LEADERSHIP: 2000 AND BEYOND
Second Edition

PREFACE

Cadets may study this second edition or the original 1993 edition to complete leadership laboratory requirements.

This two-volume text is used by CAP cadets to study the art of leadership. For details on how the leadership laboratory is implemented in the CAP Cadet Program, see CAPR 52-16, Cadet Program Management, available at www.cap.gov.

Nearly identical to its predecessor, the second edition maintains the fundamental goals and plan of the original 1993 edition. However, the editors have slightly modified the text by:

- Clarifying the learning objectives and revising the end-of-chapter study aids;
- Simplifying the text and focusing solely on leadership content, to include removing CAP policy guidance and promotion requirements best described in other directives;
- Updating the images depicting airpower pioneers and removing art that did not advance the text's educational goals;
- Organizing the chapters into two volumes instead of three (one volume for enlisted cadets and one for cadet officers);
- Keeping the narrative intact for the sake of consistency, except for editing the grammar and style in a few instances.

Most of the edits described above were needed because the cadet grade structure, promotion requirements, and CAP policy described in the 1993 edition have evolved since its publication. By focusing solely on leadership, the second edition does not reiterate perishable information already explained in other CAP publications.

Therefore, with no fundamental changes to the text's content, cadets may study either the first or second edition of Leadership: 2000 and Beyond. Their choice will have no adverse effect on their ability to pass achievement tests and milestone exams.

Leadership: 2000 and Beyond contains many valuable leadership insights. However, this second edition will also be its last. The next edition of the CAP cadet leadership text will be completely redesigned through a partnership with senior CAP leaders and cadet program experts, members of the USAF Air University faculty, and HQ CAP education managers. That text will continue to introduce cadets to Air Force leadership concepts.
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INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, you will learn principles of conflict management. Also, you will continue your study of the five functions of management, focusing on principles of organization. Finally, you will learn fundamentals of good writing.

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT

We have all seen conflict. It can range from quiet resentment, to yelling, to calling people names, to physical fighting. However, conflict does not have to be bad. How you manage it determines if it is good or bad. This section explains the three conflict situations, methods of handling them, and effectively resolving them.

Conflict Situations

Win-Win Situations. Win-win problem solving methods focus on ends or goals. Typically win-win situations are problem-solving and establish superordinate goals. The problem-solving strategy involves identifying the sources of conflict so that you can present them as a problem to be solved. A super-ordinate goal is a goal greater than your unit’s goals; it is a goal all involved units, or departments, strive for. They share an aim that cuts across conflict and cannot happen without cooperation. In a SAR mission, the super-ordinate goal, finding the missing people, is highly valued. Most individuals recognize that if this common purpose is to be achieved, they must act to reduce conflict between themselves. Thus, the starting ground of the conflict management process on a SAR mission is finding the missing people.

Win-Lose Situations. The typical exercise of authority shows the first win-lose situation. When you say, “Do what I say because I am the boss,” you are depending on legitimate power bestowed on you by the organization. This authority lets you reward or punish unit members. In a second and related approach, you use mental or physical power to force compliance an another individual or unit. For example, when you secretly or openly threaten to dismiss your NCO's and officers lose because the compliance was forced. The most important thing to remember about a win-lose situation is that the winner has not been able to see someone else’s side of the problem.

Lose-Lose Situations. In these situations, neither side really gets what it wants or each side only gets part of what it wants. Lose-lose methods assume half a loaf of bread is better than none, and avoiding conflict is better than confrontation.

Side Payments. In essence, when you offer a side payment you are saying, “I will bribe you to take a losing position.” Organizations use side payments a lot, and at great cost. For example, they pay people extra to do unpleasant tasks. In these cases both sides are partial losers.

EXPLAIN THE THREE CONFLICT SITUATIONS, METHODS OF HANDLING CONFLICTS, AND HOW TO EFFECTIVELY RESOLVE THEM.

A win-lose situation leaves resentment and can lead to conflict.

In your words tell why a win-lose situation is a lose-lose situation that is about to happen.

A lose-lose situation is justified only when you have to sever a relationship because of chronic problems, situations, or circumstances that are beyond your control. For example, the unit loses a senior member or cadet and the troubled person loses CAP but the situation requires that you minimize your losses.
Mediation. When you and another commander ask your common superior to resolve your conflict, you avoid confrontation and problem solving. You are “passing the buck” hoping the superior will solve the problem for you.

In summary, the methods discussed so far have several things in common:

- There is a clear we/they distinction between you and the other person, rather than a we-versus-the-problem orientation.
- You direct your energies toward the other person in an atmosphere of total victory or total defeat.
- Each of you see the issue only from your own point of view, rather than defining the problem in terms of mutual needs.
- The emphasis is on getting a solution, rather than on defining goals, values or motives.
- You take things too personally, rather than remain objective in the conflict, missing a focus on facts and issues.
- There is no difference between conflict-resolving activities and other group processes, nor is there a planned sequence of those activities.
- You both are conflict-oriented, emphasizing the immediate disagreement, rather than relationship-oriented emphasizing the long term effect of your differences and how to resolve them.

Methods of Handling Conflict

There are several ways to handle conflict. Choosing the best method depends on your management style, the maturity of your cadets, and the situational limits. Below are five approaches to managing conflict in units, with a brief discussion of their strengths and weaknesses.

Suppression and Smoothing. This conflict-reducing technique involves two processes. Here, you suppress the differences and focus on similarities in the arguments. This can be done by playing down sharp differences between points of view while seeking common points of agreement. This technique lasts for a short time; the differences probably will come up again.

Denial. This approach simply denies the conflict exists. It might be useful for a short time, but the conflict could get worse and become unmanageable.

The Use of Power. Our society often resolves conflict by giving the “majority” power, like in a national election. Although the “losers” in the election may be dissatisfied, they will usually support the outcome to some extent. Some managers will refer frequently to “the system” (something the “majority” agreed to) as the reason for their doing something you do not like.

Compromise. Many see compromise as a way of helping people resolve their differences. They often assume both sides give up something, but in the end, each comes out a relative winner. Actually, both sides work together, but neither really commits itself to the revised objectives. Bargaining can create dynamics that generate new conflict, which consume much time and energy.

Confrontation or Integration. Here, you and the opposition are encouraged to present your viewpoints in hopes that this will reduce your differences.
The underlying assumption is group effort will exceed the sum of the individual members’ contributions. Confrontation can prevent unwise, poor, and unacceptable resolutions. Its difficulty is it requires careful management so it does not create new problems.

**Setting Up Effective Conflict Resolution**

Participative management is the heart of the win-win approach; it depends on gaining your people’s agreement and commitment to objectives. When you use this approach, you are telling your people they need a solution that will achieve both their goals and their subordinates’ goals, in a mutually acceptable way they still want to control. This approach reaches an agreement without specifying its specific content.

To manage conflict effectively, identify each side’s goals. Write a mutually acceptable statement of these goals, or of the obstacles to those goals. In other words, you may have different goals, but each of you must accept the stated goals of the other. Then, consider the problem in the first place, use the following six guidelines:

- Analyze the problem to identify the basic issues.
- Avoid stating goals as personal priorities.
- State the problem as a goal or as an obstacle rather than as a solution.
- Identify obstacles to getting the goal.
- Depersonalize the problem.
- Identifying the problem, generating solutions, and evaluating solutions all should be separate processes from each other.

Earlier in this chapter you saw the need to separate defining the problem from searching for its solutions. As you can see now, problem solving and conflict management are interrelated. A problem can be a conflict, and a conflict can be thought of as a problem. As you grow in Civil Air Patrol and in your personal life, you will have many chances to use what you learned in this achievement. Your success may depend on how well you apply what you have learned.

**MANAGEMENT PRINCIPLES: ORGANIZING**

This is the second of the five management functions mentioned in Chapter 8.

**Principles**

Some of the basic principles underlying the structural organization of a unit are unity of command, span of control, logical assignment, and delegation of authority. When you understand, adapt, and apply these principles you can develop and maintain a sound command structure.

**Unity of Command.** This means only one person has control of, and bears responsibility for, the activity. When doing something, unity of command keeps responsibilities from overlapping with each other, thus preventing misunderstanding, friction, and confusion.

**Span of Control.** This is how many cadet NCO’s and officers you can effectively supervise. It depends on your physical and mental capabilities. The factors
are: the number of people assigned to the job, the time required by you, and the distance between the activities. Supervisors at the lowest organizational level usually have more people working for them than those at higher levels. This is because personnel at the lowest level usually are assigned tasks that are simpler.

Span of control is important because it determines whether an organizational structure will be a “flat” or “deep” one. That is, will there be few or many supervisory levels within the chain of command? The larger the organization, the narrower the span of control. The larger the organization, the deeper (more supervisory levels) there are between the commander and the person lowest in the organizational structure.

Logical Assignment. This sometimes is called homogeneous assignment or functional grouping. It means grouping related functions to improve operational efficiency. Experience, equipment, skills, and facilities are pooled and better used. To start grouping your resources by similar functions, put all functions that have a common purpose together.

Delegation of Authority. Delegation is the art of giving others the authority to make decisions to take action, and to give orders on your behalf. Why must you delegate authority? No one person can do everything necessary to achieve the unit’s objectives. Nor can any one person exercise all the authority to make all the decisions. Delegation provides for teamwork and for increased productivity. To gain a working knowledge of delegating authority, you should know and understand responsibility, authority, and accountability.

- **Responsibility** is the moral obligation that is assigned with the task. On a job everyone is responsible. Responsibility cannot be delegated, but it can be assigned.
- **Delegation of authority** gives a subordinate the right to make decisions, to take action, and to give orders.
- **Accountability** is your ability to answer your superior when asked how correctly or efficiently you are getting the job done.

### Three Types of Unit Organizational Structure

No one unit works completely in any one of these models presented below. It blends all three. In a line organization you, as the commander, have the most direct control. In the functional organization you have least control. In a line and staff organization your degree of control is somewhere between. You must decide which of these three styles best suits the unit, and make written policies supporting that style.

**Line.** The line organization is the oldest and simplest form of organizational structure. Its primary characteristic is the vertical line along which you lead subordinates. Each position along the line has general authority over lower positions. A direct chain of command links the top level to each lower level. Branching occurs whenever one supervisor has more than one subordinate. But, as shown in the figure on the next page, the supervisory lines proceed step-by-step without breakdown through the levels of the organization. No one outside of the unit is outside the lines that link top to bottom. This arrangement gives to each person undivided charge of certain assigned duties and a definite person to report to. Another important characteristic is all the units under the commander usually take part in accomplishing the primary objectives.
The line organization has both advantages and disadvantages. It is simple, makes a clear division of authority, encourages speedy action, and minimizes the straying from an established course. The line type of organization may be effectively used in smaller organizations.

However, it neglects the use of specialized assistance, requires too much executive concentration on minor details, and depends on the retention of a few key people.

**Line and Staff.** As organizations grow, increasing demands are placed on you for managerial and technical knowledge. When you can no longer be effective without specialized help, consider using the line and staff organizational structure.

In the line and staff organization, the line retains command and operating responsibilities. Your staff of specialists acts as your advisers on tasks that cut across the entire unit. As shown below, these staff agencies supplement the line by offering technical expertise. Staff authority is purely advisory, and the staff agencies have no authority to place their recommendations into action.

The line and staff structure enables specialists to give expert advice. It frees the commander of details, and it affords young specialists a means of training. Problems sometimes arise in the line and staff type of organization because sources of authority can be divided and contradictory. Staff members sometimes direct without following the chain of command. As a result, you can get confused about whom to follow, and this can lead to much bickering.
**Functional.** The functional organization helps you, as the commander, pass instructions down the chain of command to various line elements. This type of organization gives each staff agency responsibility for all actions relating to its particular function throughout the unit. When you want to delegate routine technical matters to the staff advisers, give them specific authority to issue directives throughout your unit on matters related to their specific staff function. For example, the public affairs officer, which under the pure staff structure could merely give advice to the commander, can now issue directives prescribing public affairs procedures within all of the operating departments. The figure below shows the relationships in an organization where staff elements are given functional authority.

The functional organization relieves you from having to make decisions that call for specialized knowledge. It lets you apply expert knowledge to the organization’s operations. However, it makes relationships within the organization more complex. A person could appear to have two “bosses”—the commander and the staff officer. Another problem is in coordinating staff activities so that there is no overlap of functions and no conflicting orders from different staff agencies relating to the same subject. A thin line sometimes separates what should be controlled by the staff officer and what should be controlled by you, the commander. There is also a thin line dividing one person’s staff duties from another person’s staff duties. When structuring an organization, establish procedures so that functional authority can be used without weakening the position of the commander. Also carefully refine the staff’s job descriptions to prevent possible overlap and confusion.

**FUNCTIONAL ORGANIZATION**

These organizations are more complex because while commanders retain authority over their units, specialized staff officers have a limited authority to issue technical directives, too.

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**Determining Procedures**

Supplement regulations and policies from higher headquarters with your own. Staff officers must supplement you in just enough detail so people can determine how to get the job done without conflicting with your procedures. Procedures are detailed guides describing the exact way to do a certain activity within the unit and are used at the lower level of organization. The relationship between policies is general statements or understandings that guide subordinates in making decisions.
An operation is the process of carrying out the procedures. At the heart of the operation, procedures direct its effort, they coordinate it in place and time, and they keep performance in line with objectives. Because the structure and procedures are closely related, develop them simultaneously to support each other. Your finished procedural blueprint should describe what will be done, when it will be done, and what resources will be used.

The Anatomy of Making and Implementing Decisions

Everyone makes decisions for many reasons. When you make decisions, you hope (often expect) that those decisions are right. Putting decisions into action is hard because it requires time to get those involved to learn about the decision, its purpose(s), the rationale for it, schedule, costs responsibilities and controls. If you need enthusiastic support, you must sell the decision. You must allocate and administer resources. Your challenge is to allocate available resources judiciously and phase them into assemblies that can accomplish the objectives of the organization. Finally you must follow through to maintain achievements to determine the real and final costs, give the team the benefits of lessons learned and goals accomplished, wrap up any loose ends and give a “well done” to all.

Many people think that when decisions are made or when solutions to problems are presented, that the decisions are right or wrong. But as we discussed above, that is too simple a thought for something that is very involved. There are five basic results that confront decision-makers and problem solvers. Best of all, of course, is to be right in the decision and all of the phases from implementation to follow through.

The next best thing is to be wrong. More than half of mankind’s progress has been made after several failures. For example, Thomas Edison finally got the light bulb to work after more than 10,000 failed attempts. It is okay to be wrong as long as you understand why you were wrong.

Next comes being dead wrong. Probably the only good thing about it is that wrong leaders (like Hitler, Stalin, Mao, Mussolini and Tojo) take their ideas down in flames with them. It clears the slate for someone else to have a fresh start.

Next is the null set, the process of making decisions by doing nothing. This lets the situation control you instead of the other way around.

Finally, worst of all is being technically correct but administratively wrong. Here you may, because of bad leadership and/or bad management, destroy a good idea, and yourself in the process.

EFFECTIVE WRITING

Remember, speaking and writing are similar in many ways. The same thinking processes and principles of organization lie behind both skills. There are, however, vital differences between a listener and a reader that require that each skill be treated separately. Of all communication media used, writing is the one used most often for official communication. To write effectively, express your ideas naturally, as in everyday conversation (but without the slang or incorrect grammar).

As a preface to this section, you will review punctuation. It is used to clarify the meaning of written language. Use punctuation marks only to make the thought clearer. Common punctuation marks and their uses are listed below.
Comma: This shows the smallest break in continuity of thought in an idea or sentence. It separates words that might otherwise be misunderstood, independent clauses, items in a series, and parallel adjectives.

Semi-colon: This indicates a sentence break greater than a comma but less than a period. It separates independent clauses not joined by coordinating conjunctions, sentence elements containing commas, or independent clauses joined by parenthetical expressions.

Colon: This puts strong emphasis on what follows. It is used before a series or list of items or between independent clauses when the second amplifies the first.

Dash: Use this to indicate a complete or sudden change of thought or to give emphasis to what follows or to what is enclosed by the dashes.

Parenthesis: Use these to enclose inserted material that is loosely connected with the main thought of the sentence. They set off material that you want to be considered incidental.

Quotation Marks: Use them to set off direct quotations, enclose some titles, to call attention to words, and to define or translate a word.

Apostrophe: This is used to show possession, mark omissions in contractions, and to form some plurals.

Period: The most common punctuation mark is the period. It is used as the ordinary end-stop mark of sentences, as a mark of abbreviation, and as a signal that something is being omitted from quoted passages.

Most writing is filled with numbers, dates and amounts. It is important you express these numbers in narrative form. Generally, spell out numbers less than 10 except in special cases, such as:

- When there are two or more numbers in the same category and one of them is 10 or larger, use figures for all the numbers in that category (i.e. 5, 10, 15, 20).
- Numbers used in conjunction with slogans, serious or dignified subjects are spelled out as in: The Ten Commandments.
- Fractions are generally spelled out if they stand alone or if they are followed by of, a, or an (i.e. half of an apple, I'll take ½).
- Spell out all ordinal numbers. Ordinal numbers indicate the order of things. First, Second, Third are examples of ordinal numbers.
- Use numerals when writing serial numbers, military unit designations, page and chapter numbers, sport scores, etc.

Organize Your Thoughts

Make Your Purpose Clear. Writing has a general purpose and a specific objective. Determine the general purpose. CAP writing has three general purposes: to direct, to inform (or ask questions), or to persuade. All three are concerned with who, what, when, where, why, and how. The emphasis on each differs according to the purpose. For example, a directive usually emphasizes what is to be done, informative writing stresses how something is to be done, and persuasive writing emphasizes why something should be done. Determine the specific objective. After determining your general purpose, ask yourself, “What is my specific objective?” You may find it helpful to write it out. Specific statements such as “My objective is to get $25,000 to expand hangar facilities.” will help clarify your specific purpose for writing.
Analyze Your Reader. Who will read it? Your answer will strongly affect your ideas and your words. For example, you would not express yourself in the same way when writing to a staff officer at HQ CAP as you would to CAP cadets. What is the educational; background of your reader? What is the reader’s scope of experience in the area you are writing about? What reaction do you want?

Define the Limits of Your Subject. The limits you place around your subject should depend on two things: your purpose in writing and the needs of your reader.

List Specific Ideas. Write down the ideas that have been popping in and out of your mind. Do not worry about their order. Put them down as they come to you. The important thing at this stage is not to lose an idea. Once you have assembled all your ideas on the subject, check them against your purpose and subject.

Group Specific Ideas Under Main Ideas. Your random list of specific ideas can be clustered around two or three broader ideas.

Organize Your Material

Once you have gotten enough facts and information for writing, organize the material and your own ideas about that material. This step is probably the most important phase of the writing process. Without good organization, grammar and style have far less impact.

Pick a Pattern. The most common patterns are topic, time, reason, problem solving, and space.

- The topic pattern. This is probably best if you are listing qualities, characteristics, or specifications.
- The time pattern. This is perhaps the most familiar pattern. It is useful whenever time of the sequence of events is important.
- The reason pattern. This might be your best choice if you wish to convince or persuade the reader.
- The problem-solution pattern. This is a variation of the reason pattern. It usually states the problem as a question. It discusses facts bearing on the problem, proposes and tests possible solutions, and recommends specific action. It is the basic pattern of the military staff study report.
- The space pattern. This is particularly useful when the information has to do with location. Some people call this the geography book approach.

Arranging the Patterns. Whether you use these patterns, or your own, use these principles of arrangement:

- Choose the one that will best communicate your ideas.
- Use inductive reasoning, a general conclusion that comes from a series of specific observations.
- Lead your reader from the familiar to the new.
- Lead your reader from the simple to the complex.
- Arrange your points in an order that gives maximum emphasis.
In typical writing, the end position has the greatest weight. Build your argument to a logical climax. Because the final position is the most important, it deserves your best material. However, in PAO writing of news releases the first position has the greatest weight; put your significant points first.

Outline Your Material

A good outline will help you in several ways. It will help you concentrate on one point at a time and will help keep you on course. An outline lets you write in spite of interruptions. You can write more quickly and more easily from an outline than without one.

Making such an outline is simple and easy. All you have to do is to use the main points you want to make as the framework for the outline. Then, fill in the framework with your supporting facts and ideas. Later, you will have the basis for a working outline that will make your writing noticeably easier.

Final Steps to Organizing

Once you fit your main and supporting points into your outline, you are ready for the final steps in organizing your material. These steps are: plan for transitions, plan your introduction and plan your conclusion.

Plan for Transitions. Transitions link successive ideas, and they relate individual ideas to your overall purpose.

The minor transition links two simple elements by using a word or phrase such as “then,” or “the next point.” The minor transition tells the reader that a new element is coming and something about the relationship of the old to the new. Minor transitions are not always absolutely essential, but they are helpful.

The major transition relates a new main point to the over-all purpose, or a sub-point to a main point. It also summarizes the last main point and sets the stage for the next point.

Plan Your Introduction. Introductions have three things in common: they capture and stimulate the reader’s interest, they focus the reader’s attention on the subject, and guide the reader into the subject. The introduction also establishes a common frame of reference between writer and reader, and usually includes the statement of purpose.

Plan Your Conclusion. An effective conclusion summarizes the content and closes the writing effectively by giving it a sense of completion or resolution. If the subject is complicated or long, you may want to summarize the major points.

Writing Your First Draft

Now that you have organized your material, you are ready to begin your first draft. The following ideas should help you write your first draft quickly and easily. Adapt and modify them to fit your needs.

Start. To eliminate the frustration of getting started, just start quickly and easily. Say to yourself, “I’ll just put down the words as fast as they come and worry about the grammar and polish later.”

Don’t Worry About the Introduction. Just make a start and keep going. You can always go back and change your introduction or add an introduction after you have written the main part or the body.

CHECKLIST FOR ORGANIZING YOUR WRITING

- Did you let your material and your purpose determine the organization you need?
- Have you divided your material into an introduction, body, and conclusion?
- Have you arranged the body of your material into a logical pattern?
- Does it best communicate your ideas?
- Does it emphasize the points you want to make?
- Have you outlined your material?
- Does your outline list all the main and supporting points you want to include when you start writing?
- Does it indicate where you need a transition to link the points to each other and to your purpose?
- Have you planned your introduction? What points do you want to cover in it?
- Have you planned your conclusion? Does it summarize or emphasize your main points? Does it require a recommendation?
Don’t Let Your Outline Slow You Down. A good working outline is more of a sketch than a blueprint; it gives your writing plan flexibility if better ideas occur as you write. Use it to help you as you write, but do not let it delay the creative flow of ideas or words.

Write One Part at a Time. For a long piece of writing, break your material into sections (the main points of your outline) and concentrate on only one section at a time.

Write as Much as Possible at One Time. Try to complete at least one of your major sections without interruption. If you do have to pause or have to stop, do it between paragraphs or between the larger sections of material. When you are ready to start writing again, reread what you have written.

Don’t Revise as You Write. This is a separate operation that will be done later, after you finish the first draft.

Use Scissors and Stapler or Tape. Some writers get discouraged half way through a page, crumble it and throw it away. Instead of rewriting the entire page or throwing away half-used sheets, cut out the usable parts and staple or tape them where they belong in the flow of your writing. If you are using a word processor, you are lucky!

Double-Space Your Draft. When writing your draft, quadruple-space between paragraphs and leave generous margins at the top, bottom, and sides of the paper. This “waste” of paper gives you plenty of room to write in changes without losing time.

How to Stop. One of the cardinal rules of good writing is to know when to stop. Check your first draft against your outline to tell if the introduction, the discussion, or the conclusion are too long. Recognize and eliminate nonessential points.

Ask yourself these questions: Does your draft include enough detail for your reader? Have you clearly explained and illustrated your generalization? Have you given your reader examples of what you mean? Are your examples relevant and interesting? Are they specific and concrete? Have you stopped when you have given your reader as much information as is needed? Is the introduction adequate but not too long? Is the body complete but not too detailed? Is the conclusion adequate but not too long?

DRILL AND CEREMONIES

In this chapter you will learn about three important aspects of drill and ceremonies. They are: Change of Command, Presentation of Decorations, and Retirement. As you progress through Civil Air Patrol you will be involved in one or all three either as a new cadet commander, recipient of decorations or after you become a senior member and retire. See AFMAN 36-2203 for particulars on these ceremonies.
REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Identify and describe each of the three conflict management situations.
2. Name and discuss three methods of handling conflict.
3. Discuss the reasons for organizing. How does it fit into the five functions of management?
4. Define the following terms: unity of command, span of control, logical assignment, and delegation of authority.
5. Identify and discuss the three types of unit organizational structures discussed in this chapter. What are the advantages and disadvantages of each?
6. Identify the precise function of each punctuation mark discussed in this chapter.
7. Describe the steps used to organize your thoughts when preparing to write.
8. Identify and describe three common patterns used in organizing an argumentative essay or paper.
9. Discuss the function of outlining in writing.
10. Identify the two main types of transitions in writing and the function of each.
THE WARRIOR by George Leonard
Reprinted by permission of Sterling Lord Literistic, Inc., from pp 64-71.

For many of us who are dedicated to peace, the very idea of the “good” warrior seems a contradiction. We are haunted by images of armed soldiers in a city square, of innocent people kidnapped, tortured, or made to “disappear.” The word “military” can conjure up the word “dictatorship.” The word “police” joins all too easily with “state.” In this violent and dangerous world, only the most fevered idealist would dispense entirely with soldiers and policemen. If we’re going to have people to whom we give the job of risking their own lives and, if necessary, taking the lives of others, how are we to deal with them? How are we to think about them? And, beyond that, is there some way that the warrior spirit at its best and highest can contribute to a lasting peace and to the quality of our individual lives during the time of peace?

Jack Cirie went to Yale in the early 1960’s. He was an All-Ivy League football defensive-back and Yale’s Most Valuable Player in his Junior year. He majored in Latin-American studies, and considered joining the Peace Corps. Most of his friends were going to law school or into their fathers’ businesses. “I decided that what I wanted was a military experience, and for me that meant going to war. I wanted to be in a position where everything was at risk, where you get a chance to see inside yourself.”

Cirie got what he asked for. Early in 1965, after six months of Marine officers school, he arrived at Phu Bai, near Hue in North Vietnam. It was just one day after the first contingent of US Marines landed. His first major test as a leader came just before the summer monsoon season. They got to the Vietnamese graveyard at midnight, exactly as planned. The graveyard overlooked a road that the Viet Cong (VC) used when getting rice from a nearby village. It was a perfect spot for an ambush, and as Cirie positioned the twenty-four men so that they were in a line parallel to the road, he said to himself that everything was going like clockwork; nothing could to wrong.

Now the men were sitting or squatting, their weapons trained on the killing zone along the road. He was just three feet from the last man in the line, a machine gunner, just making out the man’s dark outline, just reaching out to touch his shoulder, when the inexplicable happened. The machine gunner jumped to his feet in terror, and, almost at the same instant, Cirie found himself looking straight into the bright-orange muzzle flashes of AK-47 automatic rifles, less than six feet away.

They figured it all out later and realized the odds for its happening that way were about a million to one. A group of Viet Cong had picked the same spot for an ambush, and had moved in only minutes after the Marines. The first VC had probably bumped into the machine gunner in the darkness, then had raised his gun and fired. At that instant, without thought, Cirie dropped to the ground and started firing his pistol in the direction of the muzzle flashes. His men also began firing, but most of them, not knowing what had happened, were aiming at the road, not at the Viet Cong. The machine gunner lay dying a few feet away. Bullets were a void of darkness lit only by muzzle flashes, he was briefly tempted to do nothing
more, to indulge in the luxury of incomprehension. But he rose to his feet amazed at how calm he felt. His overriding sensation was one of relief, at last he was getting a chance to do what he, as a leader, was supposed to do. He began moving among his men, telling them to watch the flanks, to stay calm. He ordered flares shot up to light the scene. And all the time he was doing this, he was strangely, marvelously detached, almost as if he were out of his body. The Marines stayed there until it started getting light, then returned to their base camp. The Viet Cong had withdrawn, leaving a trail of blood, but none of their dead or wounded.

The episode in the graveyard sealed Cirie’s unspoken compact with his men. What they had learned to expect from a leader had been fulfilled. Is this, then, what it is to be a warrior—to test yourself under fire and pass the test?

The warrior’s code achieved a particularly vivid realization in Japan between 1603 and 1687. It was then, during the largely peaceful Tokugawa shogunate, that Bushido, “the way of the warrior,” came into full flower. Under Bushido, the Japanese samurai spent long hours in the mastery of his martial skills, but also was expected to practice such things as tea ceremony, sumi painting, and the composition of poetry; lifelong training and self-development was a central element as it is in other warrior codes. In matters of loyalty, honor, veracity, and justice or rectitude, the code was demanding and unyielding. Courage for the samurai meant an integration of physical and moral bravery, based on serenity in moments of danger. Martial ferocity was tempered by an exquisite sense of courtesy, which led to harmony of mind and body, and benevolence, which was seen as a composite of magnanimity, affection, love, and compassion.

He might not strike you at first as a warrior. Donald Levine is, in fact, a professor of sociology and dean of the College at the University of Chicago. He’s also a dedicated martial artist. I had wanted to meet him ever since reading a short version of his article, “The Liberal Arts and the Martial Arts,” in The New York Times and the complete article in the journal Liberal Education. Levine’s article, I thought, went a long way toward clarifying the role of the warrior in a free society. In it, he defines the liberal arts as including all education that is undertaken for self-development. All learning that exists essentially for its own sake rather than for some utilitarian purpose. Liberal education, according to Levine, first emerged in two unique cultures, those of classical Greece and China. In both of those cultures, such education was considered the highest human activity. And, though it might seem strange in light of today’s academic climate, it included the cultivation of combat skills as well as intellectual skills. In both the East and the West, in other words, the martial arts and the liberal arts arose together, and were equally revered. In the centuries that followed, this ideal was often lost. Both the arts of combat and the education of the intellect were at times corrupted and put to narrow, and exploitative uses.

After reading his article, I arranged a meeting with Levine. Do the martial arts have anything significant to offer late-twentieth-century America? “Yes,” Levine said, “I can see this as a time when the body and mind are being reunified, a time when the liberal arts can learn a great deal from the martial arts. This is true, of course, only when the martial arts are practiced primarily for mastery of their intrinsically beautiful forms and for self-development rather than primarily for self-defense or for the brutal sensationalism you see in the movies. And arts like Aikido, which tie ethical vision right into daily practice, are just what this country needs. Remember what the founder said: the point of Aikido training is to create persons...
who evince ‘a spirit of loving protection for all beings, who bind the world together in peace and unity.’ The heart of this way of life is practice itself, the regular, systematic, unremitting practice of the dedicated martial artist. And then there is a progression of learning common to the martial arts that leads to the transcendence of mere technique. “One begins by self-consciously practicing a certain technique,” Levine had written in his article. “One proceeds slowly, deliberately, reflectively, but one keeps on practicing, until the technique becomes internalized, one begins to grasp the principles behind them. And finally, when one has understood and internalized the basic principles, one no longer responds mechanically to a given attack, but begins to use the art creatively and in a manner whereby one’s individual style and insights can find expression.” A fine want of learning for the scholar – and for the warrior.

“Do you consider yourself a warrior?” I asked.

More and more. It means being ready to die on a moment’s notice. And not worry about encumbrances, such as academic honors or worldly ambitions. I couldn’t have survived, let alone done as well as I have in this job, without my martial arts practice. It’s the kind of job that can grind you to a pulp. My predecessors had a hard time finishing their terms. It’s a man-killing job. Two months after I became dean, I had to go to the hospital, suffering from stress. At that point, I said to myself, “Look, you are not going to let this happen to you.” So I took control of my life. I was a chain pipe smoker, I threw all my pipes away. I began practicing more regularly. I began treating my job in an Aikido way. I realized that my whole life was randori [under attack simultaneously by several people], so I handled it like randori. I stayed centered and calm under pressure. I kept my integrity. I remembered that, for both Plato and Aristotle, the list of most important virtues starts with courage and ends with philosophic wisdom, with prudence and justice in between. I guess you could say that, as best I could, I’ve lived as a warrior. And it has worked for me.

Green Berets, members of the US Army Special Forces, had volunteered for an experimental six-month course in advanced mind-body training. Most of them had gone through Army Ranger training. The experimental training program, designed to add a psychophysical component to an already rigorous schedule of military training, included daily Aikido training aimed at integrating the physical and the mental.

The men ranged in age from twenty-two to forty-one, and in rank from buck sergeant to captain. But age and rank held little significance as they kneeled at the edge of the mat. As the men paired off and took turns attacking each other, I moved from one to the other, making suggestions, providing individual demonstrations. It was quickly apparent that these elite troopers were expert learners. The peacetime military is primarily a gigantic educational institution and most military men today spend most of their time learning new skills and honing those they already know. I could spot a certain amount of kidding around, and anything that wasn’t fully understood was quickly challenged. But these were students any teacher would love to teach. They were fiercely attentive. They worked hard. They were willing to try anything. They were exceptionally eager to master each technique.

At the same time, these soldiers exhibited a sense of courtesy and respect in their relationship with me that seemed neither forced nor pro forma. And, though I knew they were superb fighting men, I saw in them none of the gratuitous brutality that marks the cinematic version of the Special Forces trooper. Those few who
do show those marks should start carrying their “ruck.” The ruck, or rucksack, is
the symbolic and literal mark of the real Green Beret. Unless you’ve paid your dues
by humping a hundred or so kilometers with eighty or ninety pounds in your ruck,
you’re just a Hollywood warrior.

Self-mastery, according to the Special Forces men, is a warrior’s central mostly
action. He is always practicing, always seeking to hone his skills, so as to become
the best possible instrument for accomplishing his mission. The warrior takes
calculated risks and tests himself—a religion, a cause. He does not worship
violence but is at home with it. He is human, not a robot. He may snivel (their
word for complain), but he is not a victim. One top sergeant, who had been in
Vietnam, said, “We’re all acolyte warriors until we’ve been tested in combat.” But
others felt that the warrior could exist even outside of the military.

What most struck me was the importance these elite soldiers placed on
service and protection. Again and again this subject came up in our conversations,
not only as a warrior ideal, but also as a compelling justification for their way of life
itself. “These guys,” Heckler said to me in a crowded restaurant, “genuinely feel
they’re protecting everybody in this room.”

And what about war itself? In his seminal book The Warriors philosopher J.
Glenn Gray, a World War II combat veteran, writes, “No human power could
atone for the injustice, suffering, and degradation of spirit of a single day of
warfare.” At the same time, he reminds us of war’s terrible and enduring appeal: the
opportunity to yield to destructive impulses, to sacrifice for others, to live vividly
in the moment. The appeal of war is not a popular subject, but until we deal with it
openly and undogmatically we may never find a warrior’s path toward peace.

I’ve come to believe that Gray is right. The problem is not that war is so often
vivid, but that peace is so often drab. But the end of war—can we imagine it?—
might require something more fundamental: the creation of a peace that is not only
just, but also vivid. The work of creating a more vivid peace must address the
problem of our spiritual emptiness and inner hunger. It might well require that we
relinquish some of our currently fashionable cynicism and give more energy, as
Gray suggests, to values that could be called moral and spiritual. But there’s
something else: We need passion. We need challenge and risk. We need to be
pushed to our limits. And I believe this is just what happens when we accept a
warrior’s code, when we try to live each moment as a warrior, whether in educa-
tion, job, marriage, child rearing, or recreation. The truth is that we don’t have to
go to combat to go to war. Life is fired at us like a bullet, and there is no escaping it
short of death. All escape attempts—drugs, aimless travel, the distractions of the
media, empty material pursuits—are sure to fall in the long run, as more and more
of us are beginning to learn.
Perhaps no name is as symbolic of aerospace achievement as Amelia Earhart. When you say female aviator, the first name that comes to mind is Amelia Earhart! Born in Atchison, Kansas, July 24, 1898, she attended Hyde Park High School in Chicago, Ogontz School for Girls in Rydal, Pa., and Columbia University in New York to prepare her for a career in Medicine and Social Science. She served during World War I as a military nurse in Canada where she developed an interest in flying. She pursued this interest in California, receiving her pilot’s license in 1922. Though she continued her association with aviation by entering numerous flying meets, she spent several years as a teacher and social worker at Dennison House, in Boston.

Amelia Earhart gained considerable fame June 17-18, 1928, as the first woman to cross the Atlantic by air. She felt this fame somewhat unjustified as she had only been a “passenger” on a Fokker trimotor piloted by Wilman Stutz and Louis Gordon from Trepassy Bay, Newfoundland, to Burry Port, Wales. In 1929 Earhart co-founded the “ninety-nines,” an international organization of women pilots, which continues today to promote opportunities for women in aviation, and served from 1930 to 1932 as its first president.

Amelia Earhart was one of the first women in aviation to juggle a public and a private life. Her 1931 marriage to publisher George Putnam did not prevent her from setting an autogiro altitude record. The following year she reaccomplished the Atlantic flight which brought her fame, this time as the solo pilot flying from Harbour Grace, Newfoundland, to Londonderry, Ireland, a first for a woman. At a time when women were extremely rare in technical and scientific areas, Amelia Earhart distinguished herself by setting records which bettered men’s records as well as women’s.

She became active in the movement that encouraged the development of commercial aviation. Amelia Earhart took an active role in efforts to open the field of aviation to women and end male dominance in this exiting new field. She served as an officer of the Luddington Line, which provided one of the first regular passenger services between New York and Washington, D.C. In January 1935 she outdid her Atlantic solo by making a solo flight from Hawaii to California, a much longer distance than the Canada-England flight. She became the first pilot to successfully fly that route. Her numerous accomplishments earned her the Distinguished Flying Cross, the first woman so designated by the United States Congress.

Always pushing the envelope, Amelia Earhart set out in June 1937 to circumnavigate the world. Accompanied by Fred Noonan, her navigator, Amelia Earhart flew her twin engine Lockheed Electra into one of the greatest unsolved mysteries of this century. On the most difficult leg of the trip, Earhart and Noonan vanished near Howland Island in the Pacific. Intense searching by both American and Japanese forces found do trace of Amelia Earhart, Fred Noonan, or their plane and fueled speculation as to the real reason for such a dangerous flight. Many argued that the flight was a reconnaissance flight to gather data on Japan prior to the United States entry into World War II. Many others, especially in the aviation community, held fast that Amelia Earhart was driven by her passion for flying.

Though few facts are known about the July 2, 1937 disappearance in the central Pacific near the International Date Line, one thing is certain: Amelia Earhart made a unique and timeless contributions to aviation and to women in aviation which will go unparalleled for decades to come.