

REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE			Form Approved OMB No. 0704-0188	
Public reporting burden for this collection of information is estimated to average 1 hour per response, including the time for reviewing instructions, searching existing data sources, gathering and maintaining the data needed, and completing and reviewing the collection of information. Send comments regarding this burden estimate or any other aspect of this collection of information, including suggestions for reducing this burden, to Washington Headquarters Services, Directorate for Information Operations and Reports, 1215 Jefferson Davis Highway, Suite 1204, Arlington, VA 22202-4302, and to the Office of Management and Budget, Paperwork Reduction Project (0704-0188), Washington, DC 20503.				
1. AGENCY USE ONLY (Leave blank)	2. REPORT DATE	3. REPORT TYPE AND DATES COVERED SSC Fellow Research Paper		
4. TITLE AND SUBTITLE Leadership Approaches and Theories with Special Reference to Military (Army) Fundamental Leadership			5. FUNDING NUMBERS	
6. AUTHOR(S) Camplin, Jan M., LTC, USARNG				
7. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES) U.S. Army War College Root Hall, Bldg 122 Carlisle Barracks Carlisle, PA 17013-5050			8. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION REPORT NUMBER	
9. SPONSORING / MONITORING AGENCY NAME(S) AND ADDRESS(ES) Tufts University The Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy Medford, MA 02155			10. SPONSORING / MONITORING AGENCY REPORT NUMBER	
11. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES			19960722 031	
12a. DISTRIBUTION / AVAILABILITY STATEMENT Approved for public release: Distribution is unlimited			12b. DISTRIBUTION CODE	
13. ABSTRACT (Maximum 200 words) This paper will investigate the relatively recent formal study of leadership. It will define leadership, its importance, leadership approaches/theories, and then explore the idiosyncrasies and nuances of military (Army) leadership. As researchers have become more proficient in the study of leadership, new definitions of leadership versus management have been introduced, and new approaches to understanding leadership have been adopted. Major theories regarding leadership have been developed, with additional research uncovering often significant deficiencies in the theories. Nonetheless, civilian and military professionals are eager to learn how to become successful leaders themselves, and how to nurture those leaders who are present in their organizations.				
14. SUBJECT TERMS			15. NUMBER OF PAGES	
			16. PRICE CODE	
17. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF REPORT Unclassified	18. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF THIS PAGE Unclassified	19. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF ABSTRACT Unclassified	20. LIMITATION OF ABSTRACT UL	

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS FOR COMPLETING SF 298

The Report Documentation Page (RDP) is used in announcing and cataloging reports. It is important that this information be consistent with the rest of the report, particularly the cover and title page. Instructions for filling in each block of the form follow. It is important to *stay within the lines* to meet *optical scanning requirements*.

Block 1. Agency Use Only (Leave blank).

Block 2. Report Date. Full publication date including day, month, and year, if available (e.g. 1 Jan 88). Must cite at least the year.

Block 3. Type of Report and Dates Covered. State whether report is interim, final, etc. If applicable, enter inclusive report dates (e.g. 10 Jun 87 - 30 Jun 88).

Block 4. Title and Subtitle. A title is taken from the part of the report that provides the most meaningful and complete information. When a report is prepared in more than one volume, repeat the primary title, add volume number, and include subtitle for the specific volume. On classified documents enter the title classification in parentheses.

Block 5. Funding Numbers. To include contract and grant numbers; may include program element number(s), project number(s), task number(s), and work unit number(s). Use the following labels:

C - Contract	PR - Project
G - Grant	TA - Task
PE - Program Element	WU - Work Unit Accession No.

Block 6. Author(s). Name(s) of person(s) responsible for writing the report, performing the research, or credited with the content of the report. If editor or compiler, this should follow the name(s).

Block 7. Performing Organization Name(s) and Address(es). Self-explanatory.

Block 8. Performing Organization Report Number. Enter the unique alphanumeric report number(s) assigned by the organization performing the report.

Block 9. Sponsoring/Monitoring Agency Name(s) and Address(es). Self-explanatory.

Block 10. Sponsoring/Monitoring Agency Report Number. (If known)

Block 11. Supplementary Notes. Enter information not included elsewhere such as: Prepared in cooperation with...; Trans. of...; To be published in.... When a report is revised, include a statement whether the new report supersedes or supplements the older report.

Block 12a. Distribution/Availability Statement. Denotes public availability or limitations. Cite any availability to the public. Enter additional limitations or special markings in all capitals (e.g. NOFORN, REL, ITAR).

DOD - See DoDD 5230.24, "Distribution Statements on Technical Documents."
DOE - See authorities.
NASA - See Handbook NHB 2200.2.
NTIS - Leave blank.

Block 12b. Distribution Code.

DOD - Leave blank.
DOE - Enter DOE distribution categories from the Standard Distribution for Unclassified Scientific and Technical Reports.
NASA - Leave blank.
NTIS - Leave blank.

Block 13. Abstract. Include a brief (*Maximum 200 words*) factual summary of the most significant information contained in the report.

Block 14. Subject Terms. Keywords or phrases identifying major subjects in the report.

Block 15. Number of Pages. Enter the total number of pages.

Block 16. Price Code. Enter appropriate price code (*NTIS only*).

Blocks 17. - 19. Security Classifications. Self-explanatory. Enter U.S. Security Classification in accordance with U.S. Security Regulations (i.e., UNCLASSIFIED). If form contains classified information, stamp classification on the top and bottom of the page.

Block 20. Limitation of Abstract. This block must be completed to assign a limitation to the abstract. Enter either UL (unlimited) or SAR (same as report). An entry in this block is necessary if the abstract is to be limited. If blank, the abstract is assumed to be unlimited.

UNCLASSIFIED

USAWC STRATEGY RESEARCH PROJECT

The views expressed in this paper are those of the author and do not necessarily reflect the views of the Department of Defense or any of its agencies. This document may not be released for open publication until it has been cleared by the appropriate military service or government agency.

LEADERSHIP APPROACHES AND THEORIES WITH SPECIAL
REFERENCE TO MILITARY (ARMY) FUNDAMENTAL LEADERSHIP

by

Lieutenant Colonel Jan M. Camplin
Doctor of Business Administration

DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT A: Approved for public release. Distribution is unlimited.

U.S. Army War College
Carlisle Barracks, Pennsylvania 17013
The Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy, Tufts University
Medford, Massachusetts 02155

Leadership Approaches and Theories with Special
Reference to Military (Army) Fundamental Leadership

	Page
Executive Summary	(iii)
Introduction	1
Definition of Leadership	2
Leadership Versus Management	4
The Importance of Leadership	4
Qualities of Leadership	7
Approaches to Leadership	8
A. Power-Influence Approach	8
B. Behavior Approach	9
C. Trait Approach	9
D. Situational Approach	10
Leadership Theories	11
A. Path-Goal Theory	11
B. Situational Leadership Theory	11
C. Leader Substitutes Theory	12
D. Normative Decision Theory	12

E.	LMX Theory	13
F.	Cognitive Resources Theory	14
G.	Multiple Linkage Model	15
H.	Leader-Environment-Follower-Interaction Theory	17
I.	Transformational and Charismatic Leadership	18
J.	House's Charismatic Leadership Theory	19
K.	Conger and Kanungo Charismatic Theory	20
L.	Burns' Theory of Transformational Leadership	21
M.	Bass' Theory of Transformational Leadership	22
N.	Transactional Versus Transformational Leadership	23
O.	Leadership in Japanese Organizations	24
Principles of Military (Army) Leadership		26
Essentials for Military (Army) Leadership		33
Summary		51
References		55

Executive Summary

This paper will investigate the relatively recent formal study of leadership. It will define leadership, its importance, leadership approaches/theories, and then explore the idiosyncracies and nuances of military (Army) leadership.

As researchers have become more proficient in the study of leadership, new definitions of leadership versus management have been introduced, and new approaches to understanding leadership have been adopted. Major theories regarding leadership have been developed, with additional research uncovering often significant deficiencies in the theories. Nonetheless, civilian and military professionals are eager to learn how to become successful leaders themselves, and how to nurture those leaders who are present in their organizations.

"If you're going to lead, know that the first person you have to lead is yourself: keep trying, all your life, to figure out who you really are and work hard to understand other people; that is, to stay in touch with those hearts beating around you. Develop yourself into a bright and articulate being with moral conviction and respect and you won't have to seek responsibility: it will come to you."

- General John R. Galvin
Dean, The Fletcher School of Law and Diplomacy,
Tufts University

Supreme Allied Commander-EUR Commander In
Chief-USEURCOM

The ability to lead is considered by many to be the key characteristic of successful civilian and military professionals. Leadership is unquestionably the critical determinant of the success of any institution. The study of leadership has become an important and central part of the literature on management and organizational behavior for several decades. The field of leadership study is an interdisciplinary one, and publications on leadership can be found in management, psychology, sociology, political science, public administration, educational administration, and the military. In 1989, a journal devoted exclusively to leadership, the Leadership Quarterly, was initiated.

Understanding the various leadership theories as they apply to formal organizations is crucial to managers and employees/subordinates alike as they seek to determine which style of leadership works best for them, and in what leadership environments they are likely to thrive.

This research considers a comprehensive definition of leadership, the

actual importance of leadership in the workplace, and various approaches that have been taken to understand leadership. Significant leadership theories are also presented. The massive size and scope of the literature on leadership prevents an all-encompassing review of all literature theories; those current theories that have had the greatest effect on management styles and have been most widely adopted in the market will be considered here. In addition to presenting these theories, their significant advantages and drawbacks will also be considered. This research will lastly discuss the military leader and his or her leadership principles, essentials, styles and importance of leadership counseling.

Definition of Leadership

The basic definition of a leader is a person who leads others along a way; a guide, one in charge or in communion of others. Leadership can be further defined in terms of individual traits, leader behavior, interaction patterns, role relationships, follower perceptions, influence over followers, influence on task goals and influence on organizational culture (Yukl, June 1989, p. 253). Leadership is achieving worthwhile goals through other people. Most definitions of leadership involve an influence process, but numerous definitions of leadership have little else in common. Definitions differ in many respects, including who exerts influence, the purpose of influence attempts and the manner in which influence is exerted (Ross, May 1992, p.

46). These differences are not merely cases of minor differences among scholars, but sometimes represent deep disagreement about identification of leaders and the leadership process.

Even at this point, not all researchers consider that leadership is properly classified as a distinct phenomenon. Some theorists believe that leadership is no different from the social influence processes that occur among all members of a group, and these researchers see leadership as a collective process shared among the members (Biggart & Hamilton, November 1987, p. 430). The opposing view to this is that all groups have role specialization, including a specialized leadership role. This view takes the position that there is one person who has much more influence than other members, and who carries out leadership functions that cannot be shared without putting in jeopardy the success of the group's mission. While the second view has been popular in the past, recent trends have led to the increased popularity of the shared leadership position.

Some researchers hold that leadership should be limited by definition to influence that results in enthusiastic commitment by followers; this can be contrasted to indifferent compliance or reluctant obedience. Those who favor this view suggest that a person who uses authority and control over rewards and punishments to manipulate or coerce followers is not truly "leading" them (Day & Lord, September 1988, p. 455). The opposing view to this definition

holds that this is too restrictive because it excludes influence processes that are important for understanding why or how a manager is effective or ineffective in a particular situation. These individuals argue that the initial definition of leadership should not predetermine the answer to the research question of what makes a leader effective (Kuhnert & Russell, September 1990, p. 597).

For the purposes of this research, leadership is defined broadly, and includes influencing task objectives and strategies, influencing commitment and compliance in task behavior in order to achieve these objectives, influencing group maintenance and identification, and influencing the culture of an organization.

Leadership Versus Management

There is a similar disagreement over the concept of leadership as compared to management. Most researchers hold that a leader need not be a manager, nor does a manager have to be a leader (Kuhnert & Russell, September 1990, p. 599). Some managers, financial managers for example, may not have subordinates to manage. While researchers recognize that there is some overlap between leadership and management, the degree to which the two overlap is disputed. One popular view is that leaders influence commitment, where managers carry out position responsibilities and exercise authority (Price, Fall 1991, p. 351). Others in the field hold that the overlap between

managers and leaders is so great that they cannot truly be considered separate disciplines; under this view, effective managers are viewed as strong leaders, and effective leaders are considered strong managers (Schul, Winter 1987, p. 46).

The Importance of Leadership

Most leadership research makes the assumption, either explicitly or implicitly, that leadership is an important determinant of organizational effectiveness. However, some writers question this assumption (Matey, Winter 1991, p. 602). Organizational effectiveness is said by some to be dependent on factors beyond the leader's control; these factors can include economic conditions, market conditions, governmental policies and technological change. As an example of this, the new chief executive of a mature company inherits an organization with various strengths and weaknesses, and the potential for making improvements is severely limited by internal political constraints and external market conditions.

Leadership succession must also be considered when evaluating the importance of leadership. The importance of leadership counseling will be discussed in the military section. It is generally assumed that changes in top leadership should be associated with changes in the performance of the organization if the leadership is itself important to the organization's performance (Wallis, Spring 1993, p. 27). Research on succession suggests that chief

executives are indeed able to exert moderate influence on an organization over a period of several years. The magnitude of this influence is likely to depend both on the leader's skills and on some situational conditions (such as whether there is a performance crisis at the time of succession) (Shareef, Summer 1991, p. 55).

Other writers argue that the importance of leadership has been exaggerated by the need for people to explain events in a way that fits their assumptions and implicit theories (Norris & Vecchio, September 1992, p. 372). Organizations are complex social systems of patterned interactions among people. In an effort to understand the causes, dynamics and outcomes of organizational processes, people interpret events in simple, human terms. Stereotypes, implicit theories and simplified assumptions about causality help people make sense out of events that would otherwise be incomprehensible. One prevalent explanation of organizational events is to attribute causality to the influence of leaders. Leaders are portrayed as heroic figures who are capable of determining the fate of their organizations. There is a mystical, romantic quality associated with leadership, similar to that for other stereotyped heroes (Palich & Hom, September 1992, p. 291).

The emphasis on leadership as a cause of organizational events reflects a common cultural bias toward explaining experience primarily in terms of the rational actions of people, as opposed to uncontrollable natural forces, or

random events not susceptible to human comprehension. A related cause is the widespread faith in human organizations as rational, goal-oriented systems that fulfill the needs of members and contribute to the general welfare of society (Popper & Lipshitz, December 1993, p. 23).

Qualities of Leadership

To summarize the qualities of a leader, he or she is a person who:

- Has the ability to conceptualize and to execute. With this "vision" or mission, the leader can effectively communicate it to others.
- Grows and matures with experience.
- Creates an "esprit de corps" which brings out the best in others.
- Is frequently magnanimous, rarely petty.
- Often does the unexpected and produces startling results.
- Is a person who is not afraid to change the status quo.
- Is unreservedly committed, rarely lazy.
- Is a professional who is not afraid to face tough problems and make tough decisions.

(Taylor and Rosenbach, 1992, p.53)

In its efforts to define specific attributes of 21st century leaders, the War College surveyed 432 Generals and promotable Colonels to learn what traits they felt would be required of senior officials in the following five to fifteen

years. They named such attributes as flexibility, adaptability, communicative skill, political astuteness, ability to conceptualize, skill in dealing with officials from different government cultures, diplomacy, skill in resource management, cultural sensitivity, caring leadership, and a full range of technical, tactical, war-fighting, joint, and coalition competencies (Chilcoat, 1995, p.3).

Approaches to Leadership

Before considering actual leadership theories, it is important to understand the various approaches to leadership that researchers and theorists have adopted. These include the power-influence approach, the behavior approach, the trait approach and the situational approach (Day & Lord, September 1988, p. 461).

A. Power-Influence Approach

The power-influence approach attempts to explain leadership effectiveness in terms of the amount of power possessed by a leader, the types of power, and how power is exercised. Power is important not only for influencing subordinates under this approach, but also for influencing peers, superiors and people outside the organization, such as clients and suppliers (Popper & Lipshitz, December 1993, p. 25). This approach considers the type and sources of power associated with individuals, including the way in which characteristics of the individual and the situation interact in determining how

much power a person has within an organization. This approach also considers the way power is gained or lost through influence processes. In addition to taking into account a micro-level analysis of power for individuals, the power-influence approach also considers the macro-level analysis of organizational subunits and coalitions. At this level, leadership effectiveness is evaluated in terms of the organization's adaptation to a changing environment.

B. Behavior Approach

The behavior approach emphasizes what leaders and managers actually do on the job, and the relationship of behavior to managerial effectiveness (Biggart & Hamilton, November 1987, p. 604). This approach considers what constitutes the nature of managerial work and how managerial behavior should be classified. In addition, the behavior approach takes into account the types of managerial behavior that are related to effectiveness.

C. Trait Approach

The trait approach emphasizes the personal attributes of leaders. Early leadership theories attributed success to possession of extraordinary abilities, such as tireless energy, penetrating intuition, uncanny foresight, and irresistible persuasive powers (Matey, Winter 1991, p. 604). Hundreds of trait studies were conducted during the 1930s and 1940s to discover these elusive qualities, but the intense research effort failed to find any traits that would guarantee leadership success. As the evidence accumulates from better-designed re-

search and new research methods, trait research is discovering how leader traits relate to leadership behavior and effectiveness. The focus of much recent trait research has been on managerial motivation and specific skills; earlier research focused on personality traits and general intelligence (Palich & Hom, September 1992, p. 312). Some researchers now attempt to relate traits to specific role requirements for different types of managerial positions.

D. Situational Approach

The situational approach considers the importance of contextual factors, such as the leader's authority and discretion, the nature of the work performed by the leader's unit, the attributes of subordinates and the nature of the external environment. This research and theory falls into two major subcategories. The first of these considers leader behavior as a dependent variable; researchers in this area seek to discover how the situation influences behavior and how much variation occurs in managerial behavior across different types of managerial positions. The other subcategory seeks to discover how the situation moderates the relationship between leader attributes or behavior and the leader's effectiveness (Weitzel & Green, Autumn 1990, p. 580).

Situational approaches to leadership have resulted in the greatest number of leadership theories; several of these theories are introduced and examined here.

Leadership Theories

A. Path-Goal Theory

The path-goal theory suggests that leaders motivate higher performance by acting in ways that influence subordinates to believe valued outcomes can be attained by making a serious effort. The optimal amount of each type of leader behavior is determined by aspects of the situation, such as the nature of the task, the work environment and subordinate attributes. This theory focuses on subordinate motivation as the explanatory process for the effects of leaders, and ignores other explanatory processes, such as a leader's influence on task organization, resource levels, and skill levels (Goodson, McGee & Cashman, December 1989, p. 448).

B. Situational Leadership Theory

The situational leadership theory (Hersey and Blanchard) proposes that the optimal amount of task and relations behavior depends upon subordinate maturity. This theory prescribes different patterns of two behaviors, depending on the subordinate's confidence and skill in relation to the task. This theory is popular in the workplace, but has yet to gain popularity among researchers and scholars (Shareef, Summer 1991, p. 51). Few studies have tested the theory, and these studies have found only partial and weak support for it. Among the weaknesses that are cited in the theory are ambiguous constructs, oversimplification and a lack of intervening explanatory processes

(Norris & Vecchio, September 1992, p. 350).

C. Leader Substitutes Theory

Under the leadership substitutes theory, supportive and instrumental leadership by designated hierarchical leaders is redundant or irrelevant in some situations. Various characteristics of the subordinates, task and organization serve as substitutes and neutralizers (Goodson, McGee & Cashman, December 1989, p. 451). There are a number of conceptual limitations associated with this theory, including a failure to provide a detailed rationale for each substitute and neutralizer. Some critics have also called for a sharper focus on explanatory processes which would help to differentiate between substitutes that involve the same leadership behavior by persons other than the designated leader (Weitzel & Green, Autumn 1990, p. 581). For example, the importance of leader direction may be reduced by conditions that make the job of subordinates simple and repetitive, or by the existence of other sources of necessary guidance and coaching. Another limitation of the theory is its reliance on categories of leader behavior that are defined too broadly to be linked closely to situational conditions. Despite these limitations, the theory is widely held to contain promise as an alternative perspective on the situational determinants of leader effectiveness (Walls, Spring 1993, p. 26).

D. Normative Decision Theory

Normative decision theory identifies the decision procedures most likely

to result in effective decisions in a particular situation. The moderator variables are characteristics of the immediate situation that determine whether a particular decision procedure will increase or decrease decision quality and acceptance (Yukl, June 1989, p. 271). In general, research results have supported this model, but some decision rules are supported better than others, and some limiting conditions have been found. This model is considered by some to be the best of the situational theories since it focuses on specific aspects of behavior rather than on broad behaviors. In addition, this theory includes meaningful intervening variables, and it identifies important situational moderator variables. Some of the weaknesses identified in this model include the fact that it focuses on a small part of leadership (the decision making process) and that it oversimplifies the decision process itself (Shareef, Summer 1991, p. 61).

E. LMX Theory

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) holds that leaders develop different exchange relationships over time with different subordinates. Some subordinates are given greater influence, autonomy and tangible benefits in return for greater loyalty, commitment, and assistance in performing administrative duties. This theory is situational only in the sense that leaders treat subordinates differently depending on whether they are members of the "in" group or the "out" group (Ross, May 1992, p. 49). A leader who has a favorable

exchange relationship with his own supervisor is likely to establish a special exchange relationship with his subordinates.

The LMX theory tends to be more descriptive than prescriptive. It describes a typical process of role making by leaders, but it does not specify what pattern of downward exchange relationships is optimal for leadership effectiveness. Some recent studies have focused on the benefits to be gained by a leader from developing special exchange relationships. A special upward exchange relationship was found to be a key predictor of a manager's advancement in the organization based on research conducted in Japan, while a downward exchange relationship with a subordinate results in greater loyalty and performance by the subordinate (Shareef, Summer 1991, p. 61).

F. Cognitive Resources Theory

This theory examines the conditions under which a leader's cognitive resources (such as intelligence, experience and technical expertise) are related to group performance (Vecchio, April 1990, p. 141). Situational variables such as interpersonal stress, group support and task complexity determine whether a leader's intelligence and experience enhance group performance. The theory proposes that a leader's cognitive resources affect group performance only when the leader is directive and the task unstructured. According to the theory, leader intelligence is related to group performance only when stress is low, because high stress interferes with the use of intelligence to solve prob-

lems and make decisions. Leader experience will be related to group performance under high stress, but not under low stress. This is because experienced leaders rely mostly on experience for solving problems when under high stress, whereas they rely mostly on intelligence under low stress (Vecchio, April 1990, p. 143).

This is a relatively new theory in the area of leadership and not much research has been conducted to evaluate it. Some of the validation studies which have been conducted have been found to have methodological deficiencies, such as relying on surrogate measures of experiences (such as time in job) that may be contaminated by extraneous variables, and a failure to measure intervening processes such as decision processes and decision quality (Vecchio, April 1990, p. 144).

There are also conceptual weaknesses with the theory in that it emphasizes general intelligence at a time when trait research on managerial effectiveness has moved to more specific skill constructs. These include analytical ability, planning skills, inductive and deductive reasoning, and creativity in generating solutions (Vecchio, April 1990, p. 147).

G. Multiple Linkage Model

The multiple linkage model was developed to advance theory and research on effective managerial behavior in different situations. The current version of the model begins with the assumption that work unit performance

depends primarily on six variables: member effort, member ability, organization of the work, teamwork and cooperation, availability of essential resources, and external coordination with other parts of the organization (Yukl, June 1989, p. 283). Some situational variables determine the relative importance of each intervening variable in a particular situation. Leaders can influence these variables in a number of ways, although the effects of leader behavior depend in part on the situation.

In the short term, most leader actions are intended to correct deficiencies in the intervening variables, where in the long term, leaders seek to make the situation more favorable by actions such as implementing improvement programs, initiating new products or activities, forming coalitions to gain more control over resources, modifying the formal structure, and changing the culture of the unit (Weitzel & Green, Autumn 1992, p. 594). The short-term actions are intended to raise the variables up to their long-term maximum levels, where long-term activities are intended to raise this "ceiling" to yet higher levels.

The multiple linkage model was based on findings in prior research; little new research has been done to refine the model. The major conceptual weakness of the model is the lack of specific propositions about which leader behaviors influence which variables in which situations. This model is still more of a general framework for describing causal linkages among sets of

variables than a formal theory with precise propositions.

H. Leader-Environment-Follower-Interaction Theory

In this theory, subordinate performance is dependent on four variables: ability to do the work, task motivation, clear and appropriate role perceptions, and the presence or absence of environmental constraints (Popper & Lipshitz, December 1993, p. 27). A leader can influence subordinate performance by influencing the variables. In each case, there is diagnostic behavior to assess deficiencies in the intervening variables, and corrective behavior to deal with any deficiencies that are found. Effective leaders avoid deficiencies in subordinate ability by using improved selection procedures, increased training, or redesign the job to match subordinate skills.

In order to achieve optimal levels of subordinate motivation, effective leaders select subordinates with a high need for achievement, set specific but challenging goals, and provide appropriate feedback and encouragement. The leader may also use incentives, participation, competition, job redesign or communication of high expectations to increase motivation. To achieve role accuracy and clarity, effective leaders use instruction, guidance, feedback, goal setting, formalization, or job redesign. To deal with constraints in the work environment, effective leaders reorganize the work, modify technology, provide resources, and remove physical constraints. Leader behavior is influenced in turn by leader traits, situational variables, and feedback from the variables

(Palich & Hom, September 1992, p. 311).

I. Transformational and Charismatic Leadership

During the 1980s, management researchers developed an interest in charismatic leadership and the transformation and revitalization of organizations. These subjects are particularly relevant at a time when many companies in the United States are acknowledging that significant changes need to be made in the way business is conducted if the companies are to survive.

Transformational leadership refers to the process of influencing major changes in the attitudes and assumptions of organization members and building commitment for the organization's mission, objectives and strategies. The concept describes a leadership process that is recognized primarily by outcomes, such as major changes in the culture and strategies of an organization or social system. Transformational leadership involves influence by a leader on subordinates, but the effect of the influence is to empower subordinates to participate in the process of transforming the organization. Thus, transformational leadership is usually viewed as a shared process, involving the actions of the leaders at different levels and in different subunits of an organization, not just those of the chief executive (Matey, Winter 1991, p. 602).

Charismatic leadership is defined more narrowly and refers to the perception that a leader possesses a gift and is somehow unique. Followers

not only trust and respect the leader, as they would with a transformational leader, they also idolize the leader as a "spiritual" figure (Norris & Vecchio, September 1992, p. 401). The indicators of charismatic leadership include the followers' trust in the correctness of the leader's beliefs, unquestioning acceptance of the leader, affection for the leader, and willing obedience. Thus, with charismatic leadership, the focus is on an individual leader rather than on a leadership process that may be shared among multiple leaders.

Transformational and charismatic leadership theories are broader in scope than the situational leadership theories already discussed. As such, transformational and charismatic leadership theories involve leader traits, power, behavior and situational variables.

J. House's Charismatic Leadership Theory

House proposed a theory that identifies how charismatic leaders behave, how they differ from other people, and the conditions under which they are most likely to flourish. The theory specifies indicators of charismatic leadership that involve attitudes and perceptions of followers about the leader. The theory also specifies leader traits that increase the likelihood of being perceived as charismatic, including a strong need for power, high self-confidence, and strong convictions. Behaviors typical of charismatic leaders include impression management to maintain follower confidence in the leader, articulation of an appealing vision that defines the task in terms of ideological goals

to build follower commitment, communication of high expectations for followers to clarify their expectations, and expression of confidence in followers' ability to build their self-confidence. In addition, charismatic leaders set an example in their own behavior for followers, and if necessary, they act to arouse follower motives appropriate to the task (Norris & Vecchio, September 1993, p. 349).

K. Conger and Kanungo Charismatic Theory

The version of charismatic theory proposed by Conger and Kanungo is based on the assumption that charisma is an attributional phenomenon. Followers attribute charismatic qualities to a leader based on their observations of the leader's behavior and outcomes associated with it. The behaviors are not assumed to be present in every charismatic leader to the same extent, and the relative importance of each behavior for attribution of charisma varies somewhat with the situation (Weitzel & Green, Autumn 1990, p. 583).

The behaviors include the following: enthusiastically advocating an appealing vision that is highly discrepant from the status quo, yet still within the latitude of follower acceptance; making self-sacrifices and risking personal loss of status, money or membership in the organization in the pursuit of the espoused vision; and acting in unconventional ways to achieve the espoused vision. Traits enhancing attributions of charisma include: self-confidence; impression management skills; the cognitive ability needed to assess the

situation and identify opportunities and constraints for implementing strategies; and the social sensitivity and empathy required to understand the needs and values of followers (Matey, Winter 1991, p. 604).

With respect to power, attributed charisma is more likely for a leader who relies mostly on expert and referent power to influence followers rather than on authority or participation. As for situational variables, charismatic leaders are more likely to emerge when there is a crisis requiring major change, or followers are otherwise dissatisfied with the current environment. Even in the absence of a genuine crisis, a leader may be able to create dissatisfaction in order to demonstrate superior expertise in dealing with the problem in unconventional ways (Biggart & Hamilton, November 1987, p. 435).

L. Burns' Theory of Transformational Leadership

This theory of transformational leadership was developed primarily from research on political leaders. The theory describes leadership as a process of evolving interrelationships in which leaders influence followers and are influenced, in turn, to modify their behavior as they meet responsiveness or resistance. Transformational leadership is viewed as a micro-level influence process between individuals, and as a macro-level process of mobilizing power to change social systems and change institutions. According to this theory, transformational leaders seek to raise the consciousness of followers by

appealing to higher ideals and values, such as liberty, justice, equality, peace and humanitarianism, not to such baser motivators as fear, greed, jealousy, or hatred. Followers are elevated from their "everyday selves" to their "better selves" (Day & Lord, September 1988, p. 461).

Under this theory, transformational leadership may be exhibited by anyone in the organization in any type of position. It may involve people influencing peers or superiors as well as subordinates. Transformational leadership can be contrasted with transactional leadership, in which followers are motivated by appealing to their self-interest. Transformational leadership can also be contrasted from influence based on bureaucratic authority, which emphasizes legitimate power and respect for rules and tradition (Matey, Winter 1991, p. 600).

M. Bass' Theory of Transformational Leadership

Bass built on the earlier theory of Burns, and proposed a more detailed theory to describe transformational processes in organizations and to differentiate between transformational, charismatic, and transactional leadership. Bass defined transformational leadership in terms of the leader's effect on followers. Leaders transform followers by making them more aware of the importance and values of task outcomes; by activating their higher-order needs, and by inducing them to transcend self-interest for the sake of the organization. As a result of this influence, followers feel trust and respect toward the leader,

and they are motivated to do more than they originally expected to do.

Bass views transformational leadership as more than just another term for charisma. Charisma is defined as a process where a leader influences followers by arousing strong emotions and identification with the leader. Bass considers charisma a necessary but not sufficient condition for transformational leadership. Two other components of transformational leadership besides charisma are intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. Intellectual stimulation is a process where leaders increase follower awareness of problems and influence followers to view problems from a new perspective. Individualized consideration is a subset of behaviors from the broader category of consideration, and it includes providing support, encouragement, and developmental experiences to followers.

Charisma, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration interact to influence changes in followers, and the combined effects distinguish between transformational and charismatic leadership. Transformational leaders seek to empower and elevate followers, where in charismatic leadership, the opposite sometimes occurs (some charismatic leaders seek to keep followers weak and dependent, and to instill personal loyalty rather than commitment to ideals) (Biggart & Hamilton, November 1987, p. 431).

N. Transactional Versus Transformational Leadership

Transactional leadership suggests that leaders respond to lower level

subordinate basic and security needs (Deluga & Souza, 1991, p. 50). Leaders and subordinates are viewed as bargaining agents where relative power regulates an exchange process as benefits are issued and received. There are two types of behavioral patterns used in transactional leadership: passive and active. The passive style is described as management by exception where employees do not receive notice for their positive contributions to the organization, but instead receive attention by their manager only when an error or problem arises. Punishment or disciplinary action is often the medium used in this approach. Active transactional leadership uses contingent rewards. With this approach, employees are praised for their performance and may be eligible for pay increases or other incentives (Matey, 1991, p. 600).

Transformational leadership incorporates transactional leadership approaches, but moves beyond them. Here, the leader-subordinate influencing relationship is one where relative power is used to pursue organizational and personal goals. Three types of transformational leadership approaches have been identified: charisma/inspirational, individual stimulation and consideration for the individual (Matey, 1991, p. 601).

O. Leadership in Japanese Organizations

Typical Japanese business organizations have different corporate cultures than American businesses, with the results that the roles and types of leaders is also significantly different. There is a high level of exchange

relationships found in Japanese organizations, with managers serving as mentors to younger and less senior staff members. Leadership in Japanese organizations is much more situational than transformational, with the result that leaders have their authority and responsibility conferred on them by their level within the organization.

At the same time, each member of the organization has a strong understanding of the goals and objectives of the company, and how his individual effort is important to achieving those goals. Charismatic leadership is not as important as participatory decision making, in which all those associated with a decision have a chance to agree with the decision and put their support behind it (Wallis, Spring 1993, p. 31).

Leadership research is only now coming of age within the United States; even less research on leadership has been conducted within Japanese organizations. What becomes clear, however, from studying the organization structure of Japanese companies, is that personal charisma carries much less weight than the formal authority that companies confer on employees. A manager is a leader not because of his personality, but because of the position he occupies within the organization. That rule is understood by those above and below him, and is transmitted throughout the organization. In Japanese organizations, leadership is indistinguishable from corporate culture.

Principles of Military (Army) Leadership

Strong leadership, be it civilian or military, has always been needed most during periods of great change. Today, the Army is facing downsizing and redefinition of mission. Look at the following changes that Army's leaders must guide the service through:

- A 40% decrease in Army funding (\$6.09 billion), a 36% decrease in Army personnel, both to be accomplished between 1985 and 1999.
 - Active component will be reduced from 781,000 to 495,000
 - Reserve component will be reduced from 776,000 to 575,000
 - The number of officers decrease from 68,000 to 51,000
- The current 18 divisions will be reduced to 10 divisions.
- European personnel strength, which was 232,000 in 1991 will shrink to 65,000 in 1996.
- Army staff will be reduced by 30%.
- Five corps will be reduced to four corps.
- Military Operations Other Than War (MOOTW) are dramatically increasing.

To bring our forces efficiently into the 21st century, a military leader will need to be a cost-conscious, resource-conservative, computer-literate leader rooted in the information age, the same as his civilian counterpart.

The 11 principles of Army leadership, as outlined in the Department of the Army's FM22-100, are excellent guidelines and provide the cornerstone for action. They are universal and represent fundamental truths that have stood the test of time. Developed in a 1948 leadership study, the principles were first included in leadership doctrine in 1951. Use these principles to assess yourself and develop an action plan to improve your ability to lead.

1. Know Yourself and Seek Self-Improvement.

To know yourself, you have to understand who you are and to know what your preferences, strengths, and weaknesses are. Knowing yourself allows you to take advantage of your strengths and work to overcome your weaknesses. Seeking self-improvement means continually developing your strengths and working on overcoming your weaknesses. This will increase your competence and the confidence your soldiers have in your ability to train and lead.

2. Be Technically and Tactically Proficient.

You are expected to be technically and tactically proficient at your job. This means that you can accomplish all tasks to standard that are required to accomplish the wartime mission. In addition, you are responsible for training your soldiers to do their jobs and for under-studying your leader in the event you must assume those duties. You develop technical and tactical proficiency through a combination of the tactics, techniques, and procedures

you learn while attending formal schools (institutional training), in your day-to-day jobs (operational assignments), and from professional reading and personal study (self-development).

3. Seek Responsibility and Take Responsibility for Your Actions

Leading always involves responsibility. You want subordinates who can handle responsibility and help you perform your mission. Similarly, your leaders want you to take the initiative within their stated intent. When you see a problem or something that needs to be fixed, do not wait for your leader to tell you to act. The example you set, whether positive or negative, helps develop your subordinates. Our warfighting doctrine requires bold leaders at all levels who exercise initiative, are resourceful, and take advantage of opportunities on the battlefield that will lead to victory. When you make mistakes, accept just criticism and take corrective action. You must avoid evading responsibility by placing the blame on someone else. Your objective should be to build trust between you and your leaders as well as between you and those you lead by seeking and accepting responsibility.

4. Make Sound and Timely Decisions.

You must be able to rapidly assess situations and make sound decisions. If you delay, or try to avoid making a decision, you may cause unnecessary casualties and fail to accomplish the mission. Indecisive leaders create hesitancy, loss of confidence, and confusion. You must be able to

anticipate and reason under the most trying conditions and quickly decide what actions to take.

Here are some guidelines to help you lead effectively:

- Gather essential information before making your decisions.
 - Announce decisions in time for your soldiers to react. Good decisions made at the right time are better than the best decisions made too late.
 - Consider the short- and long-term effects of your decisions.
5. Set the Example.

Your soldiers want and need you to be a role model. This is a heavy responsibility, but you have no choice. No aspect of leadership is more powerful. If you expect courage, competence, candor, commitment, and integrity from your soldiers, you must demonstrate them. Your soldiers will imitate your behavior. You must set high, but attainable, standards, be willing to do what you require of your soldiers, and share dangers and hardships with your soldiers. Your personal example affects your soldiers more than any amount of instruction or form of discipline. You are their role model.

6. Know Your Soldiers and Look Out for Their Well-Being.

You must know and care for your soldiers. It is not enough to know their names and home-towns. You need to understand what makes them "tick" and learn what is important to them in life. You need to commit

time and effort to listen to and learn about your soldiers. When you show genuine concern for your troops, they trust and respect you as a leader. Telling your subordinates you care about them has no meaning unless they see you demonstrating care. They assume that if you fail to care for them in training, you will put little value on their lives in combat. Although slow to build, trust and respect can be destroyed quickly.

If your soldiers trust you, they will willingly work to help you accomplish missions. They will never want to let you down. You must care for them by training them for the rigors of combat, taking care of their physical and safety needs when possible, and disciplining and rewarding fairly. The bonding that comes from caring for your soldiers will sustain them and the unit during the stress and chaos of combat.

7. Keep Your Subordinates Informed.

American soldiers do best when they know why they are doing something. Individual soldiers have changed the outcome of battle using initiative in the absence of orders. Keeping your subordinates informed helps them make decisions and execute plans within your intent, encourages initiative, improves teamwork, and enhances morale. Your subordinates look for logic in your orders and question things that do not make sense. They expect you to keep them informed and, when possible, explain reasons for your orders.

8. Develop A Sense of Responsibility in Your Subordinates.

Your subordinates will feel a sense of pride and responsibility when they successfully accomplish a new task you have given them. Delegation indicates you trust your subordinates and will make them want even more responsibility. As a leader, you are a teacher and responsible for developing your subordinates. Give them challenges and opportunities you feel they can handle. Give them more responsibility when they show you they are ready. Their initiative will amaze you.

9. Ensure the Task is Understood, Supervised, and Accomplished.

Your soldiers must understand what you expect from them. They need to know what you want done, what the standard is, and when you want it done. They need to know if you want a task accomplished in a specific way. Supervising lets you know if your soldiers understand your orders; it shows your interest in them and in mission accomplishment. Oversupervision causes resentment and undersupervision causes frustration.

When soldiers are learning new tasks, tell them what you want done and show how you want it done. Let them try. Watch their performance. Accept performance that meets your standards; reward performance that exceeds your standards; correct performance that does not meet your standards. Determine the cause of the poor performance and take appropriate action. When you hold subordinates accountable to you for their perfor-

mance, they realize they are responsible for accomplishing missions as individuals and as teams.

10. Build the Team.

Warfighting is a team activity. You must develop a team spirit among your soldiers that motivates them to go willingly and confidently into combat in a quick transition from peace to war. Your soldiers need confidence in your abilities to lead them and in their abilities to perform as members of the team. You must train and cross train your soldiers until they are confident in the team's technical and tactical abilities. Your unit becomes a team only when your soldiers trust and respect you and each other as trained professionals and see the importance of their contributions to the unit.

11. Employ Your Unit in Accordance with its Capabilities.

Your unit has capabilities and limitations. You are responsible to recognize both of these factors. Your soldiers will gain satisfaction from performing tasks that are reasonable and challenging but will be frustrated if tasks are too easy, unrealistic, or unattainable. Although the available resources may constrain the program you would like to implement, you must continually ensure your soldiers' training is demanding. Apply the battle focus process to narrow the training program and reduce the number of vital tasks essential to mission accomplishment. Talk to your leader; decide which tasks are essential to accomplish your warfighting mission and ensure your unit

achieves Army standards on those selected. Battle focus is a recognition that a unit cannot attain proficiency to standard on every task, whether due to time or other resource constraints. Do your best in other areas to include using innovative training techniques and relooking the conditions under which the training is being conducted, but do not lower standards simply because your unit appears unable to meet them. Your challenge as a leader is to attain, sustain, and enforce high standards of combat readiness through tough, realistic multiechelon combined arms training designed to develop and challenge each soldier and unit.

Essentials for Military (Army) Leadership

There are many cases in history where forces inferior in physical quantitative or qualitative measures but superior in moral qualities achieved success. In such cases, the skill of leaders in using the environment to take advantage, applying sound tactical or operational methods, and providing purpose, direction, and motivation to their soldiers and subordinate leaders was always critical.

Leaders can lose battles, but only soldiers can win them. Having the right values, beliefs, character, ethics, and knowledge is necessary but does not ensure success on the battlefield. Soldiers must be properly trained, equipped, and employed (led) by their leaders to enhance their probability of winning.

Leaders must also provide purpose, direction, and motivation to meet the demands of combat. The requirements are the same whether you lead a combat unit, a combat support unit, or a combat service support unit.

Providing Purpose

Purpose gives soldiers a reason why they should do dangerous things under stressful circumstances. It focuses soldiers' attention and effort on the task or mission at hand, enabling them to operate in a disciplined manner in your absence. Soldiers can best relate to a task or mission if they know the ultimate purpose of their actions. Baron Friedrich von Steuben came to the United States in 1778, at General Washington's request. His mission was to help develop organization, control, discipline, and teamwork in the revolutionary force. He said that American soldiers do best when they know why they are doing something. This observation of over 200 years ago remains valid.

The likely violence of modern war could result in mass casualties. Small groups of soldiers are likely to be isolated from their units. They will experience great stress from continuous day and night operations and from violent engagements with enemy forces. More than ever, success on the battlefield will depend on individual soldiers' determination and personal initiative. The nature both of the battlefield and of American soldiers demands that your subordinates understand the significance of each mission.

You must teach your subordinates how to think creatively and solve

problems while under stress. On the battlefield, soldiers must have a clear concept of the objective; they must clearly understand your intent. They must have the critical information that the next higher headquarters can supply about the mission, enemy, terrain, troops, and the time available. Then, when you are not available or communications with headquarters is cut off, your soldiers will be able to use their understanding of your intent and their initiative to accomplish the mission. To prepare for combat, train in situations where your subordinates must take actions without your help or direction. Follow up with an after-action review. Discuss the results and make this a learning experience for both you and your subordinates.

You must communicate your intent so that your soldiers are able to understand the desired outcome clearly. Keep in mind that this can only happen if you explain what you want to happen in clear, concise, and complete terms. Communications are only effective if your soldiers listen and understand your intent.

Providing Direction

Your thinking skills are often referred to as directional skills because you set the direction or orientation of actions when you state what must be done in an established priority. Direction also establishes the relationship between officers and NCOs. The direction you give your soldiers is often based on guidance from your leader. The key point to remember is that you

must listen to your leader, support your leader, and help your leader accomplish the mission, recognizing that your mission is normally a subset of your leader's mission. Leaders provide direction by:

1. Knowing and maintaining standards.
2. Setting goals.
3. Planning.
4. Making decisions and solving problems.
5. Supervising and evaluating.
6. Teaching, coaching, and counseling.
7. Training.

1. Knowing and Maintaining Standards.

The Army has established standards for all military activities.

You as a leader have two responsibilities: first is to know the standards; and second, to enforce the established standard. You must assist subordinate leaders by explaining the standards that apply to your organization, giving them the authority to enforce the standards, and hold them accountable for ensuring they and their soldiers achieve the standards. Your soldiers will quickly recognize whether you know and enforce standards; it sets the direction for your unit.

2. Setting Goals.

Goal setting is a critical part of leadership. The ultimate goal is to ensure that every soldier and unit is properly trained, motivated, and prepared to win in war. Achieving this objective will normally require that you and your subordinates jointly establish and develop goals. When developing goals for your unit, remember several key points:

- Goals should be realistic and attainable.
- Goals should lead to improved combat readiness.
- Subordinates should be involved in the goal-setting process.
- You must develop a program to achieve each goal.

3. Planning.

Planning is as essential for success in peacetime training as it is for combat operations. Planning is usually based on guidance or a mission you receive from your leader or higher headquarters. With this guidance or mission, you can start planning using the backward planning process. First determine what the end result of the training or combat operations must be; then work backward, step by step. If you use common sense and experience, this process will help you eliminate problems, organize time, and identify details. Backward planning is a skill, and like other skills, you can develop it with practice. The steps in backward planning are:

- Determine the basics: what, how, and when.
- Identify tasks you want to accomplish and establish a se-

quence for them.

- Develop a schedule to accomplish the tasks you have identified. Start with the last task to be accomplished and work back to the present time.

When time allows, soliciting help from your subordinates is useful.

If handled properly, you can accomplish several objectives simultaneously, to include: improve communications which can be beneficial in improving cohesion and discipline; provide motivation for the soldiers involved; and provide a clearer picture of the broader perspective of unit goals and objectives.

Involving your subordinates in planning shows that you recognize and appreciate their abilities. Recognition and appreciation from a respected leader are powerful motivating forces. Your subordinates' ideas can help you develop a better plan; their participation in the planning process gives them a personal interest in seeing the plan succeed.

4. Making Decisions and Solving Problems.

In combat and in training, you will face complicated problems and have to make decisions with less information than you would like. Here is a problem-solving process that can help you?

- Recognize and define the problem.
- Gather facts and make assumptions.

- Develop possible solutions.
- Analyze and compare the possible solutions.
- Select the best solution.

The problem-solving process is continuous. Time available, urgency of the situation, and your judgment will affect your approach to decision making. When time is scarce, you must take actions to ensure a timely decision. A good decision made in time to implement is better than the best decision made too late.

After you have objectively and logically analyzed the possible courses of action in a situation using all available information, consider your intuitions and emotions. The problem-solving process is not a purely objective, rational mathematical formula. The human mind does not work that way, especially under stress. The mind is both rational and intuitive. Your intuition tells you what "feels" right or wrong. Your intuition flows from your instincts and your experience.

Since the problem-solving process is a thought process, it is both rational and intuitive. However, do not make the mistake of making decisions guided totally by emotions and intuitions and immediately doing what feels right. This is a prescription for disaster. First, follow the problem-solving process as rationally and objectively as possible. Gather information; then develop, analyze, and compare courses of action. Consider your intuition or

hunches, your emotions, and your values. Try to identify a "best" course of action that is logical and likely to succeed and that also feels right in terms of your intuition, values, and character.

Finally, make your decision, plan, and take action. If you expect success, you must make high-quality decisions that your troops accept and support. When time permits, involve your soldiers in decision making if they have information or experience that will lead to the best decision or plan. This develops your subordinates and creates an open, trusting bond between you and them.

5. Supervising and Evaluating.

Supervising means keeping a grasp on the situation and ensuring that plans and policies are implemented properly. Supervision includes giving instructions and continuously inspecting the accomplishment of a task. There is a narrow band of proper supervision. On one side of the band lies oversupervision; on the other side, undersupervision. Oversupervision stifles initiative, breeds resentment, and lowers morale and motivation. Undersupervision, however, can lead to frustration, miscommunications, lack of coordination, disorganization, and the perception can lead to resentment, low morale, and poor motivation.

The right level of supervision will depend on the task being performed and the person doing it. Here are some questions to ask yourself:

- What is the experience level of the subordinate?
- How competent is the subordinate at this task?
- How confident is the subordinate about his ability to do this task?
- How motivated is the subordinate to perform this task?

All soldiers benefit from appropriate supervision by leaders with more knowledge and experience.

Supervision has a major effect on building trust within your unit. Ensure your subordinates understand how and why you intend to supervise as part of your leadership or command philosophy. They can adjust to many styles of supervision once they understand that you are checking to ensure tasks are understood, to keep communications open, to teach, and to learn yourself.

Evaluating is part of supervising and includes looking at the way soldiers accomplish a task, checking firsthand, and inspecting. You need a routine system for checking the things that are important to mission accomplishment, cohesion, discipline, morale, and unit effectiveness. Checking is such a simple word and concept. It is obvious that leaders must check, but human nature can cause us to fail to check the most simple things that can lead to big disasters. You will hear some people say "Worry about the big, important things and don't sweat the small stuff." Both are poor guides. First,

be concerned about the big things; that is where you exercise your thinking or directional skills. Next, check the little things that make the major things happen. Use your judgment and experience to ensure you do not undersupervise or oversupervise.

6. Teaching, Coaching, and Counseling.

Teaching and counseling are fundamental responsibilities of every leader. Counseling alone is so important that FM 22-101 is devoted entirely to the subject. Use it. Study it. Learn how to fulfill your teaching and counseling responsibilities.

Teaching involves creating the conditions so that someone can learn and develop. To influence the competence and confidence of your subordinates, you must be a skilled teacher. Coaching, counseling, rewarding, and taking appropriate disciplinary measures are all parts of teaching. You must be a good teacher if you are going to plan and conduct effective training and help your subordinates develop professionally and personally.

Understanding how people learn is fundamental to being a good teacher. People learn:

- By the example of others.
- By forming a picture in their minds of what they are trying to learn.
- By gaining and understanding necessary information.

- By application or practice.

Learning requires certain important conditions. One condition is that the person be motivated to learn. It is difficult to teach someone who has no motivation to learn or feels no need to learn what you are teaching.

How do you convince the person he needs what you want to teach? You show the person that what you are trying to teach will make him a more competent soldier, better able to do his duty and survive on the battlefield. Use examples to show the person the importance of what you are teaching. The next condition of learning is to involve the student in the process. Keep your soldiers' attention by actively involving their minds and emotions in the learning process. Have your subordinates participate, either through discussion or through active practice of skill.

Hand in hand with your responsibilities as a teacher are your responsibilities as a coach and counselor. It is critically important that you counsel all your soldiers frequently on their strengths and weaknesses and on any problems you may be able to help them with. Developmental leadership assessment can help you improve your subordinates' leadership effectiveness.

Soldiers often think counseling is negative, equating it to getting chewed out or being told they are doing something wrong. This is not a full picture of what counseling means. Learn how you can use counseling as a positive tool to help your soldiers prepare for future responsibilities.

Counseling is talking with a person in a way which helps that person solve a problem, correct performance, or improve good performance. Counseling is a leadership skill that is a particular form of coaching and teaching. It requires thinking skills, such as identifying the problem, analyzing the factors and forces influencing the behavior of the soldier being counseled, and planning and organizing the counseling session. It requires understanding human nature - what causes a soldier to behave in a certain way and what is required to change his behavior. Counseling requires listening skills to learn about the situation and the soldier. It also requires judgment about when to let the soldier make his own decisions and when you should make them for him, and when to be flexible and when to be unyielding.

Just as there are no easy answers for exactly what to do in leadership situations, there are no easy answers for exactly what to do in specific counseling situations. When you see that a subordinate needs counseling, prepare yourself by reviewing the problem-solving process and studying FM 22-101.

As a leader you want to teach soldiers new values, knowledge, or skills that will change behavior. You also want to help them become better soldiers through your counseling.

7. Training.

Quality training must be your top priority - it is the cornerstone

of total Army readiness. Lieutenant General A.S. Collins, Jr., in his book

Common Sense Training, said:

"The essential characteristics of a good army are that it be well trained and well disciplined. These two characteristics are apparent in every unit achievement, whether in peace or war. Discipline derives and flows from training and serves to emphasize a fundamental point essential to a philosophy of training; that training is all encompassing. Training permeates everything a military organization does."

Training must develop soldiers who are disciplined, physically tough, and highly motivated. Because soldiers spend the majority of their time in training, you play an especially important role in developing soldiers who are skilled in their jobs. The standards that guide training must reflect the requirements of the battlefield. Train your soldiers on every task critical to wartime mission accomplishment.

Effective training is the key to sustaining a combat-ready Army and reducing human-error accidents. Training to standard produces skilled, disciplined soldiers who accept responsibility for the safety of themselves and others and for the protection of Army equipment. Good training:

- Strengthens the morale of each soldier.
- Builds mutual trust and respect between the leader and the led.

- Concentrates on warfighting skills.
- Is performance-oriented and has realistic objectives.
- Follows Army doctrine and standardizes actions.
- Means learning from mistakes and allowing for growth.
- Means strong subordinate development.

You must plan training so that your soldiers are challenged and learn. Some leaders find conducting training is threatening and embarrassing. When they present boring instruction, their soldiers balk at repetitive training on skills they have already mastered. When the leader discovers he has nothing else to teach, he reacts with defensiveness and reverts back to using his position power. He accuses good soldiers of having poor attitudes and tries to order soldiers to act interested in monotonous training. The result of this scenario is strong unit among soldiers but disrespect for the leader.

Providing Motivation

Motivation is the cause of action. It gives soldiers the will to do what you know must be done to accomplish the mission.

If your subordinates have confidence in themselves, each other, the unit, and you, and support the cause, they will be sincerely motivated. Training them to fight and win as a cohesive, disciplined team will have a valuable motivating effect. Knowledge and skill combat fear and increase confidence. Confidence is a potent motivating force. It gives rise to morale, courage, and

the will to fight.

You must keep a broad point of view on human nature and motivation. Do not allow yourself to hold the narrow view that soldiers are only motivated by fear of their leaders. It is equally dangerous to believe the opposite - that all soldiers are motivated to work hard and do the right thing.

You can motivate your subordinates by:

1. Serving as the ethical standard bearer.
2. Developing cohesive soldier teams.
3. Rewarding and punishing.

1. Ethical Standard Bearer.

Your soldiers need you to be the example they can compare to their own behavior. They want to have a leader to look up to. They want to depend on you to provide the moral force the values of our society demand. Your soldiers want you to be good at your job, but they also want you to be decent and honorable. By being the ethical standard bearer, you motivate your soldiers and help them to develop the self-discipline and will to fight courageously and to do the right and brave thing, regardless of danger.

2. Cohesive Soldier Teams.

Caring for your soldiers, and working hard to make soldiering meaningful for them, develop cohesive soldier teams. It takes a lot of work to

properly teach, coach, counsel, and train your subordinates, but this creates the bonds that lead to cohesion, trust, and mutual respect. A soldier in a cohesive soldier team is confident in his peers, his leaders, and his equipment and training. He will willingly fight to destroy the enemy and keep himself and his buddies alive.

3. Rewards and Punishment.

The hope of reward and the fear of punishment greatly affect soldiers' behavior. If you have been rewarded with a pat on the back for doing something well or punished with a reprimand for unsatisfactory performance, you know how it felt and how it changed your future behavior.

Rewards and punishments have different purposes. Rewards promote desired behavior; punishments reduce undesired behavior. If used properly, rewards and punishments can change the behavior of your soldiers.

Praise, recognition, a medal, a certificate, or a letter of commendation means a great deal to a soldier. Napoleon marveled at the motivational power of a small piece of ribbon. He once said that if he had enough ribbon, he could conquer the world. Rewards are visible evidence to the soldier that his leader, his unit, and his country appreciate his courage or hard work.

Well-chosen rewards normally increase motivation to keep working for more recognition. Here are some ideas on applying this principle:

- Obtain recommendations from the chain of command and

NCO support channel on rewards, awards, and schooling.

- Choose a reward valued by the person receiving it.
- Use the established awards system of certificates, medals, letters of commendation, driver and mechanic badges, and safety awards.
- Choose rewards that appeal to a soldier's personal pride; they will have the most motivational power. Praise before peers is often more powerful than a three-day pass.
- Present awards at an appropriate unit ceremony so that others can see hard work is rewarded.
- Reward promptly the desired behavior of an individual or group.
- Stand up for your good soldiers when they need help.
- Give lots of verbal praise. If a soldier is trying to learn the right values, character, knowledge, and skills, encourage him - even if he is still falling short. Do not reward his failure, but reward his honest diligent effort to do the right thing. That recognition will reinforce his efforts and motivate him to do even better. Be aware, however, that giving too much praise, or giving it when undeserved, cheapens its motivating value.

- Develop awards and ways of recognizing good performance that motivate the large group of average people who make up the majority of your unit. There is nothing wrong with rewarding the majority of your soldiers if they exceed a standard.
- Promote people who work and study hard, influence others to achieve unit standards, and show the capability for increased responsibility.
- Recognize soldiers who meet standards and improve their performance. Every soldier does not have the ability to be the "soldier of the quarter" or earn a perfect score on the Army Physical Fitness Test.

At the same time, you must also punish soldiers who just do not try or intentionally fail to meet your standards or follow your guidance. You do this because you want to change behavior and show others what they can expect if they choose to perform in a similar manner. Soldiers learn from the results of others' mistakes. Seeing what happens to a person who is unwilling or unmotivated to meet standards can have the same influence on behavior as firsthand experience.

Here are some principles you should understand about punishing:

- Let the soldier know you are upset about the behavior and

not about him. Let him know you care about him as a person but expect more from him.

- Make sure your soldiers know you will tell them how they are doing.
- Do not punish soldiers who are unable to perform a task. Punish those unwilling or unmotivated to succeed.
- Punish in private as soon as possible after the undesirable behavior. Do not humiliate a soldier in front of others.
- Ensure that soldiers being punished understand exactly what behavior led to the punishment.
- Ensure that punishment is neither excessive nor unreasonable. It is not only the severity of punishment that restrains soldiers but also the certainty of it.
- Do not hold a grudge after punishing. When a punishment is over . . . it is over.
- Never lose control of your temper.

Summary

Leadership theories identify types of leaders and ways in which they interact with their superiors, peers and subordinates. Because leadership is a human trait, it appears that although leadership skills can be refined, psychol-

ogy dictates that some individuals are by nature more charismatic leaders than others. However, it should be mentioned that effective leadership is developed even in the most charismatic personality.

There is considerable controversy in the field as to the relative importance of leadership within an organization, and even the definition of leadership itself. Some researchers demand a strict and narrow interpretation of leadership that does not permit the use of rewards and punishments to be included, while other researchers hold that any type of motivator is an acceptable variable that can be considered when looking at leadership.

Recent theoretical work has focused on transformational and charismatic leadership, in which the individual leader is perceived as using personal power and influence to gain effective results from subordinates and others in the organization. This type of leadership can be contrasted with situational leadership, where the leader is shaped by the constraints of the organization's environment.

There is no one theory that adequately explains all leadership behavior, and a leader who is effective in one organization may well have to change leadership styles if transferred to another organization. Understanding how leaders are effective, however, can assist other managers in developing their own leadership skills, and in nurturing leaders within the organization.

The military leader, by the nature of leading others on the battlefield in life or death situations must be exceptionally skilled as a leader and must constantly be striving to improve his skills.

Military (Army) leadership is taught from the very beginning in the military and is emphasized throughout the military career, including Basic Training, Advanced Individual Training (AIT), Reserve Officer Training Corps (ROTC), Officer Candidate School (OCS), the military academies, daily routine, and specialty schools, and is reinforced during a military career through enlisted development courses and officer development courses. Responding to increased involvement in military operations other than war, including humanitarian missions, peacemaking, peace-imposing, and a myriad of other exigencies, will require a different sort of leader than our system has traditionally produced.

The future military leader must be a soldier/manager/technician. This will require skills involving personnel, administration, technology, and other diverse entities. The future leader must have these new skills in addition to strategy, tactics, techniques, and doctrine that are intrinsic to his or her post. Technical expertise is required to be able to use new simulators that will permit leaders to look at options and alternatives and assess their outcome in a way their predecessors could only have imagined (Meyer & Ancell, 1995, pp. 221-227).

Lieutenant Colonel John Michaelis, while in the "bowling alley" south of Taegu, Korea, during the Korean War, may have succinctly summed up leadership's importance when he simply said, "Leadership is fundamental in command." (Meyer & Ancell, 1995, p. 55).

References

- Biggart, N. W. & Hamilton, G. G. (November 1987). An institutional theory of leadership. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, pp. 429-441.
- Chilcoat, R.A. (Winter 1995-96). The "Fourth" Army War College: Preparing Strategic Leaders for the Next Century. Parameters, p.8.
- Day, D. & Lord, R. (September 1988). Executive leadership and organizational performance. Journal of Management, pp. 453-464.
- Deluga, R. J. & Souza, Jr. (1991, March). The effects of transformational and transactional leadership styles on the influencing behaviour of subordinate police officers. Journal of Occupational Psychology, 64, 49-55.
- Goodson, J. R., McGee, G. W. & Cashman, J. F. (December 1989). Situational leadership theory: a test of leadership prescriptions. Group & Organization Studies, pp. 446-461.
- Kuhnert, K. W. & Russell, C. J. (September 1990). Using constructive developmental theory and biodata to bridge the gap between personnel selection and leadership. Journal of Management, pp. 595-607.
- Matey, D. B. (Winter 1991). Significance of transactional and transformational leadership theory on the hospital manager. Hospital & Health Services Administration, pp. 600-606.
- Meyer, Edward, C. & Ancell, R. Manning (Winter 1995). Senior leadership in the United States Army, Who Will Lead? (Westport, Conn: Praeger, 1995) pp. 55, 221-227.
- Norris, W. R. & Vecchio, R.P. (September 1992). Situational leadership theory: a replication. Group & Organization Management, pp. 331-412.
- Palich, L.E. & Hom, P.W. (September 1992). The impact of leader power and behavior on leadership perceptions. Group & Organization Management, pp. 279-318.
- Popper, M. & Lipshitz, R. (December 1993). Putting leadership theory to work: a conceptual framework for theory-based leadership development.

- Price, R. A. (Fall 1991). An investigation of path-goal leadership theory in marketing channels. Journal of Retailing, pp. 339-362.
- Ross, A. (May 1992). The long view of leadership. Canadian Business, 46-50.
- Schul, P.L. (Winter 1987). An investigation of path-goal leadership theory and its impact on intrachannel conflict and satisfaction. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, pp. 42-52.
- Shareef, R. (Summer 1991). Ecovision: a leadership theory for innovative organizations. Organizational Dynamics, pp. 50-62.
- Taylor, R.L. & Rosenbach, W.E., (1992). Military Leadership, pp. 53-58.
- Vecchio, R. P. (April 1990). Theoretical and empirical examination of cognitive resource theory. Journal of Applied Psychology, pp. 141-147.
- Wallis, I. (Spring 1993). Integrating the ideas of dissenting economists into a theory of transformational leadership. Review of Social Economy, pp. 14-39.
- Weitzel, J. R. & Green, S. G. (Autumn 1990). A test of the situational leadership theory. Personnel Psychology, pp. 579-598.
- Yukl, G. (June 1989). Managerial leadership: a review of theory and research. Journal of Management, pp. 251-290.
- Headquarters, Department of the Army (July 1990) FM22-100 Military Leadership, pp. 5-7, 45-51.