regarding the quality of civilian leadership and 15% of civilian leader respondents regarding the quality of military leadership.
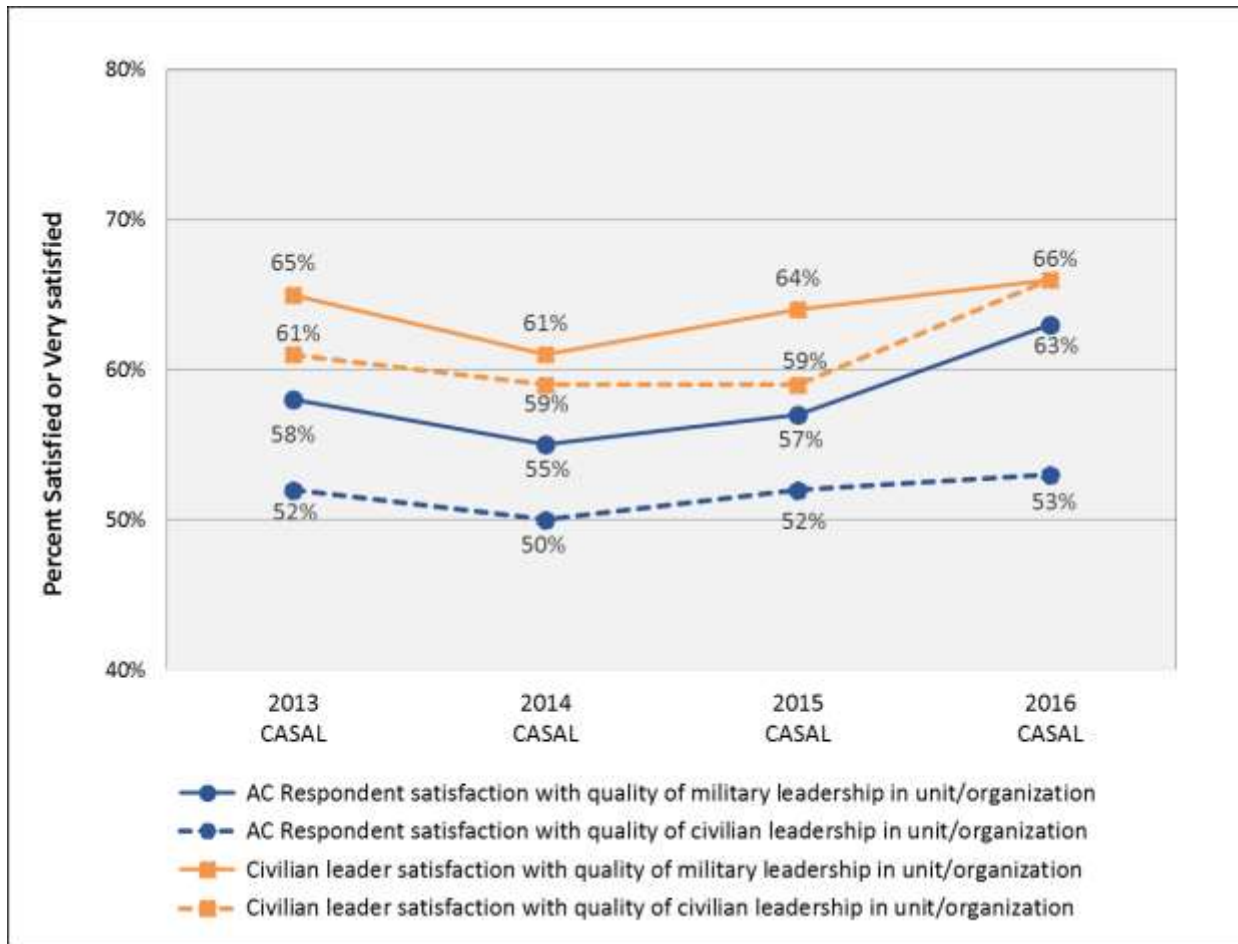
Figure 14. Satisfaction with the Quality of Military and Civilian Leadership in the Army

A useful method for interpreting satisfaction with the quality of leadership is by identifying the relevant factors with the strongest associations to respondent satisfaction. Since 2013, multiple regression analyses have been conducted to examine respondent attitudes toward several characteristics of their working environment, including attitudes toward other members

> *Trust is a key factor that strongly contributes to civilian leader respondent satisfaction with the quality of leadership in units and organizations.*

of their unit or organization. Results have consistently indicated that trust is a central factor, having the largest contribution to AC and civilian leader respondent satisfaction with the quality of military and civilian leadership. Specifically, the key factors are the overall level of trust among an organization's members and respondent agreement that senior leaders place trust in their subordinates. Seventy-nine percent of both AC and civilian leader respondents assess trust among members of their unit/organization as moderate, high, or very high, while smaller

percentages agree senior leaders place trust in their subordinates (66% civilian leaders; 64% AC). Additional factors that explain a significant amount of variance in civilian leader respondent satisfaction include perceptions of senior leader effectiveness at lessening or limiting the effects of workload stress, feeling informed about decisions affecting work responsibilities, and satisfaction with the freedom or latitude to perform one's duties.

Attitudes Toward Assigned Duties

Periodic assessment of employee attitudes toward assigned duties is important for several reasons. Research has demonstrated that attitudes about one's job positively relate to motivation, job performance, job satisfaction, and turnover (Campion & Berger, 1990; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Muchinsky, 2003). Army Civilians continue to hold favorable attitudes toward the performance of their current duties (see Figure 15). The most favorable civilian attitudes (exceeding four-fifths favorability) include ratings toward the importance of one's assigned duties to the organization and knowing what is expected in one's current position. In comparison, smaller percentages of civilians perceive they are informed of decisions that affect their work responsibilities or feel they have access to the right resources (e.g., people, materials, budget) to accomplish their duties to standard.
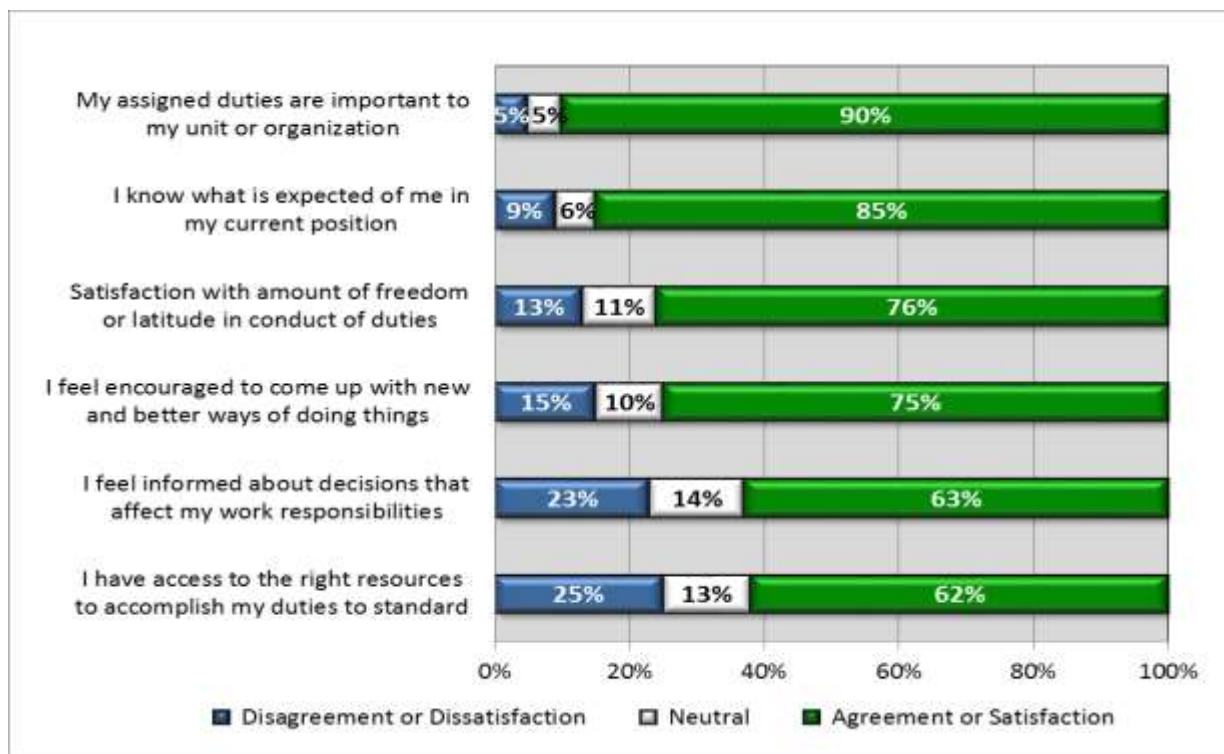

Figure 15. Army Civilian Leader Attitudes toward Assigned Duties

Attitudes Toward Teams and Working Groups

Army Civilians overwhelmingly report commitment to their teams or immediate work groups (96% agree or strongly agree). This is consistently among the most favorable indicators assessed by CASAL. In ADRP 6-22, commitment is described as "…willing dedication or allegiance to a cause or organization" (2012d, p. 6-1). Commitment is a reciprocal relationship between a leader and subordinates, but also includes all members of the organization. Commitment reflects loyalty, one of the seven Army values. Leaders earn loyalty from subordinates by treating them in a fair manner and looking out for their well-being.

Collaboration and helping others are signs of a positive working environment. Effective teams collaborate to achieve results and work together as a team rather than as a group of individuals. About four-fifths or more of civilians view these characteristics of their current team or immediate work group favorably (see Figure 16). Teams also thrive when members are willing to go above and beyond to support one another. Organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) are discretionary behaviors (i.e., not required or explicitly rewarded) that promote organizational effectiveness (Organ, 1988). OCBs contribute to team and organizational effectiveness because members who demonstrate these positive behaviors show others how to be helpful and productive, contribute to an overall sense of readiness, establish high performance norms, and allow resources and energy to be focused on other, more important priorities (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997).

CASAL assessed OCBs in terms of unit member willingness in performing additional tasks beyond their assigned duties; showing respect toward one another, even under stressful conditions; and helping others in the performance of their duties, when needed. Results offer a positive indication that each of these discretionary support behaviors is occurring in Army units and organizations. Civilian respondents who report the positive occurrence of OCBs also report high levels of trust among members of their unit, satisfaction with the quality of leadership in their unit, and confidence in the ability of their unit to perform its mission (r's = .30 to .44, $p < .001$). Respondents who report members of their team or immediate work group exhibit OCBs also tend to frequently assess their Army Civilian immediate superior as effective in demonstrating the core leader competencies, the leader attributes, and the principles of mission command (r's = .31 to .33, $p < .001$). Multiple regression results reveal that the effectiveness of one's immediate superior in demonstrating trust-building behaviors is a significant predictor of the occurrence of OCBs among teams and

> *80% to 88% of Army Civilian respondents indicate members of their team or immediate work group exhibit discretionary behaviors that promote organizational effectiveness.*

immediate work groups (R^2 = 0.11, *p* < .001). Deluga (1995) suggests that building a climate of trust may inspire norms of reciprocity, such as OCBs.

Members of my team or immediate work group...

	Disagree or Strongly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree or Strongly agree
help others in the performance of their duties, when needed	6%	6%	88%
show respect toward one another, even under stressful conditions	8%	9%	83%
collaborate effectively to achieve results	9%	8%	83%
work together as a team rather than as a group of individuals	11%	10%	79%
willingly perform additional tasks beyond their assigned duties	10%	10%	80%

Figure 16. Army Civilian Attitudes toward Teams and Work Groups

Organizational Climate

Army Civilians continue to hold favorable attitudes toward several characteristics of the units and organizations in which they perform their duties (see Figure 17). The most favorable organizational climate indicators include confidence in the ability of one's unit or organization to perform its mission and pride in telling others that they are a member of their unit or organization.[10] More than two-thirds of civilian respondents agree that members of their unit or organization are empowered to make decisions pertaining to the performance of their duties and agree that unit members are allowed and encouraged to learn from honest mistakes. These are favorable indicators of climates that are conducive to learning and to the exercise of

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[10] The percentage of Army civilians who agree or strongly agree they are proud to tell others they are a member of their unit or organization (81%) is significantly higher than AC uniformed leaders (71%).

disciplined initiative. More than two-thirds of civilian respondents also agree that standards are upheld in their unit or organization. Standards are formal, detailed instructions that provide a mark for gauging performance. Standards range from the professional bearing that an organization's members exhibit to adherence to formal policies and regulations. Overall results for each of these organizational climate indicators have varied slightly since first assessed in 2013 but remain above two-thirds agreement for civilian respondents.
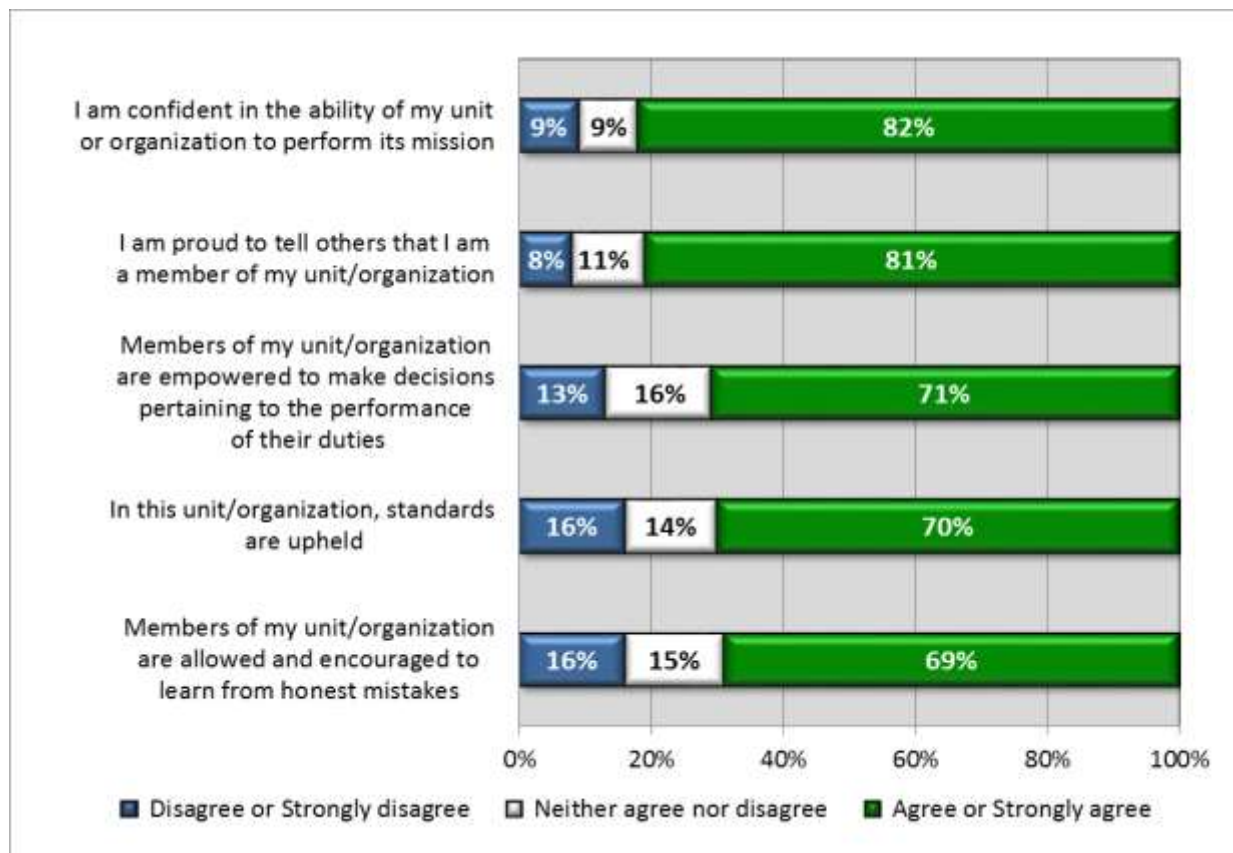
Figure 17. Army Civilian Leader Attitudes toward Organizational Climate Indicators

A majority of civilians view the current level of trust among members of their unit or organization (inclusive of everyone) as favorable.[11] Of civilian respondents, 40% report high or very high trust and 36% report moderate trust. Overall trust levels reported by Army Civilians are comparable to those reported by AC uniformed leader respondents. However, there are

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[11] CASAL uses a trust scale with a midpoint of 'moderate trust', which is included in the percentage of favorable ratings (i.e., moderate, high, or very high trust). Results of a 2012 CASAL follow-up survey indicated that ratings of moderate trust levels can be interpreted positively. The survey results indicated respondents who agreed or strongly agreed that unit members trust one another also frequently reported the level of trust among unit members to be moderate, high, or very high.

notable differences in ratings by civilian supervisory level, as a larger percentage of managers tend to assess unit trust favorably than do first line supervisors and non-supervisory employees (see Table 4). The results for each supervisory level have remained stable over the past four years.

Table 4. Army Civilian Respondent Perceptions on the Level of Trust among Unit Members

Overall, how would you describe the current level of trust among members of your unit or organization?	Non-supervisory Employees	First Line Supervisors	Managers	AC Leaders (SGT-COL)
Level of trust among unit members is **"High or Very high"**	34%	39%	49%	40%
Level of trust among unit members is **"Moderate"**	37%	38%	33%	39%
Level of trust among unit members is **"Low or Very low"**	29%	23%	19%	21%

Collective felt trust refers to shared feelings by unit members who work together and who come to agree on the extent to which they feel they are trusted by senior leaders. The collective perception is likely to be prompted by procedures or systems implemented in the organization as well as by leadership behavior (Deutsch Salamon & Robinson, 2008). Collective felt trust addresses unit members' global perception regarding the extent that the organization trusts them (i.e., *they* trust *us*) as opposed to more proximal perceptions of trust (i.e., *my immediate superior* trusts *me*) or broader, generalized perceptions of trust in units (i.e., *we all trust each other*). Levels of collective felt trust among Army Civilians remain at moderate levels; 64% of civilian respondents agree that senior leaders in their unit or organization place trust in their subordinates (21% disagree). This is the same level first observed for Army Civilians in 2015, as well as the same level observed for AC uniformed leader respondents in both 2015 and 2016.

> *64% of Army Civilians favorably perceive collective felt trust, the shared feelings among a unit's members that they are trusted by senior leaders.*

Civilian respondent perceptions of collective felt trust, like perceptions of trust among an organization's members, are positively related to several characteristics of effective working environments. Worthy of note are the strong correlations between collective felt trust and perceptions that unit members are empowered to make decisions pertaining to the performance of their duties ($r = .73$, $p < .001$) and are allowed and encouraged to learn from

honest mistakes (r = .69, p < .001), and that standards are upheld in the unit (r = .64, p < .001). Collective felt trust also relates positively to individual job characteristics conducive to disciplined initiative, including satisfaction with the freedom or latitude to perform one's duties, feeling encouraged to come up with new and better ways of doing things, feeling informed about decisions that affect work responsibilities, and pride and confidence in one's unit ($r's$ = .48 to .60, p < .001).

Workload Stress

Previous CASAL findings have indicated that stress from a high workload remains a problem for more than one-third of civilian managers and first line supervisors. High levels of work-related stress can negatively impact morale and effectiveness. Stress from overwork contributes to employees decisions to leave an organization (Branham, 2005; Partnership for Public Service, 2010). Army leaders mitigate workload stress by establishing an environment where subordinates can focus on accomplishing critical tasks (ADRP 6-22, 2012d). Effective leaders assess the capabilities of their organization, set priorities or seek relief when demands exceed capacity, and balance mission focus with the welfare of their followers. Ineffective leaders are more likely to contribute to problems by poor scheduling of work, unmetered workload, not addressing role and interpersonal conflicts, and overlooking the effects of stress on subordinates (Committee on the Department of Homeland Security Workforce Resilience [Committee], 2013).

Since first assessed in 2009, approximately one in three civilian leaders has indicated stress from a high workload is a serious problem in their current position (see Figure 18). Workload stress is not an isolated concern of civilian leaders, as uniformed leaders also identify it as a problem (28% of AC respondents). These results are consistent with prior years and demonstrate that this problem is not improving for civilian or uniformed personnel.

One in three civilian leaders perceive workload stress as a serious problem, a level higher than reported by AC uniformed leaders.

How much of a problem is stress from a high workload?
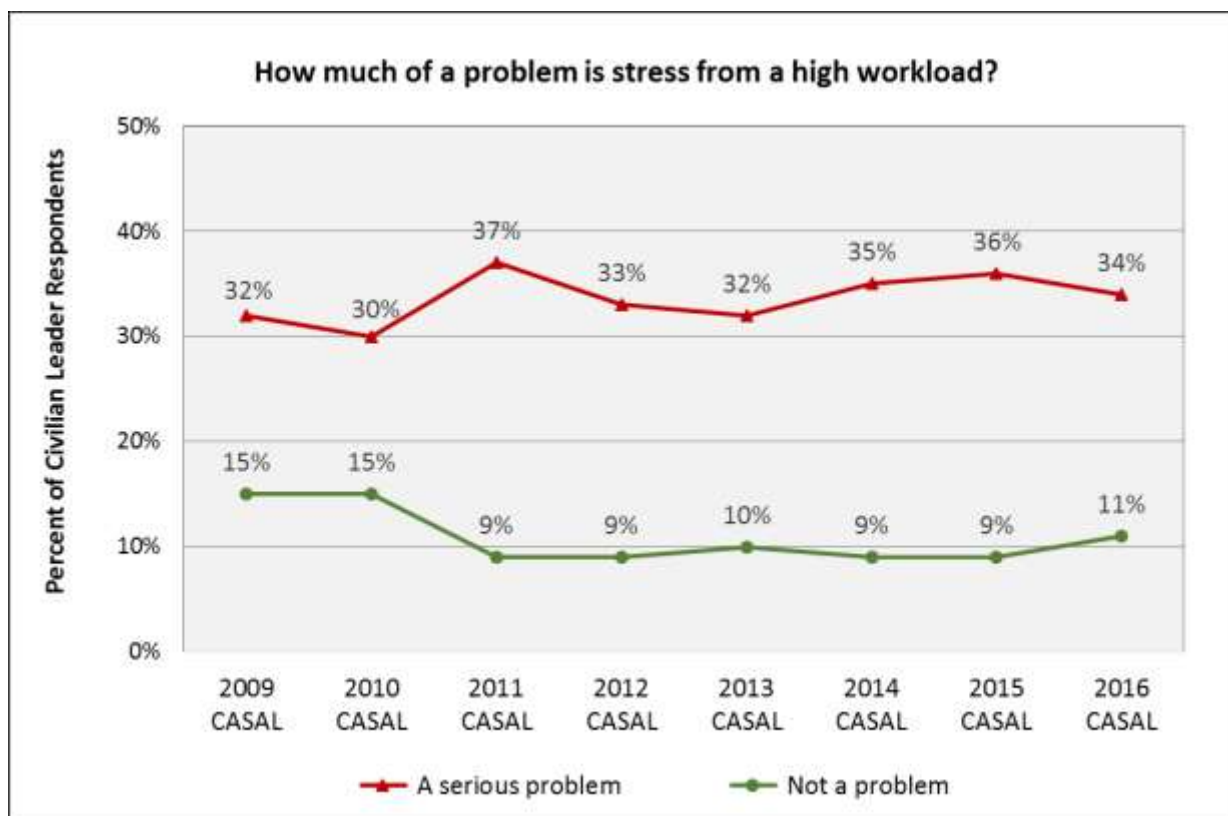
Figure 18. Army Civilian Leader Respondent Ratings for Stress from High Workload (2009 to 2016)

Workload stress is negatively associated with several indicators of effective leadership in Army units and organizations. Respondents who report experiencing stress from a high workload tend to be less satisfied with the quality of leadership in their unit ($r = .19$, $p < .001$), view unit leaders as ineffective at lessening or limiting the effects of workload stress in subordinates ($r = .48$, $p < .001$), and rate their immediate superior as ineffective at taking action to help subordinates manage excessive workload demands ($r = .30$, $p < .001$).

Results from the 2015 CASAL identified the leading contributors to workload stress in civilian leaders as insufficient personnel (71%), time constraints (42%), poor guidance from senior leaders (34%), poor organizational climate (27%), and lack of physical resources or materials (24%) (Riley, Cavanaugh, Silverman, Fallesen, & Jones, 2016). Respondents also commented on organizational factors affecting workload stress including a high operational tempo;

> *Common sources of workload stress include personnel shortages, time constraints, poor guidance regarding work requirements, a lack of physical resources or materials, and poor organizational climates.*

funding or budget issues; challenges with communication or information flow; last minute planning or changes; and taskings in addition to mission requirements. Also cited were leadership factors such as leaders holding unrealistic expectations; ineffective, inexperienced, and unqualified leaders; toxic leaders; micromanagement; and leaders overcommitting to new taskings from higher levels. These results suggest some leaders are not executing their leadership responsibilities to adapt to changing demands and to lessen the negative impacts of stress on subordinates (ADRP 6-22, 2012d).

Trend results of the FEVS (U.S. Office of Personnel Management, 2016) provide supporting evidence for the CASAL finding that personnel shortages are a key reason for workload stress among Army Civilians. From 2010 to 2016, no more than 62% of civilian respondents indicated agreement that their workload is reasonable, and trends show a slight decline since 2012 (see Figure 19). Additionally, levels of respondent agreement that their work unit is able to recruit people with the right skills declined sharply from 2010 to 2013 and have shown only modest improvement in recent years.

An organization's leaders can respond to high workloads by taking action to mitigate or alleviate demands associated with subordinate stress. The role of leaders is especially important given that personnel shortages and time constraints are perceived to be the key drivers of workload stress in current Army work settings. Effective leader intervention currently occurs to a moderate extent (see Table 5). Over half of civilian respondents (59%) rate their immediate superior effective at taking action to help subordinates manage excessive workload demands, a stable finding since 2014. However, only one-third of civilian respondents provide a favorable holistic assessment of their organization's leaders in terms of lessening or limiting the effects of workload stress in subordinates. Notably, larger percentages of managers and first line supervisors report workload stress as a serious problem than do non-supervisory civilian employees.
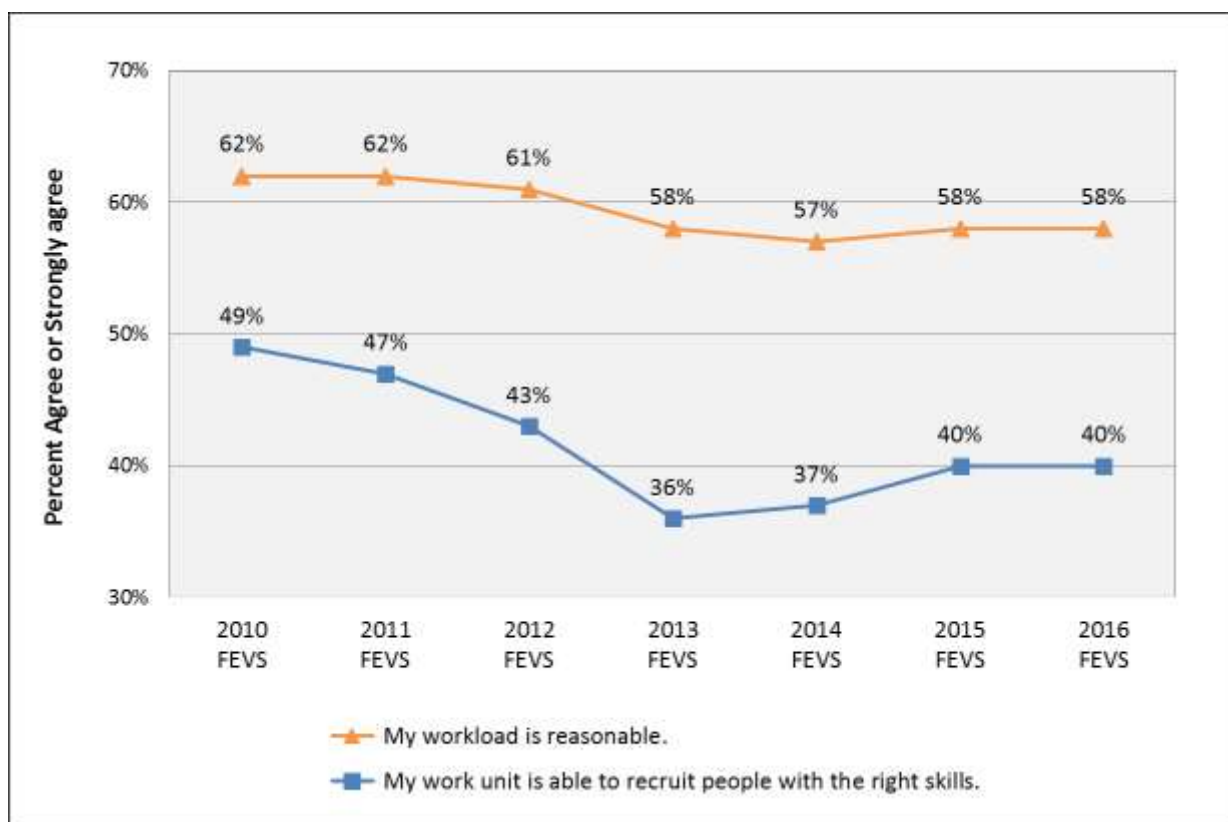
Figure 19. FEVS Army Results on Personnel Workloads and Recruitment from 2010 to 2016 (U.S. Office of Personnel Management, 2016)

Table 5. Indicators of Stress from High Workload in Units and Organizations

Indicators	Non-supervisory Employees	First Line Supervisors	Managers	AC Uniformed Leaders (SGT-COL)
Stress from high workload assessed as a **"serious problem"** (6 or 7 on a 7-pt scale)	24%	33%	37%	28%
Stress from high workload assessed as a **"moderate problem"** (3, 4, or 5 on a 7-pt scale)	58%	54%	54%	57%
Stress from high workload assessed as **"not a problem"** (1 or 2 on a 7-pt scale)	18%	13%	9%	15%
Effectiveness of leaders in unit/organization at lessening or limiting effects of workload stress in subordinates	31% (31%)	32% (34%)	34% (30%)	38% (31%)
Effectiveness of immediate superior at taking action to help subordinates manage excessive workload demands	60% (20%)	60% (20%)	56% (20%)	66% (18%)

Note. The percentage of respondents rating items ineffective/very ineffective are given in parentheses.

As reported in the 2015 CASAL (Riley et al., 2016), effective leaders mitigate workload stress in subordinates by enacting problem-focused solutions (e.g., spreading the task load, prioritizing and planning, fostering effective communication) and by attending to subordinates morale and well-being (e.g., showing appreciation, respecting time away). In contrast, workload stress is higher in organizations with ineffective and disengaged leadership, where care and concern are not shown to unit members, and where personnel and physical resource deficiencies are not addressed.

Engagement

Engagement is the individual involvement, satisfaction, and enthusiasm for work, stemming from day-to-day experiences of job involvement, organizational commitment, and intrinsic motivation (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002). More simply, engagement represents the level of commitment one has for their organization and the level of initiative they apply to their duties. When measured, items assessing engagement reflect employees' efforts directed to their work and organization (Macey & Schneider, 2008), feelings of responsibility and commitment to job performance (Britt & Adler, 1999), and their physical, cognitive, and emotional experiences during work (Kahn, 1990). Research has shown that engagement is associated with a range of important positive outcomes that effective organizations work to improve, such as reduced turnover, increased safety, increased overall satisfaction (Harter et al., 2002), less sick leave used, fewer EEO complaints, less time lost due to work-related illness or injury (U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board [MSPB], 2012), increased performance (Harter et al., 2002; Schneider, Macey, Barbera, & Martin, 2009), and reduced burnout (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006). Thus, a workforce with high levels of engagement can save the Army valuable resources, increase the capacity to address peak work demands or stress, and ensure mission accomplishment.

> *Engagement represents the level of commitment one has for their organization and the level of initiative they apply to their duties.*

CASAL assesses engagement through 10 items chosen for their relevance to engagement constructs in the research literature and their similarity to items on existing validated engagement measures (Harter et al., 2002; Schaufeli et al., 2006). The 10 engagement items and their respective facets (i.e., categories) are presented in Table 6. Results for these individual items are also discussed in more detail in their respective sections of this report.

Table 6. Facets of Engagement and Associated CASAL Items

Engagement Facet	CASAL Item
Perceived work conditions	I know what is expected of me in my current position.
	I have access to the right resources (e.g., people, materials, budget) to accomplish my duties to standard.
	Members of my team or immediate work group collaborate effectively to achieve results.
	How effective is your immediate superior at balancing subordinate needs with mission requirements?
Attitudes toward assigned duties	I feel encouraged to come up with new and better ways of doing things.
	How satisfied are you with the amount of freedom or latitude you have in the conduct of your duties?
	My assigned duties are important to my unit or organization.
Leader development	How often does your immediate superior take the time to talk with you about how you could improve your duty performance?
	How often does your immediate superior take the time to talk with you about how you are doing in your work?
	How effective have your Army Civilian job experiences been in developing you for higher levels of leadership or responsibility?

Army Civilian respondent results for these 10 indicators of engagement are presented in Figure 20. CASAL uses varying response option scales to assess engagement items, as noted for each set of items. The least favorable indicators are agreement that respondents have access to the right resources (e.g., people, materials, budget) to accomplish their duties to standard, the effectiveness of Army Civilian job experiences in developing respondents for higher levels of leadership or responsibility, and the frequency with which respondents' immediate superiors talk with them about how they are doing in their work and how they can improve their duty performance. In comparison, indicators with the largest percentages of favorable responses include agreement that respondents' assigned duties are important to the unit or organization, respondent agreement that they know what is expected of them in their current positions, and agreement that members of respondents' teams or immediate work groups collaborate effectively to achieve results. The general pattern of results for Army Civilian engagement indicators is consistent with findings from the 2015 CASAL.

	Ineffective or Very Ineffective	Neutral	Effective or Very Effective
Immediate superior balances subordinate needs with mission requirements	15%	18%	67%
Army civilian job experiences for developing me for higher levels of leadership or responsibility	16%	22%	62%
	Disagree or Strongly Disagree	Neutral	Agree or Strongly Agree
My assigned duties are important to my unit or organization	5%	5%	90%
I know what is expected of me in my current position	9%	6%	85%
Members of my team or immediate work group collaborate effectively to achieve results	9%	8%	83%
I feel encouraged to come up with new and better ways of doing things	15%	10%	75%
I have access to the right resources (e.g., people materials, budget) to accomplish my duties to standard	25%	13%	62%
	Dissatisfied or Very Dissatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied or Very Satisfied
Satisfaction with the amount of freedom or latitude I have in the conduct of my duties	13%	11%	76%
	Never	Rarely	Occasionally, Frequently, or Very Frequently
Immediate superior takes time to talk with me about how I am doing in my work	10%	22%	68%
Immediate superior takes time to talk with me about how I could improve my duty performance	18%	30%	52%

Figure 20. Army Civilian Respondent Results for Engagement Items[12]

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[12] The size of the circles depicted in Figure 20 corresponds to the relative proportion of respondents who selected a response option or category. The three percentages for each item total to 100%.

A useful method for examining and tracking levels of engagement across the federal workforce is through the use of index scores. Index scores report the proportion of favorable responses across a set of items. CASAL engagement index scores were calculated as the average of the unrounded percent positive of each engagement item. Results are interpreted for each supervisory level and at the overall level.

Figure 21 displays 2016 CASAL engagement index scores for Army Civilian supervisory levels; for comparison, index scores for AC uniformed leader respondent rank groups are also presented. Overall, the index scores for Army Civilians are comparable to scores for AC uniformed leader respondents. In comparison to 2015 engagement index scores, current engagement levels of Army Civilians are slightly lower (less than 2.0 points) but within the margin of error.[13]
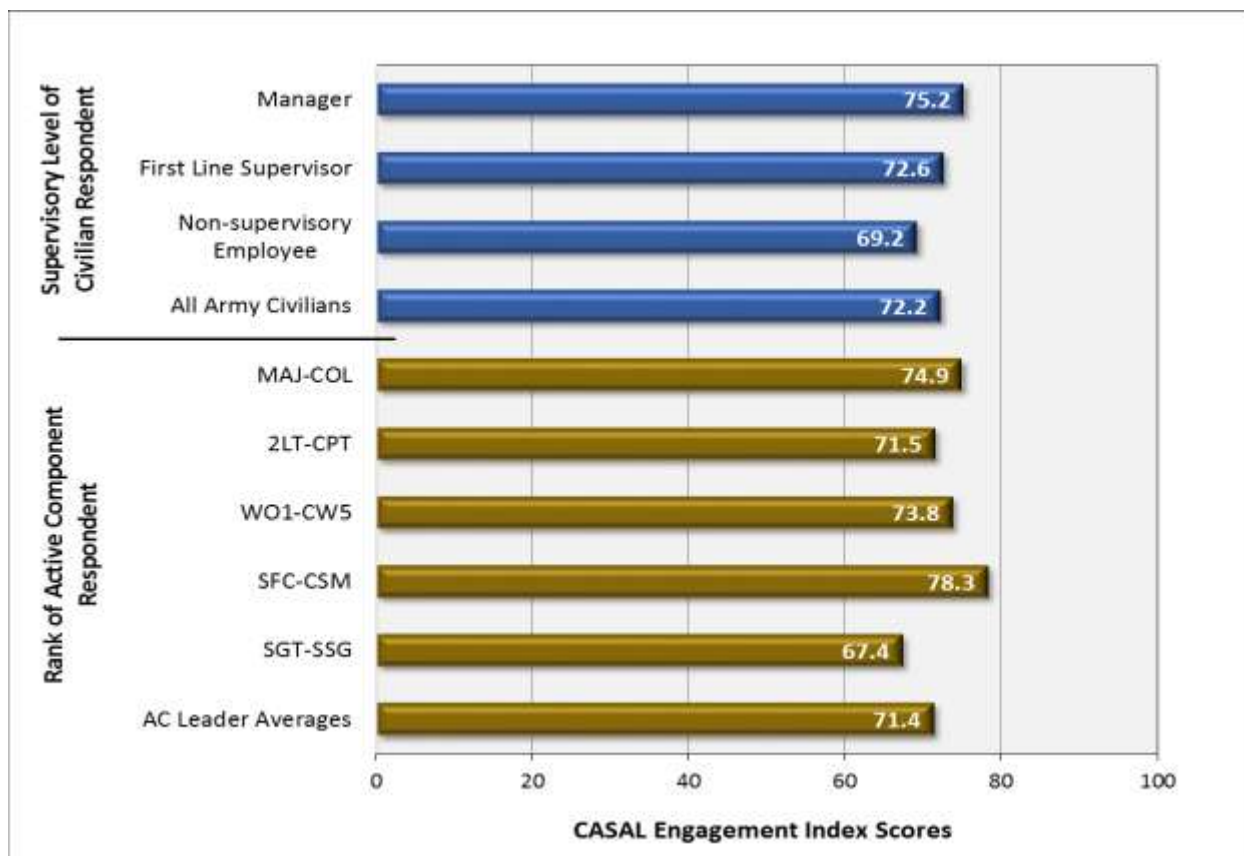

Figure 21. Engagement Index Scores for Army Civilian and AC Uniformed Leader Respondents

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[13] The 2015 CASAL was the first year in which items for the engagement index score were included. To follow standard practices for trend comparisons, trend results for CASAL engagement index scores will be presented and interpreted once data for three points in time are available.

The FEVS Employee Engagement Index (EEI) assesses engagement using three subscales: Intrinsic Work Experience, Supervisors, and Leaders Lead (U.S. Office of Personnel Management, 2016). In 2016, 70% of Army Civilians responded positively to the five items on the FEVS Intrinsic Work Experience subscale.[14] These items assess employee attitudes toward their assigned duties and the workplace. Additionally, 70% of Army Civilians responded positively to the five items that comprise the FEVS Supervisors subscale, which assess supervisors supporting employee development, trust, and respect.[15] Levels of favorable responses for these two engagement subscales have remained fairly stable over the past five years, and results consistently exceed the President's Management Agenda of obtaining 67% favorability ratings (Donovan, 2014).

The FEVS Leaders Lead subscale consists of five items that assess perceptions of senior leader integrity, communication, and effectiveness.[16] Army Civilians' positive responses to this subscale show slightly more variation over the past five years, ranging from a high of 59% in 2011 to a low of 50% in 2014. Results for the FEVS Leaders Lead subscale of engagement consistently remain below the acceptable threshold of 67%.

Table 7 presents the trends for FEVS engagement sub-index and index scores from 2011 to 2016. Scores for the FEVS EEI (i.e., overall engagement) for Army Civilians declined each year between 2011 and 2014, but has shown gradual improvement over the two most recent years. The decline in the total engagement index score was primarily influenced by a decline in favorable assessments for the FEVS Leaders Lead subscale of items.

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[14] The FEVS Intrinsic Work Experience subscale consists of the following items: I feel encouraged to come up with new and better ways of doing things; My work gives me a feeling of personal accomplishment; I know what is expected of me on the job; My talents are used well in the workplace; and I know how my work relates to the agency's goals and priorities.

[15] The FEVS Supervisors subscale consists of the following items: Supervisors in my work unit support employee development; My supervisor listens to what I have to say; My supervisor treats me with respect; I have trust and confidence in my supervisor; Overall, how good a job do you feel is being done by your immediate supervisor?

[16] The FEVS Leaders Lead subscale consists of the following items: In my organization, senior leaders generate high levels of motivation and commitment in the workforce; My organization's senior leaders maintain high standards of honesty and integrity; Managers communicate the goals and priorities of the organization; Overall, how good a job do you feel is being done by the manager directly above your immediate supervisor?; and I have a high level of respect for my organization's senior leaders.

Table 7. FEVS Engagement Score Results for Army Civilians from 2011 to 2016 (U.S. Office of Personnel Management, 2016)

FEVS Department of the Army Results Engagement Sub-Index and Index Scores						
	2011	**2012**	**2013**	**2014**	**2015**	**2016**
Intrinsic Work Experience Sub-index	73.4	72.8	69.0	68.7	70.0	69.9
Supervisors Sub-index	72.2	70.6	68.8	68.8	70.0	70.0
Leaders Lead Sub-index	<u>58.6</u>	<u>56.2</u>	<u>52.4</u>	<u>50.0</u>	<u>51.6</u>	<u>52.9</u>
Total Engagement Index	68.1	<u>66.5</u>	<u>63.4</u>	<u>62.5</u>	<u>63.9</u>	<u>64.3</u>

Note. Sub-index and index scores that are underlined fall below the acceptable threshold of 67% per the President's Management Agenda (Donovan, 2014).

CASAL and FEVS engagement index scores cannot be directly compared due to the differing composition of the measures (i.e., the item wording and response options are not compatible). Additionally, the President's Management Agenda acceptable threshold of 67% is an established goal for the FEVS and does not apply to CASAL results. However, comparisons of CASAL and FEVS findings at a higher level are useful. For example, the FEVS Leaders Lead subscale, with results consistently below an acceptable level, affirms CASAL findings that identify a need for civilian leader improvement in the Leads category of competencies (ADRP 6-22, 2012d), specifically with regard to civilian leaders communicating effectively and generating motivation and commitment. Notably, while CASAL results reflect assessments of one's immediate superior, the FEVS Leaders Lead subscale assesses respondent attitudes about senior leaders above the immediate level.

> *CASAL and FEVS results on engagement both reflect a need to improve civilian leader skills in the Leads category of competencies.*

A follow-up study to the 2015 FEVS was conducted with Army Civilians who participated in focus group discussions and completed questionnaires on engagement. Results of this investigation showed that the majority (89% to 94%) of the participating civilian employees, civilian supervisors, and military supervisors of civilians responded favorably to items that

measured work-related job satisfaction (Darmory, Smith, Frey, Hastings, & Smith, 2015).[17]
Conclusions drawn from the broader results of this study noted that Army Civilian employees
are largely satisfied with their jobs, though trust in their senior leaders and managers is
declining, and civilians desire to be more involved and informed in decision-making processes.
Items assessed by the 2016 CASAL provide supporting evidence for each of these themes:

- High levels of job satisfaction are demonstrated by 75% to 90% of civilians who indicate
  agreement that their assigned duties are important, they know what is expected in their
  current position, they feel encouraged to come up with new and better ways of doing
  things, and they perceive effective collaboration within their team or immediate work
  group.

- Distrust in senior leaders is demonstrated in a relatively smaller percentage of civilians
  (49%) who report having high or very high trust in their superior two levels higher—25%
  report low or very low trust. However, regarding the decline in this type of trust, CASAL
  results show no notable change since first assessed in 2013.

- A lack of involvement in decision-making processes is demonstrated by only 56% of non-
  supervisory civilian employees who agree or strongly agree that they feel informed
  about decisions that affect their work responsibilities; larger percentages of first line
  supervisors (64%) and managers (71%) indicate agreement.

The 2015 FEVS follow-up study also concluded that many Army Civilian employees distrust the
fairness of processes for assessing, recognizing, and rewarding performance, and are
dissatisfied with the support they receive for professional development (Darmory et al., 2015).
Taken together, recent investigations of Army Civilian engagement provide evidence that
engagement is moderate with room and opportunities for improvement.

Relationships Between Engagement and Other Civilian Attitudes

CASAL uses a composite scale score for engagement to examine interrelationships between
engagement and other characteristics of Army working environments. The composite variable
used in CASAL analyses in previous years continues to demonstrate strong internal consistency
for the set of 10 engagement items (α = .85). Engagement positively and significantly relates to
important outcomes such as an individual's morale (r = .66, p < .001) and career satisfaction (r =
.56, p < .001), but also to a range of other relevant factors. As expected, engagement is strongly
related to Army Civilian attitudes toward their assigned duties and conditions within their

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[17] The Work-Related Job Satisfaction subscale consists of the following items: The work that I do is important; I
understand how the work I do supports the mission of my organization and the Army; I like the kind of work I do; I
know what is expected of me at work.

organizations (e.g., feeling informed about decisions affecting work, confidence in the organization, satisfaction with the quality of leadership in the organization, trust among unit members, the demonstration of organizational citizenship behaviors by members of one's team or immediate work group, and standards being upheld).

Importantly, engagement is also strongly related to a respondent's assessment of his/her immediate superior's demonstration of leadership (e.g., core leader competencies, leader attributes, mission command, trust-building behavior, and lack of counterproductive or 'toxic' leadership) and other attitudes toward his/her superior (e.g.,

> *Engagement is associated with effective leadership, mission command, trust-building behavior, leader development, and a positive unit climate.*

level of trust). Tables 8 and 9 display the strength of these positive relationships and thus the importance for the Army to foster and sustain an engaged force of leaders. For the purpose of comparison, correlation results for AC uniformed leader respondents are also presented.

Table 8. Correlations of Engagement Composite with Attitudes toward Job and Organization

Relationships Between Respondent Engagement and Attitudes Toward Job and Unit Characteristics	Army Civilians	AC Uniformed Leaders (SGT-COL)
Feel informed about decisions that affect work responsibilities	.74	.73
Senior leaders in unit or organization place trust in their subordinates	.65	.64
Satisfaction with the quality of civilian leadership in unit/organization	.66	.48
Confident in the ability of unit or organization to perform its mission	.63	.66
Current level of trust among members of unit or organization	.61	.64
Effectiveness of leaders in unit or organization at lessening or limiting the effects of workload stress in subordinates	.58	.58
Standards are upheld in unit or organization	.58	.61
Satisfaction with the quality of military leadership in unit/organization	.52	.68
Members of team/immediate work group demonstrate organizational citizenship behaviors	.52	.64

Note. All correlations significant at $p < .01$, 2-tailed.

Table 9. Correlations of Engagement Composite with Assessments of Immediate Superior

Relationships Between Respondent Engagement and Assessments of Immediate Superior as a Leader		
	Army Civilians	**AC Leaders (SGT-COL)**
Immediate superior demonstrates mission command philosophy	.72	.66
Immediate superior demonstrates core leader competencies	.70	.67
Effectiveness of immediate superior at developing subordinates	.68	.62
Immediate superior exhibits trust-building behavior	.69	.65
Immediate superior demonstrates leader attributes	.65	.60
Current level of trust in immediate superior	.65	.59
Agreement immediate superior is an effective leader	.64	.56
Immediate superior does not exhibit counterproductive leadership	.61	.53

Note. All correlations significant at $p < .01$, 2-tailed.

Conclusions on Climate and Situational Factors Within the Working Environment

The percentage of Army Civilians reporting high or very high morale shows consistency since 2010, with the exception of a sharp decline between 2012 and 2014 that mirrored a federal climate of challenge and uncertainty in job security. Career satisfaction remains at a positive level for most managers and first line supervisors and for a slightly smaller percentage of non-supervisory employees. CASAL findings on morale are augmented by FEVS results that show fewer Army Civilians currently report satisfaction with their job, with their organization, and with their pay compared to levels observed prior to 2013.

Army Civilians report moderate levels of satisfaction with the quality of military and civilian leadership in their unit or organization, and attitudes are most strongly associated with perceptions of trust among unit members and the trust senior leaders place in their subordinates. Army Civilians report moderately to strongly favorable attitudes toward their assigned duties and their teams, including knowing what is expected of them in their positions, satisfaction with the degree of freedom or latitude to perform their jobs, and team collaboration to achieve results. Positive organizational climates are indicated by pride and confidence in the organization, agreement that standards are upheld, and moderate to high levels of trust. Stress from a high workload persists as a serious problem for one in three civilian managers and first line supervisors. Civilian leaders cite personnel shortages as a key reason for workload stress, a finding supported by results of the FEVS.

Army Civilian engagement, as measured by an index score using a set of 10 items, remains at a favorable level. Civilian engagement is positively associated with morale and career satisfaction, as well as attitudes toward assigned duties, working conditions within units and organizations, team and organizational efficacy, and the effectiveness of one's immediate superior in

demonstrating sound leadership. Levels of Army Civilian engagement reported by the FEVS, a measure that provides established trend results, declined from 2011 to 2014 before showing a slight recovery in recent years. FEVS results for engagement support CASAL findings that indicate civilian leader skill improvement in the *Leads* category of competencies is warranted.

What can be done. Promote the use of the new Army training circular on how to improve engagement in Army units and organizations (TC 6-22.6, 2017b). This resource was developed to provide doctrinally based techniques for enhancing employee engagement, for use by all personnel and their supervisors (military and civilian) with an application focus at the direct level of leadership. The circular integrates experiences and best practices by drawing upon Army doctrine and regulation, recent Army leadership studies, and research on effective practices from the private and public sectors. The resource describes each factor affecting employee engagement, and provides assessments to determine team strengths and needs in each area, as well as actionable methods to set conditions for enhancing employee engagement. The resource will be available from the Army Publishing Directorate website. It is up to leaders and managers to implement the guidelines to realize improvement.

1.3 Counterproductive Leadership

Counterproductive leadership is the consistent or extreme abuse of authority that inflicts serious and enduring harm on individuals, the organization, and the mission. The term counterproductive conveys that a given behavior or absence of a behavior will be counter to productive results, processes, and attitudes. Counterproductive behaviors can take

> *Counterproductive leadership involves destructive conduct contrary to the Army Values that decreases followers' well-being and undermines unit functioning.*

many forms, and include bullying, distorting information, refusing to listen to subordinates, abusing authority, withholding encouragement, showing little or no respect, and taking credit for others' work (AR 600-100, 2017a). Counterproductive leadership involves destructive conduct that unnecessarily increases stress, consumes mental and emotional energies without gain, and prevents a climate conducive to mission accomplishment. It is often marked by leaders who misuse their authority, pursue self-serving motives, have an unstable identity, lack competence, or make corrupt choices. These behaviors undermine confidence in leaders and are contrary to the Army Values.

A label previously used to describe counterproductive leadership behaviors 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. Counterproductive behaviors are classified as toxic when they become recurrent and have a damaging impact on the organization's performance or the welfare of subordinates (AR 600-100, 2017a). Toxic leaders tend to use compliance-driven techniques that involve coercion, demeaning or threatening messages, and where followers respond to the positional power of the leader to avoid negative consequences for themselves. While toxic leaders may attain results in the short-term using these techniques, other important productive competencies are ignored or diminished. Effective leadership is characterized by encouragement and inspiration, while coercive techniques run counter to the Army's leadership principles (ADRP 6-22, 2012d). Descriptions used to identify toxic leaders fit within the scope of counterproductive leadership behaviors. However, the term counterproductive leadership is more comprehensive as it emphasizes observable behaviors and effects rather than intent.

Prevalence of Counterproductive Leadership Behaviors in the Army

Since 2012, CASAL has applied a consistent method to assess and track trends in the prevalence of counterproductive leadership behaviors.[18] Assessments are based on subordinate ratings of their immediate superior in demonstrating counterproductive behaviors that reflect leadership outcomes. This method inhibits respondents from making holistic assessments about their immediate superior that associate negative intentions with the observable behaviors.

The presence of counterproductive leadership behaviors among Army Civilian leaders remains limited, but it does occur. The reported occurrence of several negative behaviors indicates little to no change from 2012 to 2016. Results show that the proportion of civilian leaders assessed as demonstrating any specific counterproductive behavior has remained one-fourth or less (see Table 10) over the past five years. The most commonly displayed counterproductive leadership behavior reported is setting misplaced priorities that interfere with accomplishing goals, which is reported to be slightly more prevalent in 2016 (25% agree or strongly agree) compared to previous years. Importantly, these behaviors individually do not constitute counterproductive leadership. All Army leaders are susceptible to demonstrating counterproductive behaviors, and many who do have good ideas and accomplish their missions, though their achievements often come at the expense of others and the overall organization.

Table 10. Army Civilian Respondent Ratings of Their Civilian Immediate Superior's Demonstration of Counterproductive Leadership Behaviors (2012 to 2016)

My immediate superior…	Percent Agree or Strongly Agree				
	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Sets misplaced priorities that interfere with accomplishing goals	20%	18%	19%	18%	25%
Does little to help his/her team be more cohesive	22%	19%	21%	21%	23%
Berates subordinates for small mistakes	15%	14%	15%	14%	16%
Blames other people to save himself/herself embarrassment	17%	16%	16%	16%	17%

Similarly, the prevalence of positive leadership behavior continues to be another strong indication that counterproductive leadership among civilian leaders is limited. A majority of civilian leaders engage in productive behaviors related to ethical conduct, selfless service, and

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[18] In 2010, CASAL's initial investigation of toxic leadership used a gross indicator where the presence of any one of a small set of negative behaviors would define toxic leadership (Steele, 2011). This method resulted in estimates of up to 20% of Army leaders demonstrating one or more negative behaviors but did not take into account the severity of behaviors or multiple negative behaviors.

communication that foster teamwork (see Table 11). These results have also remained generally stable over time.

Table 11. Army Civilian Respondent Ratings of Their Civilian Immediate Superior's Demonstration of Productive Leadership Behaviors (2012 to 2016)

My immediate superior…	Percent Agree or Strongly Agree				
	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Upholds ethical standards	*	78%	77%	78%	79%
Puts the needs of the unit/organization and mission ahead of self	68%	73%	74%	71%	72%
Is an effective leader	62%	65%	64%	64%	66%
Promotes good communication among team members	61%	65%	64%	64%	66%

Note. * Item was not assessed in 2012.

Leaders who demonstrate a combination of counterproductive leadership behaviors on a consistent basis tend to do the most damage to their organizations and to their subordinates and other personnel. CASAL examines the prevalence of counterproductive leadership by calculating the percentage of civilian leaders who exhibit more negative than positive behaviors in regards to the eight behaviors[19] listed in Tables 10 and 11 (i.e., respondents who perceive their immediate superior engages in a negative manner in five or more of the eight behaviors). As stated previously, all Army leaders are susceptible to exhibiting one or a few negative behaviors from time to time. This analysis aimed to identify the proportion of civilian leaders who are perceived as exhibiting a pattern of counterproductive behaviors that outweigh their productive behaviors.

Table 12 presents the trend results for Army Civilian leaders by position. A key finding based on these results is that counterproductive leadership remains limited among Army Civilian leaders and tends to be more common at the first line supervisor level than at higher levels of leadership. Results for AC uniformed leader respondents are presented for comparison. Since 2012, the percentage of Army Civilian leaders assessed by civilian subordinates as demonstrating a combination of counterproductive behaviors has been slightly higher (from 1%

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[19] In unpublished research by the Center for Army Leadership, the eight behaviors (four negative and four positive) presented in Tables 10 and 11 were empirically identified from a set of over 100 items as the ones that best differentiated (predicted) positive and negative outcomes, such as unit efficacy, leadership effectiveness, and subordinate morale.

to 3%) than AC uniformed leader respondent assessments for uniformed leaders (in ranks sergeant to general officer).

Table 12. Percentage of Army Civilian Leaders Exhibiting Counterproductive Leadership by Position (2012 to 2016)

Position of Respondent's Immediate Superior	Percentage of Leaders Exhibiting More Counterproductive Than Productive Leadership Behaviors				
	2012	**2013**	**2014**	**2015**	**2016**
Senior Executive/Director	8%	8%	8%	6%	6%
Manager	9%	8%	8%	7%	8%
First Line Supervisor	9%	9%	10%	11%	10%
Army Civilian Total	9%	8%	9%	8%	8%
AC Uniformed Leader Total (Sergeant to General Officer)	8%	7%	7%	7%	5%

Ratings for each individual core leader competency and attribute were examined to identify the strongest contributors to civilian leaders' demonstration of positive leadership behaviors regarded as not counterproductive. Results indicated one competency and two attributes accounted for 69% of the variance in ratings of the absence of counterproductive leadership behaviors in Army Civilian leaders (R^2 = .69, p < .001). Specifically, the effectiveness of one's immediate superior in *Building Trust*, demonstrating *Sound Judgment,* and demonstrating *Empathy* significantly contributed to perceptions that the superior does not demonstrate counterproductive leadership behaviors. *Building Trust* establishes conditions for effective leadership, *Sound Judgment* represents an ability to demonstrate good decision making, and *Empathy* reflects care and concern shown to others. Notably, results of this analysis for AC uniformed leader respondents also identified these three components of the LRM as significant predictors of the absence of counterproductive leadership behaviors in uniformed leaders. The attribute *Army Values* and the competency *Leads by Example* were also significant predictors for uniformed leader demonstration of positive behaviors.

> *Civilian leaders who effectively Build Trust and demonstrate Sound Judgment and Empathy are least often perceived to demonstrate counterproductive leadership behaviors.*

Impact of Counterproductive Leadership

CASAL results have consistently demonstrated that counterproductive leadership is associated with unfavorable subordinate attitudes and organizational outcomes. There are strong positive relationships between Army Civilian respondents' assessment of their civilian immediate superior exhibiting positive leadership behavior (i.e., the favorable end of a composite score) and their assessment of their immediate superior's effect on organizational outcomes, such as those presented in Table 13. The presence of a combination of counterproductive leadership behaviors is associated with adverse effects on command climate; the cohesion, discipline, and capability of teams and work groups to accomplish missions; and trust among members of units and organizations.

Table 13. Correlations of Counterproductive Leadership Behaviors with Organizational Outcomes

Relationships Between the Extent of Army Civilian Immediate Superiors Not Demonstrating Counterproductive Leadership Behaviors and Unit or Organizational Outcomes	Army Civilians	AC Uniformed Leaders (SGT-COL)
Effect on command climate	.75	.69
Effect on team/immediate work group cohesion	.75	.69
Effect on team/immediate work group capability to accomplish missions	.73	.67
Effect on team/immediate work group discipline	.69	.63
Perceived level of trust among members of unit/organization	.47	.44

Note. All correlations significant at $p < .01$ (2-tailed).

Similarly, the presence of counterproductive leadership behaviors is associated with unfavorable subordinate attitudes (see Table 14). The strongest correlations indicate that leaders who are viewed as demonstrating a combination of counterproductive behaviors tend to not meet their subordinates' expectations for leadership, nor be trusted by their subordinates. This is supported by a meta-analysis by Schyns and Schilling (2013) which found that destructive leadership behaviors were negatively correlated ($r = -.57$, $p < .001$) with how employees felt about their leader. Whether due to incompetence or some other combination of counterproductive behaviors, ineffective leaders can lose the confidence and trust of their subordinates. CASAL findings also indicate subordinates perceive counterproductive superiors to have an adverse effect on their work quality, and report lower levels of engagement and morale.

Table 14. Correlations of Counterproductive Leadership Behaviors with Subordinate Attitudes

Relationships Between the Extent of Immediate Superior Not Demonstrating Counterproductive Leadership Behaviors and Subordinate Attitudes		
	Army Civilians	AC Uniformed Leaders (SGT-COL)
Immediate superior meets respondent's expectations for leadership	.75	.69
Subordinate level of trust in immediate superior	.75	.67
Effect on subordinate work quality	.67	.63
Subordinate engagement (composite score)	.62	.53
Subordinate level of morale	.51	.44
Subordinate satisfaction with freedom or latitude in conduct of duties	.44	.39
Subordinate feels informed of decisions affecting work responsibilities	.43	.36
Subordinate feels encouraged to come up with new/better ways of doing things	.40	.36
Respondents' satisfaction with Army career thus far	.40	.28

Note. All correlations significant at $p < .01$ (2-tailed).

Further, the absence of counterproductive leadership behavior is positively associated with multiple indices of trust-building behavior (r's = .68 to .79, $p < .001$), meaning leaders who demonstrate productive leadership are viewed favorably on behaviors, such as building trust, looking out for their subordinates' welfare, keeping their word, and following through on commitments to others.

Conclusions on Counterproductive Leadership

The frequency of counterproductive leadership behaviors in the Army remains low and relatively unchanged since first assessed by CASAL in 2012. Small percentages of civilian leaders (one-fourth or less) are viewed as demonstrating specific behaviors associated with counterproductive leadership. The percentage of civilian leaders assessed as demonstrating more counterproductive than productive leadership behaviors is about 8%. Counterproductive behaviors tend to be more prevalent at the first line supervisor level than at higher levels of civilian leadership.

CASAL results reinforce that civilian leaders who engage in a combination of counterproductive behaviors are perceived as having adverse effects on their working environment, including command climate; the cohesion, discipline, and capability of the teams and work groups they lead; and the work quality, engagement, and morale of their followers. Civilian leaders who

effectively *Build Trust*, demonstrate *Sound Judgment,* and demonstrate *Empathy* are less often perceived to demonstrate counterproductive leadership behaviors. Counterproductive leadership runs contrary to the *Army Values*, so it is not surprising that these behaviors strain bonds of trust in organizations. Subordinates report low levels of trust in civilian leaders whom they perceive to demonstrate counterproductive leadership, and assess these leaders as less effective in trust-building behaviors.

What can be done. Continue research on the antecedents, causes, and occurrence of counterproductive leadership in the Army. The Army and the Center for Army Leadership have developed an understanding of the types of behaviors that can be classified as counterproductive. More needs to be learned about what causes uniformed and civilian leaders to engage in or demonstrate these negative behaviors or outcomes. CAL is currently developing interactive media instruction (IMI) to address counterproductive leadership. The instruction includes how to define and identify counterproductive behaviors, how to assess the causes and impacts of the behaviors, and how to apply strategies and techniques to address counterproductive behaviors. The instruction will allow a leader (uniformed and civilian) to identify any of his or her own behaviors that are counterproductive. It will also provide strategies for individuals who are experiencing or witnessing the impacts of counterproductive leadership and guide them in identifying, assessing, and addressing the behaviors.

Part Two: Quality of Leader Development

2.1 Civilian Leader Development

Leader development for Army Civilians is fundamentally different from uniformed leader development because of the differing terms of federal employment and conditions of military commissions, appointments, and assignments. One indication of this difference is reflected in the average length of time a civilian leader has in an organization of over 10 years (see page 2 of this report), compared to the typical

> *Civilian leader development is fundamentally different from uniformed leader development, due to differing terms of federal employment and conditions for assignments.*

two- to three-year assignments for Soldiers. Time-based progression in ranks for Soldiers is another difference compared to conditions of Army Civilian employment. Most civilians are selected and hired for specific positions, based upon their documented talents and the potential they exhibit during the selection process, and can stay until they choose to leave or are terminated (AR 600-100, 2017a). Most federal positions have no guarantee of advancement and there are limited opportunities within an organization's structure for advancement. Most openings occur when a current employee decides to leave a position. Pay advancement within a General Schedule (GS) grade occurs automatically by tenure, and is not based on development or superior performance. Advancement to positions of greater responsibility is an individual choice for Army Civilians, while it is a condition for Soldiers in order for them to stay until retirement or the Army decides on their separation. It is speculated that civilian leaders have an unofficial disincentive to develop subordinates, because current members usually leave the direct supervisor's work unit or the organization to advance.

Regardless of the terms of employment, the Army's expectations for leader development across the force are defined in doctrine and regulations (ADP 7-0, 2012c; AR 350-1, 2014a; FM 6-22, 2015). Leader development is a continuous and progressive process, and spans a leader's entire career. The Army's leader development model comprises training, education, and experience gained through three mutually supporting domains: operational, self-development, and institutional. By design, a majority of leader development occurs in operational assignments and through self-development, as limited time is allotted for schoolhouse learning (ADP 7-0, 2012c). Army Regulation 350-1 states that civilian leader development (training and education) will "prepare agile and innovative Army Civilians who can lead during times of change and uncertainty; are prepared for the rigors of service as multi-skilled leaders; and are armed with the values, skills, and mindset to serve as competent, resilient members of the Army Civilian Corps" (2014a).

CASAL assesses the effectiveness and relative positive impact of the three leader development domains in preparing civilian leaders for higher levels of leadership or responsibility. The percentages of managers and first line supervisors rating each domain effective or very effective in 2016 are presented in Figure 22. A consistent pattern observed with these results is the relatively larger percentage of civilian leaders who favor self-development and operational experience over the development that occurs through Army institutional courses and schools.
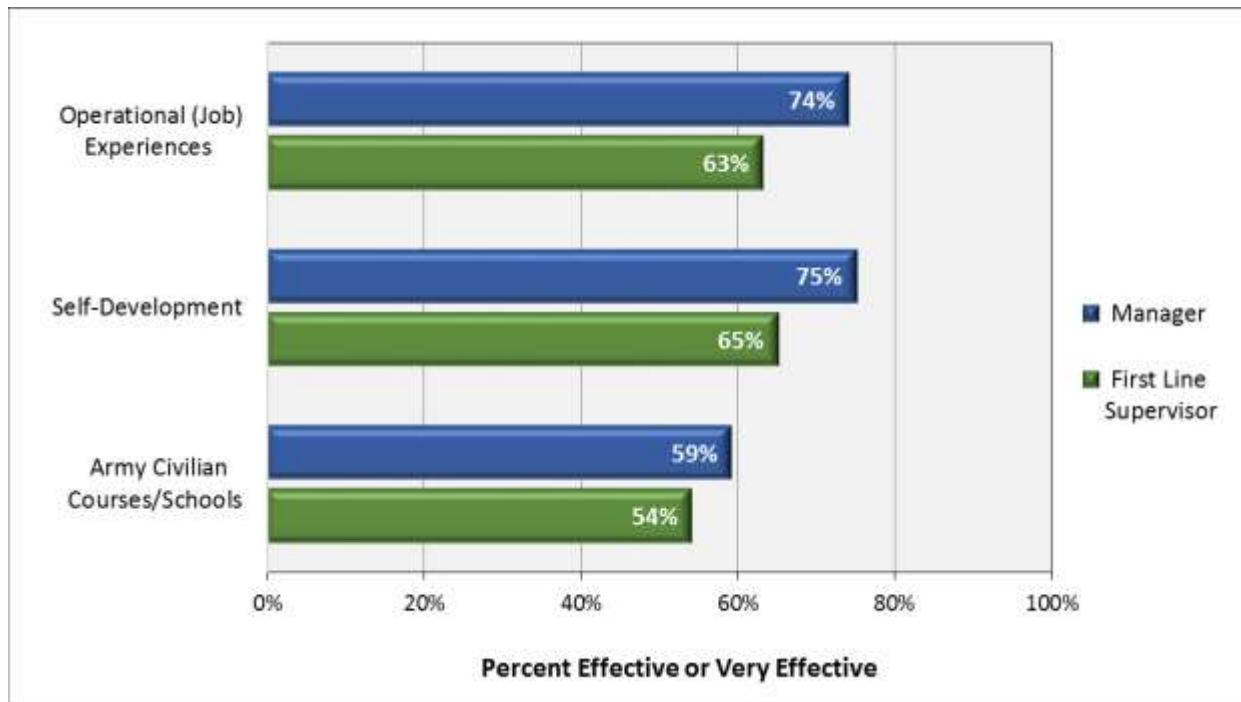

Figure 22. Ratings of Effectiveness for the Leader Development Domains by Civilian Leaders

Operational Work Experience

Operational work experiences enhance the leadership skills of Army Civilians and prepare them for future roles and responsibilities. Overall, about two-thirds of civilian leaders indicate their job experiences have been effective or very effective in developing them for higher levels of leadership or responsibility. Only 10% of managers and 15% of first line supervisors indicate their experiences have been ineffective in this regard. Further, civilian leaders have consistently viewed methods for development through job experiences, such as opportunities to lead others and on-the-job training, as having a large or great impact on their development (74% and 69%, respectively, in 2016).

The percentage of civilian leaders rating their job experiences as effective or very effective for developing them for higher levels of leadership or responsibility has fluctuated greatly in recent years, with no consistent trend (from 74% in 2013, to 64% in 2014, to 75% in 2015, and to 68% in 2016). However, across these years, no more than 14% of civilian leaders rated their job experiences as ineffective or very ineffective.

A lack of opportunities for career advancement is a key reason why up to 14% of civilian leaders rate their operational work experiences as ineffective for preparing them for higher levels of leadership responsibility.

One reason why results are not consistently more favorable stems from the very premise that development through work experience will result in opportunities for higher levels of leadership responsibility. Findings from the FEVS (U.S. Office of Personnel Management, 2016) have consistently indicated that a minority of Army Civilians are satisfied with their opportunity to get a better job in their organization. FEVS results show that since 2006, no more than 43% of Army Civilians have indicated they are satisfied or very satisfied, with a low of 29% observed in 2014. This finding is supported by respondent comments provided in the 2015 CASAL, which revealed that many Army Civilians do not perceive that they have a pathway to advance to a higher level. Essentially, respondents noted there is no upward mobility in their organization, in their job category, or at their location, and this is often due to their current pay level or the organizational structure. This perceived lack of opportunity for any advancement is viewed as a roadblock and a primary reason why operational experiences are not viewed favorably by more civilian leaders. Other respondent comments indicated job experiences are ineffective because development has not been structured and/or provided to the respondent, that work duties are a priority over a focus on development, and for some, that prior military experience is where their leader development primarily occurred (not through their Army Civilian job experiences).

Self-Development

Self-development encompasses the planned, goal-oriented learning that reinforces and expands the depth and breadth of an individual's knowledge base, self-awareness, and situational awareness to enhance professional competence and meet personal objectives (ADP 7-0, 2012c). Self-development is a continuous, life-long process that focuses on maximizing strengths, overcoming weaknesses, and achieving individual development goals. All Soldiers and Army Civilians are expected to accept personal responsibility to develop, grow, and commit to professional excellence (AR 350-1, 2014a).

Civilian leader attitudes regarding self-development remain unchanged in recent years. Of civilian leaders, 69% rate their self-development as effective or very effective for preparing them to assume new levels of leadership or responsibility. Only 8% of civilian leaders rate their self-development as ineffective. In addition, more than half of civilian leaders (58%) rate the practice of self-development as having a large or great impact on their development, while 28% rate the impact as moderate.

> *More than two-thirds of civilian leaders rate their self-development as effective for preparing them for increased leadership responsibility.*

A challenge to self-development in almost any work setting is the perceived amount of time available to engage in self-initiated training or development. A relatively small percentage of civilian leaders (38%) agree that they have sufficient time for self-development in their current assignment, a consistent finding since 2014.[20] Civilian leaders report engaging in self-development activities such as professional reading, networking with others, and focused skill improvement. However, another notable finding from the 2014 CASAL was that civilian leaders cited mandatory training as a primary purpose for self-development, which reflects passive learning as opposed to an active and tailored pursuit of lifelong learning and development (Riley, Hatfield, Fallesen, & Gunther, 2015).

Institutional Education

Of the three Army leader development domains, institutional education is consistently assessed favorably by the smallest percentage of Army leaders, both uniformed and civilian. Of civilian leaders who have attended a civilian education course at some point in their career, 56% rate Army Civilian courses/schools effective or very effective in developing them for higher levels of leadership or responsibility. More than one-fourth of civilian leaders (28%) rate their Army Civilian education as neither effective nor ineffective in developing them, while 16% rate it ineffective.

Army Civilian course attendance is not widely viewed as an effective practice for leader development. However, larger percentages of civilian leaders view resident course attendance as having a large or great impact on their development (42%) compared to nonresident or distributed learning (DL) courses (26%). About one-third of civilian leaders view either resident attendance or DL/nonresident courses as having a moderate impact on their development (28% and 34%, respectively). Each of these findings represents consistent trends observed by CASAL

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[20] The percentage of civilian leaders who agree or strongly agree they have sufficient time for self-development in their current assignment (38%) is significantly lower than AC uniformed leaders (48%).

since first assessed in 2009. Specific findings regarding the Civilian Education System (CES) are described in detail in chapter 2.3 of this report.

Leader Development Practices

Since 2009, CASAL has assessed and tracked trends on the relative contribution that various practices have on civilian leader development. In 2016, civilian leader respondents rated a list of 10 developmental practices in terms of the positive impact each has had on their development as a leader. As findings on the positive impact of these practices are integrated into results discussions throughout this report, a brief overview and summary is provided here.

Leader development practices assessed by CASAL span all three Army leader development domains (ADP 7-0, 2012c) and include activities such as on-the-job training and opportunities to lead others (operational domain); self-development activities (self-development domain); and resident and nonresident course attendance (institutional education domain). CASAL trend results

> *The leader development practices assessed as having the highest impact on civilian leader development align with the operational domain.*

show a relatively stable rank ordering of leader development practices in terms of the positive impact that each practice has on civilian leader development. 2016 results (see Figure 23) support an established pattern that the perceived positive impact of leader development practices fall within three tiers[21]:

- Highest impact – practices include mentoring, opportunities to lead others, on-the-job training, and learning from peers. Each of these practices align with the operational (work experience) domain for leader development.

- Moderate impact – practices include self-development, learning from superiors, and resident institutional education.

- Lowest impact – practices include multi-source 360-degree assessment feedback, developmental counseling from immediate superior, and nonresident education (distributed learning)).

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[21] The three tiers of impact presented in Figure 23 fit the following practical rules of thumb: Highest impact–65% or more Large/Great impact and less than 13% Small/No impact; Moderate impact–About 42% to 58% Large/Great impact and between 13% to 29% Small/No impact; Lowest impact–Less than 33% Large/Great impact and 40% or more Small/No impact.
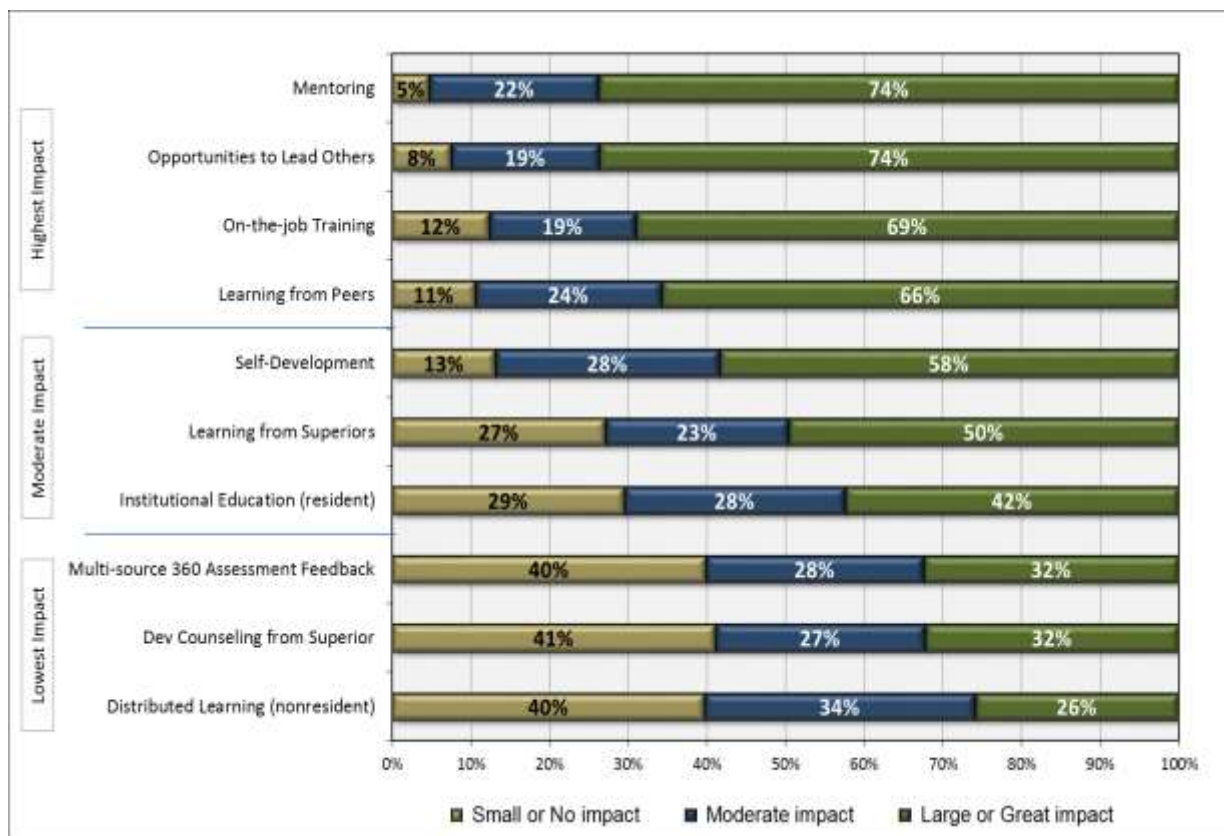
Figure 23. The Impact of Various Practices on the Development of Army Civilian Leaders

The results in Figure 23 show the relative impact of the practices on leader development[22], but do not address other important factors that differ, such as required supporting activities (e.g., a curriculum, faculty, trainers, or online resources), required time (e.g., 15 minutes for a self-development activity, or several weeks to attend a resident CES course), and cost (e.g., no direct costs, $50 per leader, or $10,000 per leader). Thus, when considering the Army's and individual's investment in each of the practices, some lower impact practices have a high return on investment (e.g., observing other leaders, multi-source 360-degree assessment feedback). High impact practices such as opportunities to lead others and on-the-job training may have high time investments but low support costs, and the overall result is a high return on investment. In comparison, a moderate impact practice such as resident course attendance is associated with higher direct costs (e.g., travel, lodging, time away from assigned duties).

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[22] The percentages of civilian leaders who rate on-the-job training (69%) and learning from superiors (50%) as having a large/great impact on their development is significantly lower than AC uniformed leaders (77% and 61%, respectively). The percentage of civilian leaders who rate multi-source 360-degree assessment feedback (32%) as having a large/great impact on their development is significantly higher than ratings by AC uniformed leaders (22%).

Conclusions on Civilian Leader Development

Leader development for Army Civilians is characteristically different from leader development of uniformed leaders, as Army Civilians are traditionally hired fully qualified for their assigned duties. Effective leader development, as defined by Army doctrine and regulations, currently occurs at moderate levels for civilian leaders. Development through operational job experiences and self-development are favored over formal education opportunities.

Civilian leaders tend to view less-formal methods of learning, such as those that occur through operational work experiences and interpersonal interactions, as having the largest positive impact on their development. These include mentoring, opportunities to lead others, on-the-job training, and learning from peers. In comparison, methods such as self-development activities, learning from superiors, and formal resident institutional education are viewed as having a moderate impact, while 360-degree assessment feedback, developmental counseling, and nonresident DL remain relatively low impact methods.

Job experiences serve as the most readily available method for civilian leader development. In contrast, many civilian leaders perceive a lack of sufficient time available as a limiting factor in their pursuit of effective self-development. Excessive workloads and a lack of available time for development are factors that affect both the purposes and types of self-development activities in which civilian leaders engage.

2.2　Leader's Role in Development

The work settings of most Army Civilians provide opportunities for leaders to interact with the followers they lead. As operational work experiences are consistently assessed as a favored method for leader development across the Army, civilian leaders are well positioned to foster the development of their subordinate leaders through day-to-day interactions. The Army requires all of its leaders to develop those junior to them to the fullest extent possible (AR 600-100, 2017a). In developmental relationships, it is the leader's responsibility to help subordinates learn. Leaders develop subordinates through assessing developmental needs; providing coaching, counseling, and mentoring; creating challenging assignments in their jobs; and providing developmental feedback (ADRP 6-22, 2012d). This chapter describes results of the 2016 CASAL regarding Army leader effectiveness in developing others, the quality of performance counseling, and mentoring relationships.

Develops Others

The practice of subordinate development, or leaders' abilities to develop others, continues to be an area of concern for both Army Civilian leaders and uniformed leaders, and warrants attention. Subordinate leader development requires a concerted effort in both enabling superiors to do it well and holding them accountable for this leadership responsibility. Of the ten core leader competencies, *Develops Others* is consistently assessed as the least favorable in terms of Army leader effectiveness.

> *55% of civilian leaders are rated effective in developing their subordinates, the highest percentage observed since 2009.*

In 2016, 55% of Army Civilian leaders are rated effective or very effective in developing their subordinates while 22% are rated ineffective or very ineffective. Since first assessed by CASAL in 2009, the favorability level has fluctuated between 50% and 54% of civilian leaders, consistently below the three-fourths favorability threshold. Civilian leader effectiveness in assessing the developmental needs of subordinates, a supporting behavior, is assessed at a similarly low level (58% effective or very effective).

Results of the 2016 FEVS (U.S. Office of Personnel Management, 2016) provide several indicators for the current quality of Army Civilian development in operational work settings (see Table 15). Direct comparisons of results between CASAL and FEVS cannot be made due to differences in item wording and the response options used. However, these results support CASAL findings that subordinate development among Army Civilians shows room for improvement.

2016 FEVS Department of the Army Results			
Army Civilian Respondents	**% Negative**	**% Neutral**	**% Positive**
My supervisor provides me with opportunities to demonstrate my leadership skills.	18%	17%	65%
Supervisors in my work unit support employee development.	18%	18%	64%
I am given a real opportunity to improve my skills in my organization.	22%	16%	62%
My training needs are assessed.	26%	22%	52%
The skill level in my work unit has improved in the past year.	20%	29%	51%

Field Manual (FM) 6-22, *Leader Development*, states that developing leaders involves a holistic, comprehensive, and purposeful group of activities (2015). Leader development occurs through daily opportunities to learn and teach, and in a range of settings such as at home station, in offices, laboratories, depots, maintenance bays, during exercises, and while deployed. The 2015 CASAL (Riley et al., 2016) confirmed that Army leaders engage in a range of activities to develop their subordinates' leadership skills that align with four fundamentals of development, as described in FM 6-22:

- **Setting conditions** for development involves leaders personally modeling behaviors that encourage development, and creating environments that encourage learning.

- **Providing feedback** starts with opportunities for observation and assessment and leads to immediate, short bursts of feedback on actual leader actions that enhance development, in addition to regular counseling.

- **Enhancing learning** involves the use of leaders as a learning source (i.e., role modeling, mentoring, coaching) and encouraging subordinate self-study, training, and education.

- **Creating opportunities** includes deliberate position assignments and other methods integrated into day-to-day activities that challenge and grow leaders' skills.

Table 16 displays the percentage of civilian leader respondents who reported that various developmental actions had been taken by their Army Civilian immediate superior in the past 12 months. These findings, collected during the 2015 CASAL (Riley et al., 2016), provide context for the level of civilian leaders rated effective in *Developing Others.* Subordinate managers and first line supervisors most frequently report that their civilian superior develops them through relatively low-effort methods, such as remaining approachable for the subordinate to ask

questions and by offering encouragement or praise. While more deliberate developmental actions that enhance learning and provide new opportunities for subordinates also occur (e.g., training, teaching, coaching, or skill development; mentoring to prepare for future roles; task delegation; new opportunities to lead; challenging job assignments), these high impact methods are less commonly used.[23]

Table 16. Leader Development Actions Taken by Army Civilian Leader Respondents' Immediate Superiors

Actions That Respondents' Civilian Immediate Superiors Have Taken in the Past 12 Months to Develop the Respondents' Leadership Skills (Categorized by Fundamentals of Development and Rank Ordered by Frequency of Army Civilian Leader Respondents)	
Setting Conditions for Development	
1. Remained approachable for me to seek input and ask questions	64%
2. Fostered a climate for development (e.g., allowed learning from honest mistakes)	46%
Providing Feedback	
3. Provided encouragement and/or praise	62%
4. Provided me with feedback on my performance (e.g., formal or informal counseling)	56%
Enhancing Learning	
5. Involved me in a decision-making or planning process	60%
6. Shared experiences, lessons learned, or advice	49%
7. Authorized or allowed me to attend resident training or education	28%
8. Provided training, teaching, coaching, or skill development	26%
9. Encouraged or recommended continuing education (e.g., college courses, job certifications)	23%
10. Referred me to developmental resources (e.g., online courses, readings, study topics)	18%
11. Provided mentoring to prepare me for future roles or assignments	19%
Creating Opportunities	
12. Delegated tasks to develop me	38%
13. Provided me with new opportunities to lead	35%
14. Created or called attention to challenging job assignments or opportunities	28%

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[23] Responses by civilian leaders and AC uniformed leaders differed by 8% or more on 3 of the 14 developmental activities, indicating a notable difference. The percentage of civilian leader respondents indicating their civilian immediate superior developed them through providing feedback on their performance in the past year (56%) is notably higher than the percentage of AC uniformed respondents (46%) that endorsed this activity. In comparison, the percentages of civilian leader respondents indicating their civilian immediate superior developed them through delegating tasks (38%) and mentoring to prepare them for future roles or assignments (19%) is notably lower than the percentage of AC uniformed respondents that endorsed these activities (49% and 27%, respectively).

Performance Counseling

Performance counseling involves the review of a subordinate's duty performance and potential. Counseling enables leaders to help subordinates become more capable, resilient, satisfied, and better prepared for current and future responsibilities. As a method of development, performance counseling is rated relatively low in terms of its positive impact on civilian leaders. In 2016, only one in three civilian leader respondents (32%) rate the developmental counseling received from their immediate superior as having a large or great impact on their development. Attitudes have steadily improved since 2011 when only 23% of civilian leaders rated the impact of their performance counseling as large or great. However for most civilian leaders, the perceived positive impact is moderate at best. In comparison to counseling, larger percentages of civilian leader respondents view informal learning through interactions with peers (66%) and superiors (50%) as having a large or great impact on their development.

While Army doctrine and guidance endorse performance counseling as a principal method for subordinate development (ADRP 6-22, 2012d; AR 690-400, 1998; ATP 6-22.1, 2014b), CASAL findings continue to indicate that counseling is inconsistently applied in practice. Sixty-five percent of civilian leader respondents characterize the frequency with

> *Civilian leaders do not generally view feedback received through performance counseling as effective for setting performance goals for improvement.*

which they currently receive performance counseling as "about right" while one-third feel they receive counseling too infrequently or much too infrequently (i.e., it is not happening enough).[24] Less than half of civilian leaders (43%) agree the feedback they received during their last performance counseling was useful in helping them set performance goals for improvement, a level showing no change since first assessed in 2012. These results reinforce previous CASAL findings that there is currently unmet need in the Army with regard to performance counseling, both for the frequency of the interaction and the usefulness of the feedback received in setting performance goals for improvement.

Feedback should be a normal part of the performance of work. While set periods for developmental counseling are important, leaders should also provide frequent feedback to subordinates as an embedded, natural part of their duties and on a regular basis (ADRP 6-22, 2012d). CASAL findings have demonstrated that less formal developmental interactions (e.g., one-on-one discussions between a supervisor and subordinate on job performance,

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[24] The percentage of civilian leaders who characterize the frequency with which they currently receive performance counseling as too infrequent or much too infrequent (31%) is significantly higher than AC uniformed leaders (26%).

performance improvement, and preparing for future roles) are more common than traditional performance counseling. The relative frequency with which these types of interactions occur between Army Civilian leaders and their superiors varies (see Table 17).

Table 17. Frequency of Developmental Feedback Received by Army Civilian Leader Respondents

How often does your immediate superior take the time to talk with you about…	Percentage of Army Civilian Leader Respondents			
	Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Frequently/ Very frequently
How you are doing in your work?	9%	22%	31%	38%
How you could improve your duty performance?	18%	29%	32%	21%
What you should do to prepare for future assignments?	26%	25%	27%	22%

Additionally, results of the 2016 FEVS (U.S. Office of Personnel Management, 2016) reinforce CASAL findings on performance counseling and development. While relatively larger percentages of Army Civilians indicate performance discussions with their supervisor do occur, the perceived value to development is viewed as favorable by fewer Army Civilians (see Table 18).

Table 18. 2016 FEVS Department of the Army Results on Employee Training and Development (U.S. Office of Personnel Management, 2016)

2016 FEVS Department of the Army Results			
Army Civilian Respondents	% Negative	% Neutral	% Positive
In the last six months, my supervisor has talked with me about my performance.	17%	10%	73%
Discussions with my supervisor about my performance are worthwhile.	20%	20%	60%
My supervisor provides me with constructive suggestions to improve my job performance.	21%	20%	59%

Mentoring

Across the Army, the term mentoring is often used indiscriminately as any one-on-one development, but there are important distinctions between mentoring, developmental counseling, and other roles such as training, teaching, and coaching. Each of these activities serves a different developmental purpose, but all are

Mentoring is less common among civilian leaders than AC uniformed leaders. Further, a larger percentage of civilian leaders provide mentoring (54%) than receive mentoring (27%).

complementary. The Army's definition of mentoring describes a voluntary and developmental relationship that exists between a person of greater experience and a person of lesser experience, characterized by mutual trust and respect (AR 600-100, 2017a). Army leadership doctrine (ADRP 6-22, 2012d) expounds on this definition by identifying general characteristics of a mentoring relationship. Namely, mentorship affects both personal and professional development; both individuals must be active participants; and mentoring is not limited to superior-subordinate relationships.

While mentoring is more common among uniformed ranks than it is in the civilian workforce, it remains a valuable method of Army Civilian leader development. Only 27% of civilian managers and first line supervisors report currently receiving mentoring (from one or more mentors), compared to 57% of AC uniformed leaders. Three-fourths of civilian leaders (74%) who receive mentoring indicate the relationship has had a large or great impact on their development; 22% rate the impact as moderate. Additionally, results of the 2014 CASAL provided strong indications that, for most civilian leaders who receive mentoring, the need is currently being met with regard to the frequency of desired interaction (Riley et al., 2015). A majority of civilian leader respondents (87%) characterized the frequency with which they received mentoring as "about right."

CASAL findings also continue to show that larger percentages of civilian leaders provide mentoring than receive mentoring. More than half of civilian leaders (54%) indicate they serve as a mentor to others, comparable to the 60% of AC uniformed leaders that mentor others. The differing proportions of civilian leaders receiving versus providing mentoring may reflect a combination of factors in the civilian workforce. First, civilian leaders are rated most favorably in demonstrating the leader attribute, *Expertise in Primary Duties* (79% effective or very effective), a positive indication that these leaders hold valuable knowledge and experience that they can share with others. Many civilian leaders may perceive that they share this knowledge and experience through interactions with others. However, in conflict with this premise are the

relatively small percentages of Army Civilians at all levels who report they currently receive mentoring from one or more mentors, even non-supervisory civilian employees (22%).

Additionally, the majority of civilian leaders may not receive mentoring for the same reason that operational job experiences are viewed by some to be ineffective in preparing them for higher levels of leadership or responsibility. Namely, that limited opportunities for advancement or career progression provide no incentive for civilian managers and first line supervisors to seek out mentoring relationships to benefit their development, as the perceived payoff may be low. Since civilian leaders are viewed as experts, many may not believe they need further development through mentorship.

Conclusions on Leader's Role in Development

Interpersonal methods of civilian leader development continue to show room for improvement. *Develops Others* is consistently the least favorably rated core leader competency for both civilian and uniformed leaders. When development does occur, civilian leaders tend to utilize relatively low-effort methods such as remaining approachable for the subordinate to seek input and ask questions; providing encouragement or praise; involving the subordinate in a decision-making or planning process; fostering a climate for development (e.g., allow learning from mistakes); and sharing experiences, lessons learned, or advice. Performance counseling tends to occur inconsistently and the perceived impact on civilian leader development remains low. Voluntary mentoring relationships are less common for civilian leaders than they are for AC uniformed leaders. However, the relatively low percentage of civilian leaders who do have a mentor tend to view the relationship as having a large or great impact on their development. CASAL findings are supported by results of the FEVS, which indicate less than two-thirds of civilians perceive they have support from supervisors for their development, have opportunities to improve their skills, and have constructive discussions with their supervisor about how to improve their job performance.

Direct-level leaders must balance many demands, including work priorities, superiors, and developing their subordinates. The skills for developing others start as simply as having questions to ask, knowing how to ask challenging questions that are not perceived as criticism, and helping to motivate people to develop. Addressing the *Develops Others* need within the Army requires a multi-pronged approach – deliberate development of oneself and of others must become ingrained in the Army's culture. Senior leaders and senior raters can reinforce the importance of developing subordinates through the leadership example they set, the developmental behaviors they role model, and the questions they ask their key subordinate leaders. Subordinate development can be perceived by some as one more important thing to

do that competes with an already high workload. However, preparing subordinates for those future roles with increased responsibility and authority is just as important as meeting today's mission requirements.

What can be done. There is no simple substitute for leaders approaching performance counseling with a positive, developmental mindset, and doing it. Army resources exist on how to perform developmental counseling if leaders have not received counseling and do not know how to conduct it effectively. The Multi-source Assessment and Feedback (MSAF) program's Virtual Improvement Center (VIC) includes a library of counseling and coaching videos that provide leaders with a range of realistic examples of different productive counseling sessions (Center for Army Leadership, 2012). Examples vary in terms of scenario, temperament, and rank, so leaders can draw from a wide array of effective techniques to apply in different situations. An after action review (AAR) is provided at the conclusion of each video showing the leader the actions that contributed to their effectiveness during the counseling session. Counseling should be an effort performed jointly between the subordinate being counseled and the leader. Together they should identify what should and can be improved. Collaboration, as a central focus, can be the key to turning around the quality of counseling. MSAF and other tools, like the leadership assessment and review card (LARC, GTA 6-22.6), are available to collect and review ideas for a subordinate's strengths and developmental needs.

2.3 Civilian Education System (CES)

The Civilian Education System (CES) provides Army Civilians progressive, sequential leader development training and education at key positions throughout their careers. A graphical depiction of the Civilian Leader Development Program is presented in Figure 24. CASAL assesses CES and online courses associated with pay band equivalent GS-5 to GS-15.[25] The findings discussed in this chapter reflect ratings by civilian leaders (managers and first line supervisors) who completed a course between 2015 and 2016. Given the small size of participant samples for each course, results do not include trend comparisons by course over time. Trends for results at the aggregate level are noted where applicable.

Pay Band Equivalent					
GS-5/7/9	GS-11	GS-12	GS-13	GS-14	GS-15
NAF 1/2/3	NAF 4		NAF 5		

-- Leader development = training, education, experience

-- Civilian Education System (CES) is the underpinning of all leader development programs

-- Courses target employees at their GS grades or equivalent pay band

-- Aligned with DoD Competencies

-- Must meet intent of National Defense Authorization Act

Defense Senior Leader Development Program (DSLDP)

Senior Service College (SSC)

Continuing Education for Senior Leaders (CESL)

Advanced Course (AC) -- DL & Resident

DoD Executive Leadership Dev Program (DELDP)

Manager Development Course (MDC) -- DL

Intermediate Course (IC) -- DL & Resident

DoD Civilian Emerging Leader Program (DCELP)

Basic Course (BC) -- DL & Resident

Supervisor Development Course (SDC) -- DL

Action Officer Development Course (AODC) -- DL

Foundation Course (FC) -- DL f*or ALL New Army Civilians*

Communities of Practice Available at Each Level

● **CES Courses**   ● **Online Courses**   ● **DoD Leader Development Programs**

Figure 24. Overview of Army Civilian Leader Development

Sixty-three percent of the 2016 CASAL civilian leader sample (63% of managers, 62% of first line supervisors) report having attended a CES course in their career, including a small percentage that received constructive credit or a course waiver (about 7%). The balance of civilian managers and first line supervisors (37%) indicate they have not attended CES in their career.

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[25] The 2016 CASAL did not assess the Action Officer Development Course (AODC), the Supervisor Development Course (SDC), the Senior Service College (SSC), or the DoD Leader Development Programs.

Additionally, more than half of non-supervisory civilian employee respondents (55%) have not completed a CES course.

CES Course Experience

Civilian managers and first line supervisors who recently completed CES courses assessed their course experience, including the quality of the education received, the degree of challenge, and the instructors.[26] The quality of education received through CES continues to be viewed favorably by most civilian leaders who complete the courses. Three-fourths of civilian leaders rate the course quality as good or very good. Similarly, a majority of recent graduates of the (resident phase) Basic Course, Intermediate Course, Advanced Course, and Continuing Education for Senior Leaders agree that course instructors and faculty provided them with constructive feedback on their leadership capabilities.

76% of recent CES graduates rate the quality of the education received as good or very good.

The level of rigor and challenge continues to be an area for improvement for several CES courses. In comparison to other indicators, relatively smaller percentages of recent graduates rate their course as effective at challenging them to perform at a high level. Notably, results suggest this is more of an issue for courses completed entirely through DL (i.e., FC and MDC). Figure 25 presents the 2016 results by individual CES course.[27] Across CES courses, the current results for each of these course experience indicators show only subtle change in favorable levels since first assessed in 2012 (see Figure 26).

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[26] CASAL assesses the Manager Development Course (MDC) with the same items as the five CES courses.

[27] Course-level analyses included the following samples of civilian respondents by course: Foundation Course–77, Intermediate Course–78, Manager Development Course–139, and Advanced Course–111. Respondents completed these courses between 2015 and 2016. The 2016 CASAL did not receive an acceptable level of response (≥ 75) to report course-level results for the Basic Course or Continuing Education for Senior Leaders. The percentages for these two courses presented in this chapter are taken from results of the 2015 CASAL where acceptable levels of response were obtained: Basic Course–103 and Continuing Education for Senior Leaders–84. Respondents completed these courses between 2014 and 2015.
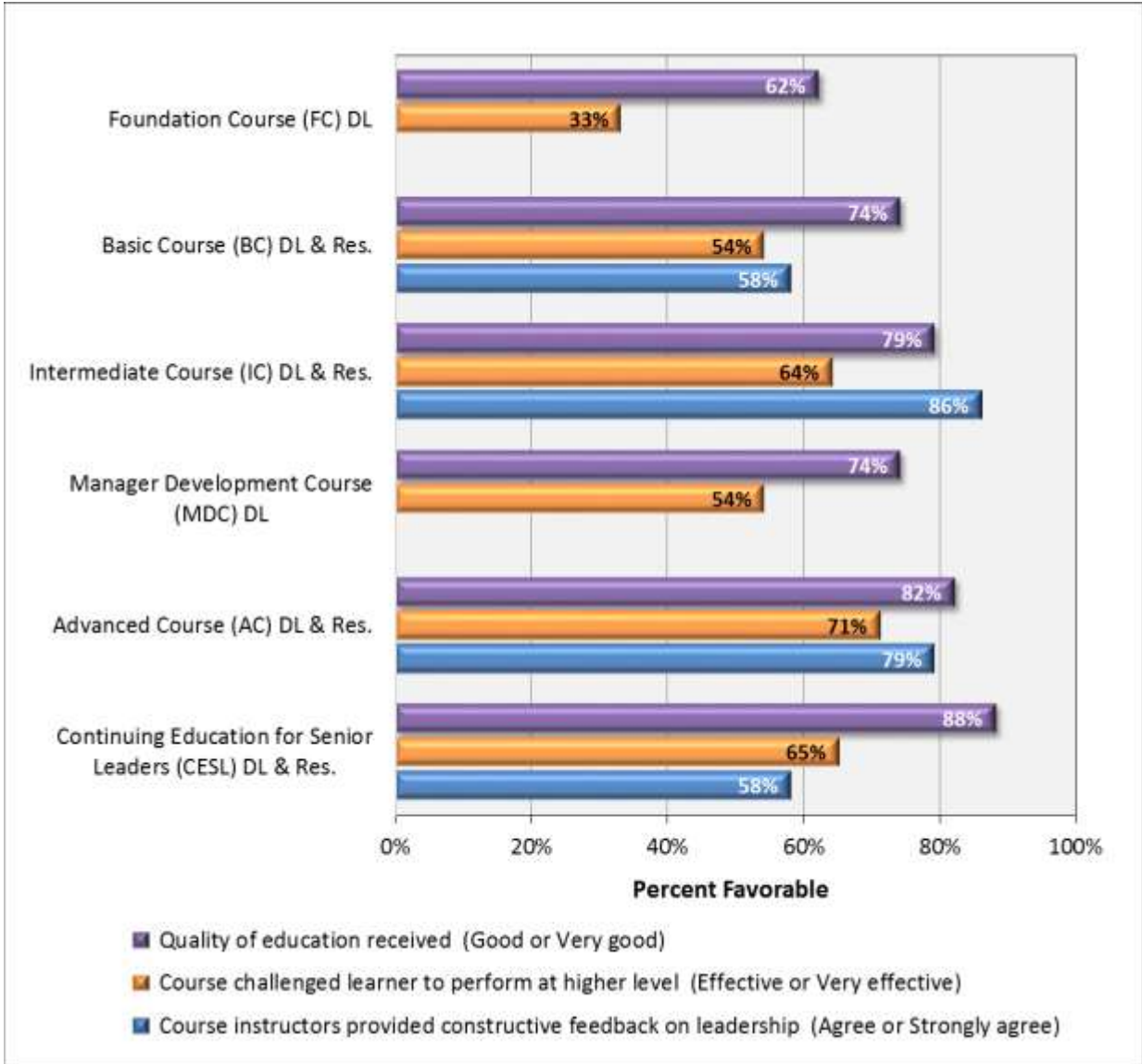
Figure 25. Ratings for the CES Course Experience by Recent Graduates (2015-2016)[28]

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[28] Figure 25 does not include results for respondent agreement that instructors provided leadership feedback for the Foundation Course and Manager Development Course. These courses are conducted entirely via DL.
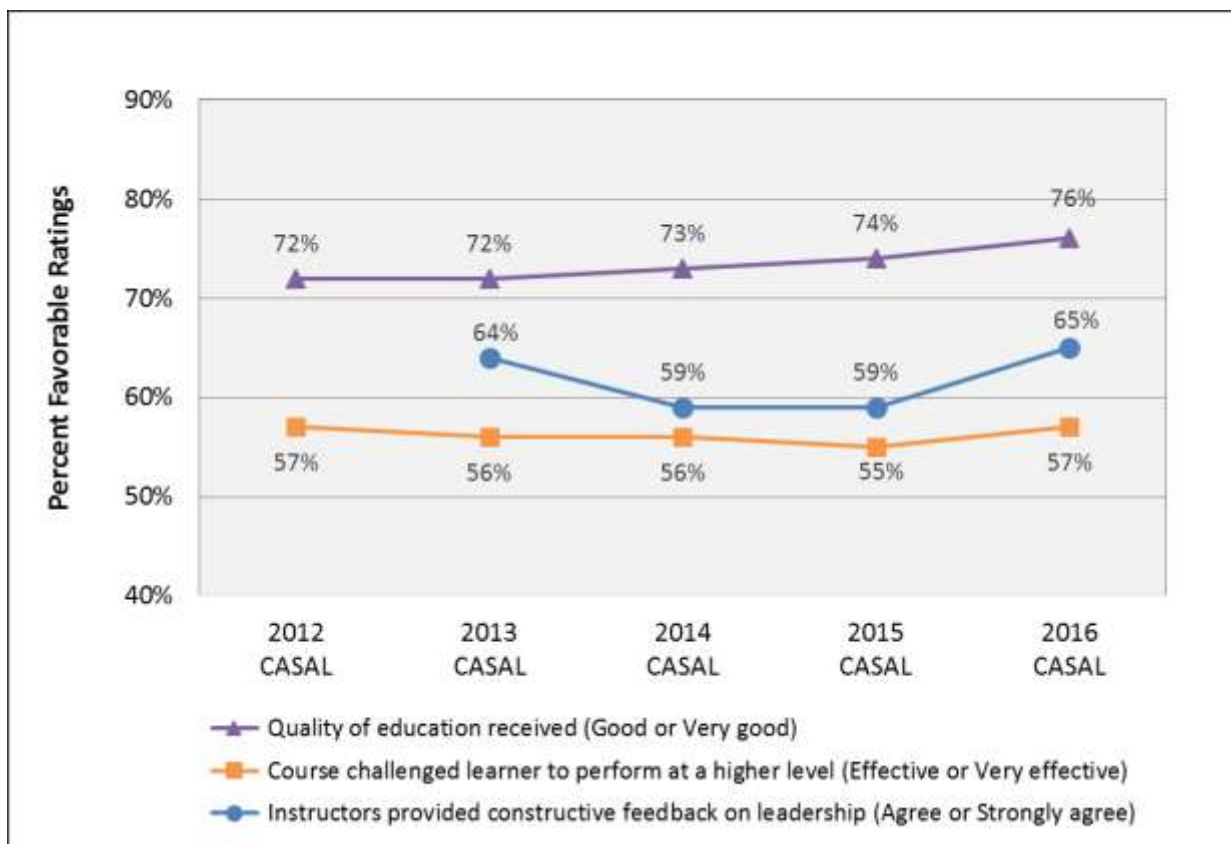
Figure 26. Trends for the Quality of CES across Courses (2012 to 2016)

Course Effectiveness in Educating Civilian Leaders

CES courses have specified learning objectives to enhance civilian skills in leadership, supervision, and management. Several topics and learning outcomes align with the core leader competencies described in ADRP 6-22 (2012d). For example, intended outcomes of each course, as described in AR 350-1 (2014a), include the following:

- The Basic Course includes content on leading small teams, communicating effectively, and developing, coaching, and counseling subordinates.

- The Intermediate Course aims to enhance learner abilities to lead people, manage resources, develop a cohesive organization, and increase civilian abilities to be flexible and resilient while accomplishing the mission.

- The Manager Development Course enhances civilian abilities to manage work and lead people by focusing on communication, problem-solving, and decision-making skills.

- The Advanced Course includes content on developing a positive culture and cohesive organization, creating high performing teams, and managing resources.

- Continuing Education for Senior Leaders provides an interactive environment in which senior leaders discuss current issues and relevant challenges facing civilian and uniformed leaders, and provides a continuing education program on specific topics.

There are common themes in the content areas across these courses, including development of the core leader competencies *Leads Others*, *Communicates*, *Creates a Positive Environment*, *Stewards the Profession*, *Develops Others*, and *Gets Results*, among others. A majority of recent graduates across the Basic Course, Intermediate Course, Manager Development Course, Advanced Course, and Continuing Education for Senior Leaders (53% to 67%) rate their course effective at improving their leadership capabilities. Across these CES courses, between 9% and 19% of respondents rate any individual course as ineffective at improving their leadership capabilities.

CES courses are rated moderately favorable in preparing learners to demonstrate a range of learning outcomes, including working with others on a team, dealing with unfamiliar situations, developing subordinates' leadership skills, influencing others, improving the organization, and solving complex problems (see Table 19). The Intermediate Course, Advanced Course, and Continuing Education for Senior Leaders are the most favorably rated courses across these indicators. Smaller percentages of recent Basic Course and graduates rate their course effective in several of these learning outcomes. The Manager Development Course, which is conducted entirely via distributed learning (DL), is not generally rated favorably at preparing recent graduates for this range of leadership skills (43% to 57%). Less favorable ratings for DL courses are an established pattern across CASAL administrations.

The Foundation Course, which is also conducted entirely via DL, is rated least favorably in preparing recent graduates for these learning outcomes. While not included in Table 19, favorable ratings for the Foundation Course across these areas range from 29% to 41% effective, which is considered very low. This DL course provides an introduction to the Army and orientation to being an Army Civilian, and is geared toward new civilians of any grade or leadership level. While this course includes leadership concepts such as team building, managing conflict, and effective communication skills, it is not generally viewed as effective for improving leadership capabilities.

Table 19. Ratings for CES Learning Outcomes

Course Effective or Very Effective at Preparing Civilian Leaders to…	CES Basic Course (BC) DL & Resident	CES Intermediate Course (IC) DL & Resident	Manager Development Course (MDC) DL	CES Advanced Course (AC) DL & Resident	Continuing Education for Senior Leaders (CESL) DL & Resident
Work with others on a team	**64%**	78%	**57%**	76%	77%
Deal with unfamiliar and uncertain situations	**54%**	69%	**49%**	75%	67%
Develop the leadership skills of subordinates	**57%**	78%	**57%**	70%	**56%**
Influence others in the unit/organization	**56%**	67%	**50%**	69%	67%
Improve the organization	**55%**	**64%**	**47%**	**61%**	67%
Solve complex problems	**49%**	68%	**43%**	71%	**58%**
Course effective/very effective at improving leadership capabilities	**53%**	67%	**56%**	67%	**67%**

Note. Percentages that are bolded and underlined represent areas within civilian courses that received effectiveness ratings below a threshold of 65%.

Course Value and Relevance

An objective of all Army education systems is to provide learners with the knowledge and skills that will help them to successfully perform their duties. CASAL results consistently show respondents have mixed attitudes regarding the usefulness and relevance of what CES courses offer learners, as well as learners' effectiveness in applying new knowledge and skills to their assigned duties. These are important attitudes to track, as positive reactions indicate learners feel courses are a benefit to their development and not a tax on their time.

It is a positive finding that most recent graduates of CES view their learning as useful to them to some degree (see Figure 27). However, learner attitudes tend to differ by course. A majority of senior-level civilian leaders who completed the Advanced Course or Continuing Education for Senior Leaders rate their learning as "of considerable use" or "extremely useful." Consistent

with other course quality indicators, the Foundation Course is assessed least favorably in terms of the usefulness of what is learned. Across courses, no more than one-fifth of recent CES graduates assess their learning experience as "not very useful" or "of no use" to them.

How would you rate the usefulness of what you learned?

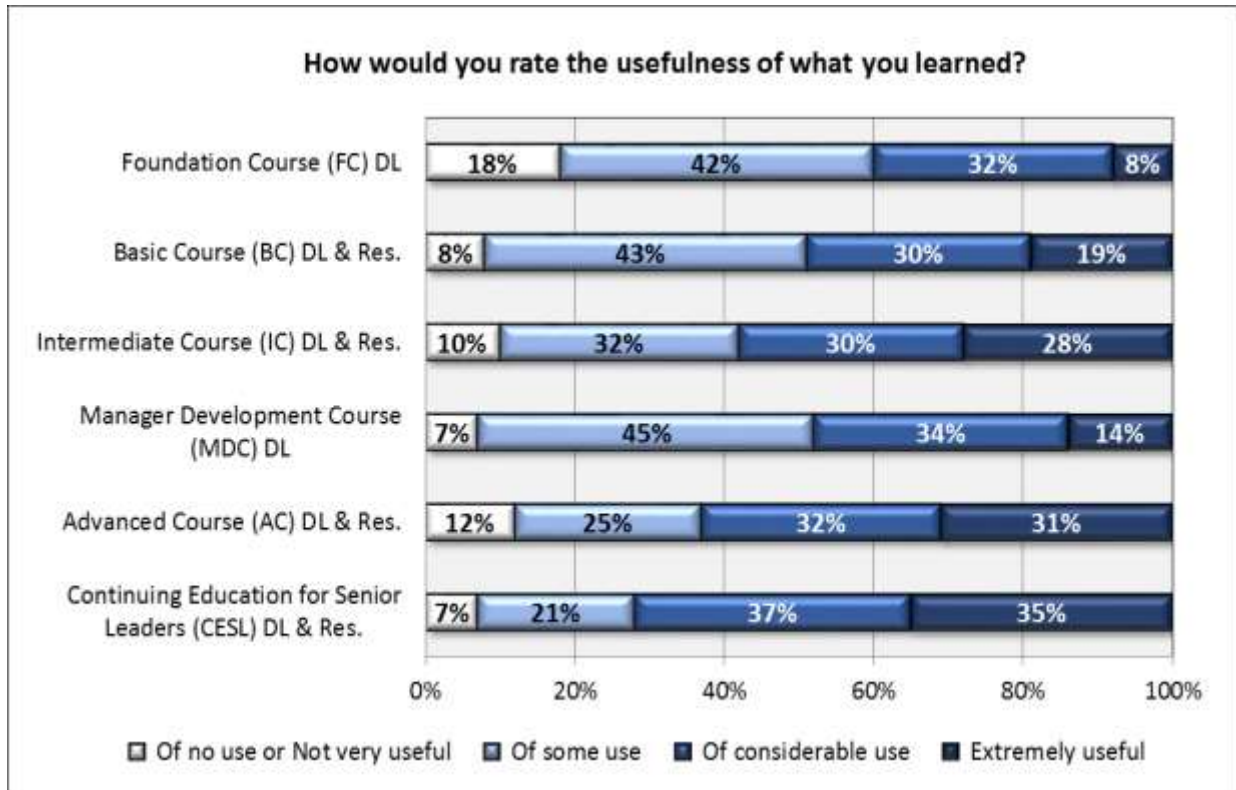| Course	Of no use or Not very useful	Of some use	Of considerable use	Extremely useful
Foundation Course (FC) DL	18%	42%	32%	8%
Basic Course (BC) DL & Res.	8%	43%	30%	19%
Intermediate Course (IC) DL & Res.	10%	32%	30%	28%
Manager Development Course (MDC) DL	7%	45%	34%	14%
Advanced Course (AC) DL & Res.	12%	25%	32%	31%
Continuing Education for Senior Leaders (CESL) DL & Res.	7%	21%	37%	35%

Figure 27. Recent Graduate Perceptions about the Usefulness of CES

Also positive is that a majority of recent CES graduates agree or strongly agree the course content was relevant to their current job (see Figure 28). This is a favorable indication that current CES content is designed to prepare learners for the requirements of their assigned duties (e.g., current issues, challenges, and opportunities). Again, across CES, the Foundation Course and Basic Course are assessed least favorably in this regard.
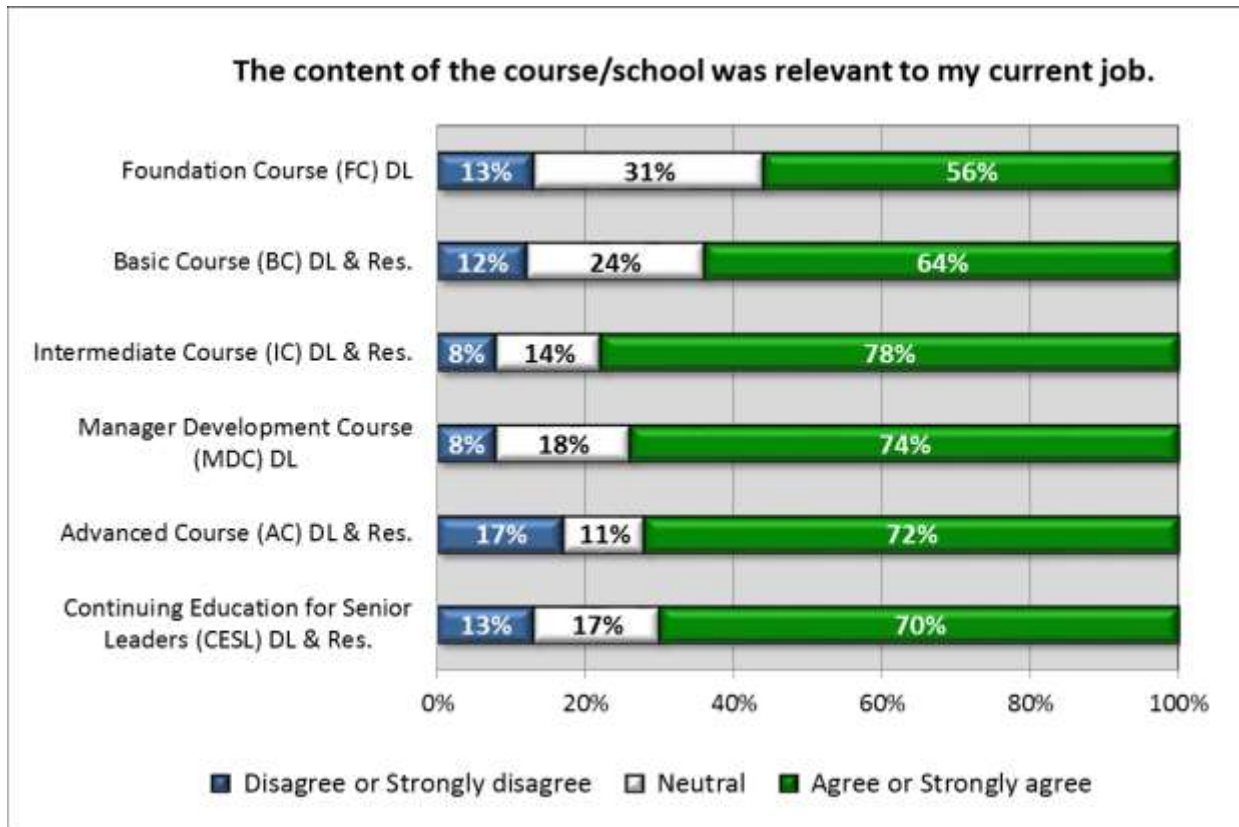
The content of the course/school was relevant to my current job.

Course	Disagree or Strongly disagree	Neutral	Agree or Strongly agree
Foundation Course (FC) DL	13%	31%	56%
Basic Course (BC) DL & Res.	12%	24%	64%
Intermediate Course (IC) DL & Res.	8%	14%	78%
Manager Development Course (MDC) DL	8%	18%	74%
Advanced Course (AC) DL & Res.	17%	11%	72%
Continuing Education for Senior Leaders (CESL) DL & Res.	13%	17%	70%

Figure 28. Ratings for CES Course Content Relevance

As an additional measure of the value of CES courses, respondents to the 2015 CASAL (Riley et al., 2016) were asked to assess how well their course experience met their expectations. Results indicated that CES courses meet or exceed the expectations of a majority of civilian leaders who attend (from 66% to 81% of respondents). However, findings tended to reflect the broader attitudes toward individual CES courses, namely that courses rated least favorably across course quality indicators also least often met learner expectations. About one-third of recent graduates of the Foundation Course (34%) and the Advanced Course (31%) indicated their course fell short or fell well short of their expectations. Similarly, about one-fourth of Basic Course (24%) and Manager Development Course (24%) graduates' expectations were not met. While the limited amount of data prevented results interpretation at the course level, the findings also provided reasons why CES courses in general fall short of civilian leader expectations. The most commonly cited reasons included the information was not new to the learner, the content was not relevant, or the course lacked rigor or challenge, had an insufficient emphasis on leadership skills, or had insufficient practical experiences or exercises.

Conclusions on Civilian Education System (CES)

A majority of civilian leaders who have CES experiences rate the courses as providing a good quality of education, though courses receive moderately favorable ratings regarding the effectiveness of instructors in providing leadership feedback and the degree of challenge posed by the course. Trend results indicate that attitudes toward these aspects of CES courses remain relatively stable since first assessed in 2012.

An intended outcome of CES is to provide civilian leaders with the attributes and competencies required to operate successfully in any environment (AR 350-1, 2014a). The Intermediate Course, Advanced Course, and Continuing Education for Senior Leaders are rated most favorably in terms of improving the leadership capabilities of civilian learners and preparing them to demonstrate a range of learning outcomes. The Basic Course and Manager Development Course receive less positive ratings with regard to preparing civilian leaders for leadership. It is important to note that developing leadership skills differs from acquiring functional area skills, declarative knowledge, or other learning that occurs in educational settings. Leaders develop skills that support their ability to lead through everything they are exposed to (e.g., opportunities during operational experiences, learning from examples of good and bad leadership, formal training and education). Leadership skill attainment can be difficult to trace back to a specific course module or individual event, as opposed to a series of training, education, and operational work experiences over time.

A potential gap observed in current and previous CASAL findings is that less than two-thirds of managers and first line supervisors surveyed have completed a current CES course at some point in their career. As a majority view CES courses as relevant and useful to their assigned duties, especially the higher level courses, there are both opportunities and benefits for increasing CES awareness and attendance among the Army Civilian cohort.

What can be done. To learn more about strengths and weaknesses of CES courses, a more comprehensive assessment of instruction should be directed. CASAL serves as one source of information, with limited reach, on CES course effectiveness in preparing civilian leaders. A coordinated effort to reach CES course graduates, as opposed to a random sample of the civilian population, would provide more robust data tailored to specific learning environments. The Army Management Staff College (AMSC) or Army University (Army U) could collect reactions from CES course graduates through a survey upon course completion (i.e., end of course questionnaire) and through two follow-ups at six-month intervals (i.e., six-month and twelve-month follow-up questionnaire). The focus of the surveys should be on general learning outcomes with additional emphasis on leadership improvement and impacts in their current

role as a leader. Ideally, course contributions to a civilian leader's development will be applied on the job and course graduates can assess this. Aggregate analysis work could be performed by CAL, AMSC, or Army U so that trends can be identified and tracked. The data could be used to ensure that the impact of CES on civilian leader development is maximized.

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Appendix: Summary of Statistical Analysis Methods

This appendix describes the range of statistical analyses conducted for CASAL to aid interpretation of results.

Descriptive Statistics

Scales Used

CASAL items use a variety of scales with response options that best fit the construct being measured. Percentages are reported throughout CASAL to indicate the proportion of respondents within a rank group that endorse each response option. Higher percentages (closer to 100%) indicate that more respondents within that rank chose that response to capture their opinions and perceptions. Lower percentages (closer to 0%) indicate that a response was chosen by fewer respondents and is less representative of the group's opinions and perceptions.

Most of the items in CASAL are assessed using a 5-point Likert scale consisting of two unfavorable responses, one neutral response, two favorable responses, and an option to select *No basis to assess*. For simplicity and ease of interpretation, the five response options are typically reported in three categories: unfavorable, neutral, and favorable (see Table 20).

Table 20. Five Point Likert Scale Response Options Used by CASAL

Type of Response	Unfavorable		Neutral	Favorable	
	1	2	3	4	5
Agreement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
Effectiveness	Very ineffective	Ineffective	Neither effective nor ineffective	Effective	Very effective
Satisfaction	Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very satisfied
Effect	Very negative effect	Negative effect	No effect	Positive effect	Very positive effect
Quality	Very poor	Poor	Neither good nor poor	Good	Very good

A selection of items in CASAL is assessed using response option scales that do not include a neutral midpoint, and must be interpreted differently than the scales listed above (see Table

21). For example, perceptions of "moderate trust" in units, the "moderate" impact of an activity on an individual's development as a leader, the "occasional" occurrence of a leader development method, and leadership that "meets expectations" can be interpreted as favorable rather than neutral results, depending on the context of the item.

Table 21. Additional Five Point Scale Response Options Used by CASAL

Type of Response	Smallest or Lowest		Non-neutral Midpoint	Largest or Highest	
	1	2	3	4	5
Level of Trust	Very low trust	Low trust	Moderate trust	High trust	Very high trust
Impact	Very little or no impact	Small impact	Moderate impact	Large impact	Great impact
Frequency	Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Frequently	Very frequently
Meeting Expectations	Falls well short of my expectations	Falls short of my expectations	Meets my expectations	Exceeds my expectations	Greatly exceeds my expectations
Frequency of Occurrence	Much too infrequent	Too infrequent	About right	Too frequent	Much too frequent
Usefulness	Of no use	Not very useful	Of some use	Of considerable use	Extremely useful

Index Scores

Index scores are a measure of the proportion of favorable responses across a set of items. The scores are calculated as the average of the unrounded percent positive of each item in a set of items, and range from 0 to 100. Index scores closer to 100 indicate that a greater proportion of respondents rated the item set favorably, whereas index scores closer to 0 indicate fewer favorable ratings. Index scores are easy to interpret and facilitate tracking trends over time. CASAL calculates and reports index scores for leadership effectiveness (i.e., respondent ratings of their immediate superior's effectiveness in demonstrating the competencies and attributes) and respondent engagement. Scores are reported for each rank group and at the overall component level.

Composite Scores

Composite scores refer to a single score based on an individual's responses to multiple survey items (Furr & Bacharach, 2008). On the CASAL survey, multiple survey items are created to measure one construct or characteristic. For example, engagement is measured by 10 survey items. Each individual survey item reflects a different aspect of the many components of engagement (e.g., involvement, satisfaction, enthusiasm for work).

To create a composite score, an individual's responses are summed and divided by the total number of items in order to calculate the mean (mathematical average). CASAL composite scores range from a minimum value of 1.0 to a maximum value of 5.0. For example, CASAL assesses engagement through 10 items assessed on a 5-point Likert scale. To create the engagement composite score for each respondent, the responses (1 to 5) for the 10 items are summed and divided by 10 to calculate the average. A score of 5.0 represents the highest possible composite score for engagement, while a score of 1.0 is the lowest possible composite score.

The use of a composite score tends to allow more valid and reliable measurement of a construct than a single item can offer. Multiple items contain more comprehensive information about a characteristic than does a single item (Furr & Bacharach, 2008). CASAL reports composite scores to represent respondents' ratings for their immediate superior's effectiveness in demonstrating leader competencies, leader attributes, trust-building behavior, the mission command philosophy, and counterproductive leadership, as well as respondents' personal level of engagement and perceptions of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) among members of their teams and immediate work groups.

Composite scores are used to describe levels of a given construct across groups of respondents as described above. They are also used to examine the relationship between the composite (e.g., engagement) and other items (e.g., 'My immediate supervisor is an effective leader.') or other composites (e.g., demonstration of organizational citizenship behaviors in teams) using statistical tests such as correlation or regression.

Reliability

Generally, reliability refers to consistency, accuracy, and/or reproducibility. The central type of reliability reported in survey research is internal consistency, which is a measure of the relationships or association between items within a composite. Items within a composite should be highly related or associated, as they should each be measuring one overarching characteristic or construct (Furr & Bacharach, 2008). Cronbach's alpha is an index of internal

consistency; a positive value that indicates the internal consistency of the composite items ranging from 0.00 to 1.00, with increasing values representing greater internal consistency. Guion (1998) specifies the generally accepted rules of thumb for interpreting values for internal consistency (i.e., alpha values; see Table 22).

Table 22. Practical Rules of Thumb for Interpreting Internal Consistency (Guion 1998)

Cronbach's Alpha	Interpretation of Internal Consistency
$\alpha \geq 0.90$	Very Strong
0.80 to 0.89	Strong
0.70 to 0.79	Acceptable
0.60 to 0.69	Questionable
$\alpha < 0.60$	Poor

CASAL reports Cronbach's alpha for all composite scores as an estimate of the internal consistency among the items within that composite.

Tests of Statistical Significance

Correlation

A correlation is a statistical technique that is used to indicate the strength and the direction of the relationship or association between two variables (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2007). Correlation coefficients are numbers that range from -1.00 to +1.00. Correlations closer to -1.00 or 1.00 indicate a stronger relationship; correlations closer to 0.00 are considered weak or negligible relationships. Positive values indicate a positive relationship (i.e., as values for one variable increase, the other variable also increases, and vice versa), and negative values indicate an inverse relationship (i.e., as values for one variable increase, the other decreases). Correlations do not indicate causality; it is not inferred and cannot be assumed that one variable causes the other.

CASAL reports correlations between survey items and composites that should be related, either based on psychological theory, previous research, or Army doctrine, in order to determine the strength and direction of the actual relationship. For example, CASAL reports correlations between respondents' assessment of engagement and assessments of their immediate superior's demonstration of the core leader competencies and attributes. This correlation is positive; when a respondent perceives their immediate superior effectively demonstrates core leader competencies, the respondent tends to report a favorable level of engagement. CASAL

also reports the correlation between respondent agreement that unit standards are upheld and respondent agreement that a discipline problem exists within the unit. The correlation between these items is negative, indicating an inverse relationship; respondents who agree unit standards are upheld tend to also disagree a discipline problem exists. Cohen (1992) specifies generally accepted rules of thumb for interpreting small, medium, and large correlation values (see Table 23).

Table 23. Practical Rules of Thumb for Interpreting Correlations (Cohen, 1992)

Correlation Coefficient	Interpretation of Correlation Value
0.70 to 1.0 (-0.70 to -1.0)	Very large positive (or negative) correlation
0.50 to 0.69 (-0.50 to 0.69)	Large positive (or negative) correlation
0.30 to 0.49 (-0.30 to 0.49)	Medium positive (or negative) correlation
0.10 to 0.29 (-0.30 to 0.50)	Small positive (or negative) correlation
0.00 to 0.09 (0.00 to -0.30)	Negligible or no correlation

Multiple Regression

Multiple regression is a statistical procedure used to estimate the relationship among multiple independent variables (predictors) and a dependent variable (outcome). Regression is similar to correlation in that it estimates the relationships between variables, but regression allows the exploration of several relationships at once (i.e., multiple independent variables), and is used to evaluate the magnitude of predictive relationships (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). CASAL analyses focus on two statistics that report results of multiple regressions:

- A statistic called a standardized **_beta_** weight represents the specific impact each predictor has on the outcome measure, accounting for the contribution of other predictors. Standardized beta weights are similar to correlation coefficients in that they range from -1.00 to +1.00, with the size of the weight indicating the extent of impact and the direction (+ or -) of the relationship. The larger the standardized beta weight, the larger the impact that scores for that predictor have on the outcome.

- A statistical measure called the coefficient of determination or R^2 indicates the goodness of fit of the regression line to the data observed. It is a positive number that ranges from 0.00 to 1.00 and can be interpreted as the percentage of variance of the outcome explained by all the predictors.

CASAL uses multiple regression to better understand relationships between variables, including how factors combine and how much they have in common with other variables. For example, a multiple regression can test the contribution of respondents' ratings of their immediate superior's demonstration of the competencies and attributes to explain perceptions of that superior's overall effectiveness as a leader. The results indicate that both competencies and attributes contribute to perceptions of leader effectiveness (i.e., competencies and attributes predict effectiveness) and that competencies have a stronger impact on those perceptions than do attributes.

Stepwise Regression

A stepwise multiple regression is an exploratory statistical approach to identify the strongest unique predictors within a set of predictors that explains significant variance in ratings for a particular outcome variable. First, the predictor which provides the largest, singular contribution to the explanation of the outcome is identified. Then, the next strongest contributing predictor from the remaining pool of predictors is identified, and the process is repeated until no remaining predictors explain a statistically significant portion of the variance of the outcome. Stepwise regression results should be interpreted with caution, as sample data, not scientific theory, guide the selection order of the predictors. Related to this, the order produced from the set of predictors may not be the same in other samples because trivial differences can lead to the selection of a predictor (Cohen et al., 2003).

Stepwise multiple regressions are conducted in CASAL to determine which combination of predictors explains the most variance of an outcome. Results from stepwise regression indicate the predictors that provide a significant contribution to explain variance in the outcome. Nonsignificant variables are not included in the final model.

CASAL uses stepwise regression to identify which predictors together explain the most variance in an outcome. For example, stepwise regression is used to identify which leadership behaviors together explain perceptions of effective leadership.

Effect Sizes

CASAL reports effect sizes as a numerical value that quantifies the size of the difference between two groups. Cohen's *d* is an effect size used to indicate the standardized difference between two means (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2007). Mathematically, Cohen's *d* is the difference between two means divided by the standard deviation of the data. A Cohen's *d* of 0.00 indicates no difference between the two groups (they have the same mean). The greater the Cohen's *d* value, the larger the standardized difference between the groups. Cohen (1988) specifies the generally accepted rules of thumb for interpreting Cohen's *d* values (see Table 24).

Table 24. Practical Rules of Thumb for Interpreting Cohen's *d* Values

Cohen's *d*	Interpretation of Effect Size
d ≥ 0.80	Large effect
0.50 to 0.79	Medium effect
0.20 to 0.49	Small effect
0.01 to 0.19	Very small effect
d = 0.00	No difference