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Center for Army Leadership

Technical Report 2010-1

2009 CENTER FOR ARMY LEADERSHIP ANNUAL SURVEY OF ARMY LEADERSHIP (CASAL): MAIN FINDINGS

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Distribution: Distribution authorized to U.S. Government agencies only to prevent premature dissemination of findings and conclusions, July 30, 2010. Other requests for this document shall be referred to Center for Army Leadership.
ABSTRACT

Since 2005, the Annual Survey of Army Leadership (CASAL) has been an established effort by the Center for Army Leadership (CAL), Combined Arms Center (CAC) to assess and track trends in Army leader attitudes of leader development, the quality of leadership, and the contribution of leadership to mission accomplishment. Existing data sources were contrasted with newly obtained data for Army leadership performance, gaps in perceptions, and trends across leadership areas for uniformed and civilian leaders of the U.S. Army. New data (5,136 Active Component leaders; 7,007 Reserve Component leaders, and 9,414 civilian leaders) were collected on over 200 items dealing with quality of leadership (overall quality, differences in deployed and non-deployed, effectiveness on core leader competencies and attributes) and leader development (superior support for leader development, efficacy of practices, unit training efficacy). This report examines 4 primary areas: quality of leadership, contribution of actions and character to leadership, effects of climate and situational factors on leadership, and quality of leader development.
2009 CENTER FOR ARMY LEADERSHIP
ANNUAL SURVEY OF ARMY LEADERSHIP (CASAL)

MAIN FINDINGS

PURPOSE
Since 2005, the Annual Survey of Army Leadership (CASAL) has been an established effort by the Center for Army Leadership (CAL), Combined Arms Center (CAC) to assess and track trends in Army leader attitudes of leader development, the quality of leadership, and the contribution of leadership to mission accomplishment.

SURVEY DEVELOPMENT AND ADMINISTRATION
Each year, survey development starts with the identification of issues of importance to leadership and leader development. To adequately track trends and identify patterns, many survey items from past years have been used without change during each administration of the survey. Other items have been dropped, added, or modified in order to balance survey size and respondent fatigue/time required, with the need to cover a wide range of topical leadership issues. In part, this is done to ensure that the survey assesses current issues in the Army that change from year to year. Data have been collected through both quantitative (e.g., select a response) and qualitative (e.g., type a brief answer) means. Over 100 items covered topics on the quality of leadership and leader development:

Quality of Leadership
- What is the overall quality of Army leaders?
- How does leader effectiveness differ in deployed and non-deployed environments?
- How effective are current Army leaders for each core leader competency and attribute?

Leader Development
- How supportive are superiors of leader development for their subordinates?
- How effective are current Army leader development practices?
- How effective is unit training for leadership development?
MAIN FINDINGS

The main findings discussed in greater detail are:

- Army leaders report that over 60% of leaders in their unit or organization are effective.

- Between 52% and 79% of Army leaders rate their immediate superior as effective across all eight competencies, which is an improvement over the previous two years.

- The three top competencies are **Gets Results, Prepares Self, Leads Others**.

- **Develops Others** continues to be the lowest rated core competency across all levels. **Extends Influence beyond the Chain of Command** is the second lowest rated competency.

- Half of Army leaders believe their unit/organization places a high priority on leader development and rate their supervisor as effective in creating or calling attention to leader development opportunities, findings which are consistent with past years.

- Army leaders generally view their immediate superiors as effective in demonstrating all leader attributes, though the two lowest rated of the fourteen attributes are **Innovation** and **Interpersonal Tact**, which is consistent with past years.

- **Institutional training and education** is rated the lowest among the three leader development domains. In 2009, 9% fewer AC leaders rate institutional training courses effective for preparing them for new levels of leadership or responsibility compared to 2008.

- A larger percentage of Army leaders are more satisfied with the leader development opportunities available during deployed operations than in past years. The number of leaders indicating satisfaction has increased since 2005 (+ 19% AC; +14% RC).

- Sixty-two percent of leaders in the AC and 60% in the RC agree that leaders in their unit or organization help Soldiers handle combat stress. This is a significant improvement for RC ratings, as only 49% agreed in 2008.

- Sixty-three percent at CONUS locations reported high morale; compared to 47% in Afghanistan, and 40% in Iraq; 25% of Army leaders reported low morale in Afghanistan and Iraq.

- Forty-nine percent of AC captains plan to stay in the Army until retirement eligible (41% are undecided), an improvement over the past two years. In 2009, 12% of AC captains indicated that they definitely/probably planned to leave the Army upon completion of their obligation compared to more than 17% from 2005-2008.
# Table of Contents

**ORGANIZATION OF FINDINGS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Quality of Leadership</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1 Perceptions of Leader Quality</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2 Contribution of Quality Leadership to Mission Accomplishment</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3 Leader Quality While Deployed</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4 Workload and Soldier Care</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5 Trust</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Contribution of Actions and Character to Leadership</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1 The Leadership Requirements Model</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 Leader Effectiveness</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Effects of Climate and Situational Factors on Leadership</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1 Satisfaction and Morale in the Army</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2 Commitment, Career Intentions, and Career Goals</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3 Support for Leader Development in the Operational Environment</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Quality of Leader Development</td>
<td>311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1 Preparing Leaders</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2 Subordinate Development</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3 Army Leadership Doctrine</td>
<td>355</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.4 Institutional Domain</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5 Operational Domain</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6 Self Development</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.7 Unit-Based Leader Development and Training</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONCLUSION</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REFERENCES</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ORGANIZATION OF FINDINGS

The survey was administered online to a representative sample of over 10,000 Regular Army, Army Reserve, and Army National Guard officers (O-1 to O-6), warrant officers (W-1 to W-5), and noncommissioned officers (E-5 to E-9) who were globally dispersed. In addition to Army leaders, for the first time the survey was also administered to Army civilians. The survey invitation was sent to a random sample of 84,015 Army leaders within these cohorts, of whom 21,577 participated, for a response rate of 25.6%. Note: the true response rate was actually higher due to individuals who were out-of-range, or do not regularly check e-mail. The online survey was accessible to participants from November through December of 2009.

The level of sampling precision was adequate for each of five rank groups for the active components (AC) and reserve components (RC) and three supervisory levels for Army civilians (i.e., within sampling error is +/-1% to +/-3%, and sampling error for entire survey across components and cohorts is only +/-0.7%). Essentially this means that 95 times out of 100 the actual percentage will be within 1% of the true percentage.

It was found that the respondent sample closely approximated the population of the Army in terms of component and gender. The sample was also representative of deployed Army leaders; 63% active and 47% reserve had recent deployment experience (in the past 36 months). Further, approximately 16% of active and reserve component respondents were serving on a deployment at the time of the survey. For each rank group and supervisory level of civilians, the population, sample, response rate, and sampling error are presented in Table 1.
Table 1. Population, Sample, Response Rates and Sampling Error by Rank Group and Component.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Population Strata</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Planned Sample (Invitations)</th>
<th>Returned N</th>
<th>Response Rate</th>
<th>Sampling Error</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Active Component</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Field Grade Officer</td>
<td>29,074</td>
<td>3,407</td>
<td>1,311</td>
<td>38%</td>
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<td>Company Grade Officer</td>
<td>43,536</td>
<td>5,628</td>
<td>971</td>
<td>17%</td>
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<td>Warrant Officer</td>
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<td>3,957</td>
<td>910</td>
<td>23%</td>
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<td>Sr NCO</td>
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<td>3,600</td>
<td>1,029</td>
<td>29%</td>
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<td>Jr NCO</td>
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<td>7,434</td>
<td>935</td>
<td>13%</td>
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<td><strong>Total AC</strong></td>
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<td>24,026</td>
<td>5,156</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
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<td><strong>Reserve Component</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>Company Grade Officer</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sr NCO</td>
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<td>5,312</td>
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<td>Jr NCO</td>
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<td><strong>Total RC</strong></td>
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<td>Supervisors/Mangers</td>
<td>28,239</td>
<td>11,983</td>
<td>4,721</td>
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<td>Leader/Team Leader</td>
<td>3,894</td>
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<td>Non-Supervisory</td>
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<td>10,985</td>
<td>3,607</td>
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<td>9,414</td>
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<td><strong>Total CASAL Survey</strong></td>
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<td>84,015</td>
<td>21,577</td>
<td>26%</td>
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This report is organized into four topic areas:
- Quality of leadership
- Contributions of character and actions to leadership
- Effects of climate and situational factors on leadership
- Quality of leader development.

Within each of these areas, key findings are underlined in-text and summarized in call-out boxes in the right margin. Trends are reported for those items that have been asked in previous years of survey administration. Where applicable, CASAL data are supplemented with data from secondary sources. Each major section ends with a short summary that provides a recap of the most important findings.
1. **Quality of Leadership**

The quality of Army leadership was addressed by four key areas:

- Perceptions of leader quality;
- Contribution of quality leadership to mission accomplishment;
- Leader quality while deployed;
- Workload and Soldier care.

The key findings relating to each of these considerations provide an overall picture of the current quality of leadership in the Army and how well leaders adapt to situational factors and meet the mission. The key findings relating to each of the four considerations are highlighted in the following sections.

1.1 **Perceptions of Leader Quality**

Responses to the survey items relating to leader quality indicate that over half of Army leaders (uniformed and civilian) perceive Army leaders as effective. Army leaders indicate that 62% of the leaders in their unit or organization are effective. Army civilians indicate that 54% of the leaders in their unit or organization are effective.

Most Army leaders (81% AC; 80% RC) and Army civilian leaders (74%) rate their subordinates as effective leaders. However, all leaders are less likely to rate their superiors and peers as effective leaders compared to their subordinates, and are less likely to report being satisfied when asked specifically about the leadership in their unit or organization. A large percentage of Army leaders rate their peers (75% AC; 72% RC; 71% civilian leaders) and superiors (70% AC; 67% RC; 64% civilians) as effective leaders. These findings generally show a consistent trend that has been observed over the past five years.

Higher ratings by Army leaders for their own subordinates may occur because their effectiveness reflects on their own leadership. Army leaders may also be more likely to give lower ratings to their superiors because they have higher expectations for more experienced leaders. Familiarity with actual work tasks and closeness may also influence ratings.

Junior NCOs tend to be less positive in their views on leader quality compared to officers. Most (68%) AC junior NCOs rate their subordinates as effective leaders. Similarly, 61% of junior NCOs (66% RC) rate their peers as effective leaders and 60% rate their superiors as effective leaders.

Another way to examine the quality of Army leadership beyond the specific ratings of leader effectiveness is to evaluate how well Army leaders are performing. If Army leaders are performing well, that suggests that Army leaders are effectively leading and managing. Most
Army leaders believe their fellow Army leaders are effective in completing their work on time (83% AC; 81% RC) and correctly (81% AC; 79% RC). However, a smaller percentage of Army leaders in the AC and RC (65% and 62%, respectively) believe Army leaders are effective at completing their work with exceptional quality that exceeds expectations. Similarly, Army civilian leaders also hold a favorable view of Army leaders in their ability to effectively complete their work on time (78%), correctly (77%), and with exceptional quality that exceeds expectations (62%).

Likewise, Army leaders tend to hold a favorable view of Army civilians (though not quite as favorable as their view of fellow Army leaders). However, Army civilian leaders hold their peers in markedly higher regard than they do Army leaders. It is unclear if this difference is due to true beliefs regarding peer capabilities, or if it is a reflection of perceived competition with colleagues and those of similar rank. Three-fourths of Army leaders believe Army civilians are effective in completing their work on time (76% AC; 75% RC) and correctly (75% AC; 74% RC), compared to 85% of civilian leaders who hold that view. Further, 61% of Army leaders believe Army civilians are effective at completing their work with quality that exceeds expectations, compared to 74% of Army civilian leaders. Exhibit 1 demonstrates how these perceptions of leader quality differ.

Exhibit 1. Comparison of Work Perceptions for Army Leaders and Army Civilians.
It is an encouraging sign that a high percentage of leaders believe both Army leaders and Army civilians are effective in completing their work correctly and on time.

1.2 Contribution of Quality Leadership to Mission Accomplishment

Unexpected situational factors influence and change the direction leaders need to go. How well leaders can handle those unexpected and complex situational factors is important for how they lead others and accomplish the mission. Army leaders are perceived as effective in handling unexpected and complicated situations. Most Army leaders rate their immediate superiors as effective or very effective in developing a quick understanding of complex situations (79% AC; 77% RC) and in dealing with unfamiliar situations (75% AC; 73% RC). Across the board, most Army leaders believe both their immediate superiors and subordinates are effective in getting results and influencing others to accomplish the mission, and in understanding the link between their mission and the higher mission.

In addition, survey findings indicate that leader effectiveness in developing a quick understanding of complex situations and dealing with unfamiliar situations contribute to successful mission accomplishment, as evidenced by strong significant positive relationship between these variables. The strength of the relationship is assessed through correlation values, which can range from -1.0 for a negative relationship, to 0.0 indicating no relationship, to 1.0 for a positive relationship; correlation values greater than +/- .30 are considered moderate to strong. Army leaders who rate their immediate superior as effective in getting results to accomplish the mission also believe their immediate superior demonstrates effectiveness in:

- Developing a quick understanding of complex situations (AC $r = .74$; RC $r = .72$)
- Dealing with unfamiliar situations (AC $r = .76$; RC $r = .74$)

In other words, there is a strong association between leaders who get results and leaders who demonstrate effective adaptability.

1.3 Leader Quality While Deployed

The percentage of Army leaders who rate their fellow Army leaders as effective or very effective in completing their work on time, correctly and with quality that exceeds expectations is similar for those leaders who are deployed as those who are not deployed. Likewise, the percentage of Army leaders who are deployed and who rate their subordinates and peers effective or very effective as leaders (80% and 71%, respectively) is nearly identical to the percentage of Army leaders who are not currently deployed (81% and 74%, respectively).

On the other hand, the percentage of Army leaders who rate their superior as effective or very effective as a leader differs between those who are and are not deployed. In short, small differences in perceptions of effectiveness for those deployed versus non-deployed exist only when rating superiors; no differences between deployed and non-deployed exist when
evaluating subordinates or peers. Sixty-two percent of deployed Army leaders compared to 70% of non-deployed Army leaders rate their superiors as effective or very effective leaders. The magnitude of this difference between deployed and non-deployed leaders was also observed in relative difference findings from the 2008 DMDC Status of Forces survey. The DMDC survey found that 48% of deployed Active duty members of the Army, Navy, Marine Corps and Air Force were satisfied or very satisfied with the leadership in their unit, while 55% of non-deployed Active duty members were satisfied or very satisfied (Human Resources Strategic Assessment Program, 2008).

Deployed differences in CASAL data are largest among senior NCOs and warrant officers. Sixty-five percent of deployed senior NCOs and 58% of deployed warrant officers compared to 73% of non-deployed senior NCOs and 67% of non-deployed warrant officers rate their superior as effective or very effective as a leader. The heightened and unique demands of deployment may explain this difference in perceived effectiveness of superiors. However, there appears to be a discrepancy in Army leader perceptions in this area. For example, the 2008 Leadership Assessment Survey found that most Army leaders do not believe leader quality differs between deployed and non-deployed environments, though a large percentage also believe the quality is actually higher during deployed operations, with reasons being that leaders are better able to focus without distractions, there is more “on-the-line”, and leaders are given increased opportunities to put training into practice (Riley et al., 2009). Further, research is still needed to better understand this discrepancy.

1.4 Workload and Soldier Care

A key component of quality leadership is the care of Soldiers. Army leadership doctrine (*Army Leadership*, FM 6-22, p.8-1) states, “a leader should also maintain a healthy balance between caring for people and focusing on the mission.” There is evidence that Army leaders are accomplishing this; however, JR NCO perceptions indicate some shortcomings.

Indications that leaders are taking care of Soldiers and balancing mission requirements with Soldier care include:

- A large percentage of Army leaders agree that Soldiers in their unit or organization know who or where to turn to when they are dealing with stress (72% AC; 65% RC), when they experience problems in their personal life (76% AC; 68% RC) and when they experience job or work problems (80% AC; 75% RC).
- Over half of Army leaders (62% AC; 60% RC) agree that leaders in their unit or organization help Soldiers handle combat stress. For RC leaders, this percentage sharply improved from 2008, when only 49% agreed.
- 70% of Army leaders and 67% of Army civilian leaders rate their supervisor as effective or very effective in balancing subordinate needs with mission requirements; less than one-
fifth of Army leaders (14% AC; 13% RC) and civilian leaders (15%) believe their supervisor is ineffective in balancing subordinate needs with mission requirements.

- Findings from the 2007 Army Value and Warrior Ethos Survey support these points, as 73% of Army Soldiers agreed or strongly agreed that leaders in their units put the welfare of their subordinates before their own welfare (USAREUR, 2007).

Senior NCOs are more likely than other rank groups to perceive that leaders in their unit or organization help Soldiers handle combat stress and that Soldiers know who or where to turn to when they are dealing with stress or when they experience problems in their personal life. In contrast, half (50% AC; 51% RC) of junior NCOs agree or strongly agree that leaders in their unit or organization help Soldiers handle combat stress. Twenty-two percent of AC junior NCOs (19% RC) disagree or strongly disagree (see Exhibit 2).

**Exhibit 2. Percentage of Agreement Compared across Rank groups for Leaders Helping Soldiers Handle Combat Stress.**

![Chart showing percentage agreement across rank groups for leaders helping soldiers handle combat stress.]

Consistent with data from past years, junior NCOs continue to show the highest levels of disagreement, despite improvement observed from 2008 to 2009. A possible explanation for these findings is that senior NCOs may think they are helping Soldiers handle combat stress know where to go for help. Yet, junior NCOs are not as inclined to see it that way, and instead feel help is not being adequately provided within the unit or organization. Junior NCOs also hold more
accountability for subordinate Soldiers, and deal closely with the issues of junior enlisted on a regular basis. Less frequent exposure to these interactions may also contribute to senior NCO perceptions that stress is handled effectively.

Fewer RC leaders agree that Soldiers in their unit or organization know who or where to turn to when they are dealing with stress (65%) or when they experience problems in their personal life (68%) compared to AC leaders (72% and 76%, respectively). However, a nearly identical percentage of Army leaders in both components (55%) agree that seeking help for stress-related problems (not limited to seeking help just at work) is accepted and encouraged in their unit or organization; 29% neither agree nor disagree. Agreement by Army civilian leaders shows some similarity when compared to Army leader agreement, though there is a shift toward neutral ratings (37% neither agree nor disagree; 47% agree or strongly agree).

There is a significant positive relationship between leadership quality and Soldier stress management. In other words, taking care of Soldiers actually is a significant part of being an effective leader (not just according to doctrine). The more Army leaders perceive their superiors as effective leaders, the more they agree that:

- Leaders help Soldiers handle combat stress (AC $r=.52$, RC $r=.52$)
- Seeking help for stress-related problems is accepted and encouraged (AC $r=.41$; RC $r=.39$)
- Soldiers know who or where to turn to when they have job or work problems (AC $r=.39$; RC $r=.40$)
- Soldiers know where to turn when they are dealing with stress (AC $r=.38$; RC $r=.39$)
- Soldiers know who or where to turn to when they have problems in their personal life ($r=.36$, AC & RC)

Most Army leaders rate their immediate supervisor as effective or very effective in demonstrating composure and resilience (recovery from setbacks) (79% AC; 77% RC) and in dealing with unfamiliar situations (75% AC; 73% RC). Similarly, there is a significant positive relationship between superior effectiveness in demonstrating composure and resilience and leaders helping Soldiers handle combat stress (AC $r=.38$; RC $r=.39$). These findings are further supported by results of a recent study that found platoons who collectively rated their officers positively were more resilient than platoons that rated their officers negatively (Mental Health Advisory Team [MHAT] 6 Operation Iraqi Freedom [OIF], 2009).

While leaders seem to be doing fairly well at helping subordinates handle stress, stress from high workloads still remains a problem by the majority of Army and Army civilian leaders.

- Half of Army leaders and Army civilian leaders (53% AC; 51% RC; 53% civilian) report that stress from a high workload is a moderate problem.
- Nearly one-third of Army civilian leaders view stress from high workload as a serious problem, compared to less than one-fifth of Army leaders in the AC and RC (19% and 16%, respectively).
- Nearly one-third of Army leaders (29% AC; 32% RC) view this as not a problem at all, compared to 15% of Army civilian leaders.
• The incidence of stress from a low workload (i.e., boredom) is not observed to be problematic across the force. No more than 5% of Army or civilian leaders indicate this is a serious problem.

While Army civilian leaders more often indicate stress from high workload is a serious problem compared to Army leaders, the reason for the disparity is not clear. Force strength directed to operational units for high rates of deployments and declining military positions in generating force organizations may be contributing to the workload on the generating force where most Army civilians work. Civilian leaders may also delegate less, or delegate less effectively. The continuous high demand, high risk environment that Army leaders have been trained for and operate in may enable them to better adapt and demonstrate resilience in response to stress, and are therefore, less apt to perceive a stressful workload as problematic.

Exhibit 3 compares CASAL data with recent Army Research Institute (ARI) data gathered using the SSMP, which assesses quality of life (QoL) and related factors among AC Army personnel. Data indicate that most QoL items have agreement in the 70s and 80s. The graph clearly shows that the biggest concerns are the amount of stress from high workload, and the climate that seeking help for stress is okay. As stated elsewhere, leaders helping Soldiers handle combat stress, and current level of morale requires continued focus, and purposeful leader actions in order to improve. Note that all relatively lower rated items are discussed more in-depth throughout this report.

**Exhibit 3. Percentage of AC Agreement on Quality of Life from CASAL 2009 and SSMP 2008.**
1.5 Trust

Three items taken from the Behavioural Trust Inventory (BTI; Gillespie, 2003) were used to assess superior, peer, and subordinate trust:

“To what extent do you confide in your supervisor about personal issues that are affecting your work?”

“Not at all” (AC-26%, RC-23%, Civ-21%)
“Slight or Moderate extent” (AC-57%, RC-54%, Civ-55%)
“Great or Very Great Extent” (AC-18%, RC-23%, Civ-24%)

To what extent do you discuss with your peers work-related problems or difficulties that could potentially be used against you?”

“Not at all” (AC-26%, RC-27%, Civ-30%)
“Slight or Moderate extent” (AC-53%, RC-53%, Civ-53%)
“Great or Very Great Extent” (AC-21%, RC-20%, Civ-17%)

“To what extent do you discuss with your subordinates how you honestly feel about your work, even negative feelings and frustration?”

“Not at all” (AC-35%, RC-33%, Civ-24%)
“Slight or Moderate extent” (AC-55%, RC-51%, Civ-57%)
“Great or Very Great Extent” (AC-10%, RC-16%, Civ-19%)

Results indicate relatively higher trust in supervisors, and slightly lower trust in peers, and the least trust in subordinates. After factoring in sampling error, there were no meaningful differences between RC and AC trust levels. Interestingly, civilians have the highest trust for supervisor and subordinate trust, but the least trust for peers. This indicates that the competitive position of peers is not only not limited to Army leaders, and may even be a bigger concern for Army civilian leaders. However, these results should be interpreted cautiously because there is no trend data available for these items, and because these items only focus on the disclosure portion of trust. Gillespie (2003) showed that trust can be conceptualized as both reliance and disclosure.

Correlation and multiple regression using other items in the survey were used to find out if 1) trust matters, and 2) what trust is associated with. Not surprisingly, due to the CASAL’s focus on leadership, subordinate and peer trust had weak associations with the other variables. In terms of importance of both the attributes and competencies the top four, in order of strength were: Developing Others, Empathy, Balancing Subordinate Needs with Mission Requirements, and Communication. In terms of behaviors and situational factors associated with trust, in order of importance were: the acceptance and encouragement of seeking help for stress-related problems, the usefulness of feedback received from last performance counseling, and the effectiveness of leader development that occurs within the unit. Finally, superior trust was moderately \( r = .32 \) associated with effectiveness of superiors as leaders, indicating that 10% of perceptions of trust are perceptions superior effectiveness, or 10% of perceptions of superior
effectiveness are trust perceptions. Trust was also meaningfully related with morale ($r=.26$) and satisfaction ($r=.19$ Army; $r=.23$ civilian).

In full, these results indicate that most (> 75%) subordinates trust their superiors at least to some extent, but 25% of AC leaders (roughly 20% RC and civilian) are unlikely to tell their superior that they have a problem, which they feel affects their work. This directly speaks to concerns such as “a distracted Soldier is a dead Soldier, or a dangerous liability” and has implications for important issues such as readiness. This is also increasingly important at a time when the Army is experiencing a record number of suicides, especially considering the significant correlations of trust with perceptions that seeking help is encouraged, and leaders helping subordinates handle combat stress.

**Summary of the Quality of Leadership**

Leaders generally perceive that their superiors and peers are effective leaders, but hold the most favorable view of their subordinate leaders. Views on superior effectiveness also differ between operating environments, as Army leaders less often rate their superiors as effective while deployed. Army leaders and civilian leaders view themselves and each other as effective in completing their work correctly and on time, though they less often perceive work outputs to be of quality that exceeds expectations.

Most leaders agree that Soldiers in their unit or organization know who or where to turn to when they are dealing with stress, when they experience problems in their personal life, and when they experience job or work problems. However, a smaller percentage agrees that leaders in their unit help Soldiers handle combat stress, though agreement by RC leaders shows much improvement (+11%) in the current year. Nevertheless, leader support of Soldiers handling combat stress shows room for improvement. As leadership quality has been found to positively correlate with Soldier stress management, a focus on improving leader effectiveness in areas such as demonstrating composure and resilience will benefit the quality of leadership in the Army. Leaders need to be more proactive in support of handling individual stress/reactions to sustained, high risk, high demand environments.

Trust is a lynchpin due to its linkages with morale, satisfaction, and superior effectiveness. The data are also promising indicating that superior trust has absolutely no relationship with the number of direct reports that the superior has ($r=−.01$), nor deployment status ($r=.04$), nor frequency of deployments ($r=−.01$). This means that trust can be fostered by any superior regardless of situation. According to other survey items, this may be accomplished by: providing frequent and high quality feedback and effectively communicating, setting a climate in which seeking help is encouraged, mitigating subordinate stress, and taking time to develop subordinates, and demonstrate empathy.
2. Contribution of Actions and Character to Leadership

The contribution of actions and character to leadership was addressed by two considerations:

- The Leadership Requirements Model (FM 6-22)
- Leader effectiveness

2.1 The Leadership Requirements Model

Immediate Superiors

Between 57% and 78% of Army leaders rate their immediate superior as effective or very effective across all eight core leader competencies (see Exhibit 4). The percentage of Army leaders rating their immediate superior as effective or very effective on the eight competencies has increased since 2007, with Creates a Positive Environment showing the greatest increase in recent years. The three competencies for which the highest percentage of AC Army leaders rate their immediate superior as effective or very effective in 2009 are:

- Gets Results – 78% (76% RC)
- Prepares Self – 77% (74% RC)
- Leads Others – 72% (71% RC)

These three competencies have consistently been rank ordered as the most favorable competencies for the past three years, and represent strengths among Army leaders. The percentage effective ratings for RC Army leaders are noted with these bullet points, though ratings and the rank ordering of competencies does not generally differ between components.

The two core leader competencies for which the lowest percentage of AC Army leaders rate their immediate superior as effective or very effective in 2009 are:

- Develops Others- 59% (57% RC)
- Extends Influence Beyond the Chain of Command- 69% (67% RC)
The findings show a consistent trend of over the past three years for Develops Others consistently being the worst competency, and having the largest difference in rating compared to the other competencies. Army leaders rate their immediate superior as effective or very effective; one-fifth of Army leaders (20%) rate their immediate superior as ineffective or very ineffective. The next lowest rated competency has been less consistent. In sum, Extends Influence Beyond the Chain of Command or Creates a Positive Environment tends to be the next worst competencies, although the rank order fluctuates from year-to-year. Specifically, in 2007 Extends Influence Beyond the Chain of Command was the next lowest (although statistically equivalent to Creates a Positive Environment), in 2008 Creates a Positive Environment was clearly the next lowest (Extends Influence Beyond the Chain of Command increased by 7%), and in 2009 Extends Influence Beyond the Chain of Command was the next lowest (although statistically equivalent to Creates a Positive Environment, which increased by 7%). See Exhibit 4 for the rank ordering and percentages of effectiveness for competencies of immediate superior, and see Exhibit 5 for trend comparisons of effectiveness ratings for superiors on the core leader competencies.

Exhibit 4. AC Immediate Superior Effectiveness of the Core Leader Competencies.
Exhibit 5. Core Leader Competencies Trends for AC Immediate Superior Effectiveness.

As in past years, Army leaders more often rate their immediate superior as effective or very effective on the leader attributes compared to the competencies. Between 62% and 82% of Army leaders rate their immediate superior as effective or very effective across all leader attributes. The trend for these ratings is favorable from 2007 to 2009. The three attributes for which the highest percentage of AC Army leaders rate their immediate superior as effective or very effective in 2009 are:

- **Technical Knowledge** – 82% (79% RC)
- **The Army Values** – 82% (79% RC)
- **Mental Agility** – 80% (77% RC)

While the top three attributes have varied slightly over the last three years, superior effectiveness at demonstrating **Interpersonal Tact** and **Innovation** are the attributes that continue to draw the lowest percentage of effective or very effective ratings.

- **Interpersonal Tact** (interaction with others) – 72% (72% RC)
- **Innovation** – 73% (71% RC)

However, given the general favorability of the ratings across all leader attributes, these findings do not indicate an urgent need for improvement or action. That is to say, Army leaders generally are perceived as effective in demonstrating all leader attributes (see Exhibits 6 & 7).
Exhibit 6. AC Immediate Superior Effectiveness in Demonstrating the Leader Attributes.

Exhibit 7. Trend Comparisons for AC Immediate Superior Effectiveness in Demonstrating the Leader Attributes.
**Army Subordinates**

Ratings for *subordinate Army leaders* were similar to immediate superiors. The three top competencies are the same for Army subordinates compared to immediate superiors. However, a higher percentage of leaders rate their Army subordinates as effective or very effective than their immediate superior. Results indicate the two competencies with the lowest frequency of effective ratings are the same for Army subordinates as for immediate superiors, though the ordering changes:

- *Develops Others* – 73%
- *Extends Influence beyond the Chain of Command* – 69%

However, it should be noted that the percentages of effective ratings for these two competencies are closer for Army subordinates (4%), in comparison to the large difference in the percentages for these two competencies for immediate superior effectiveness (69% and 59%, respectively).

For leader attributes, there is variation in the rank ordering between perceptions of the effectiveness of Army subordinates and immediate superiors on the three top attributes. AC Leaders view their Army subordinate leaders as most effective in demonstrating the *Army Values* (89%), *Empathy* (88%), and *Warrior Ethos* (86%). However, similar to ratings for superiors, leaders rate their Army subordinates lowest in demonstrating *Innovation* (77%). It should be noted that despite differences in ratings, between 77% and 89% of Army leaders rate their Army subordinate leaders as effective in demonstrating all leader attributes.

**Civilian Subordinates**

Between 63% and 90% of Army leaders (Army and civilian) rate their civilian *subordinates* as effective or very effective across the eight competencies. While Army civilian leaders more often rate their civilian subordinates as effective or very effective compared to Army leaders, the three top rated competencies are the same. Similar to ratings for Army subordinates and immediate superiors, *Develops Others* and *Extends Influence beyond the Chain of Command* are the competencies with the lowest percentage of effective ratings for civilian subordinates.

Specifically, the percentages of Army civilian leaders that rate their subordinate civilians as effective or very effective in 2009 are:

- *Extends Influence Beyond the Chain of Command* – 74%
- *Develops Others* – 70%

Worthy of mention is that 63% of Army leaders rate their subordinate Army civilians as effective or very effective on the competency *Develops Others* (compared to 70% of civilian leaders),
suggesting Army leaders see more room for improvement in how their direct report civilians develop their own subordinates.

With regard to leader attributes, Army leaders most often rate their subordinate Army civilians as effective in demonstrating Technical Knowledge (91%), Empathy (89%), and Sound Judgment (87%). Army leaders rate their subordinate civilians favorably on most leader attributes, though it should be noted that some attributes are seemingly less applicable to Army civilians than they are to Army leaders (e.g., Warrior Ethos, Tactical Knowledge, Military Bearing & Physical Fitness).

**Command Levels**

Ratings for the competencies and attributes by Army leaders whose immediate superior holds a command position were examined. Commanders at the highest levels (i.e., brigade, battalion) are generally rated favorably across the competencies and attributes while those at lower levels (i.e., company/battery) show lower ratings by their direct reports. In most cases, the top three competencies from the broader findings on Army leaders (i.e., Gets Results, Prepares Self, and Leads Others) are also key strengths of commanders, though the relative ranking varies slightly. Of importance to the Army is that the competency Develops Others is also consistently the lowest rated and therefore the greatest developmental need at each command level.

- About two-thirds rate brigade and battalion commanders (67% and 62%, respectively) as effective in Develops Others; 14% and 18% rate them ineffective, respectively.
- Fifty-five percent rate company level commanders as effective in Develops Others; 22% rate them ineffective.
- Recall that in the overall findings for Develops Others, 59% of Army leaders rate their supervisor as effective or very effective and 20% rate them ineffective or very ineffective.

Commanders are charged, among other responsibilities, with ensuring that all leaders in their unit “develop their own and their subordinates’ skills, knowledge, and attitudes” through teaching, coaching and counseling (AR 600-100, p.6). As unit commanders are the primary trainers and hold responsibility for leader development that occurs in their unit, it is reasonable to assume these officers should be “leading the way” in demonstrating effective development of their subordinates. However, 22% of leaders who report directly to company-level commanders believe their superior is ineffective or very ineffective in Develops Others, indicating company commanders are only on par or slightly less effective in this competency than Army leaders in general. Direct trend comparisons to 2008 data are not possible given a change in the way survey items were presented. However, findings from the previous year generally indicate company level commanders continue to show room for improvement in developing their subordinates.
Summary of the Leadership Requirements Model

Findings on the effectiveness of Army leaders in demonstrating the core leader competencies and leader attributes indicate that leaders are effective in demonstrating character, presence, and intellectual capacity while they lead, develop and achieve.

The key strengths of Army leaders are Gets Results, Prepares Self, and Leads Others.

Findings for the competencies are supported by evidence from the Leader Behavior Scale (LBS), an instrument used in the Army’s 360-degree multi-source assessment and feedback program (Leadership Research Assessment and Doctrine Division, 2007). The results of the LBS show that leaders are rated quite favorably across the 8 competencies as well as a ninth domain covering overall leadership. On a scale of one to seven where one is very ineffective and a seven is very effective, average ratings for Army leaders range from 6.37 to 6.54. Overall results indicated that Develops Others and Extends Influence beyond the Chain of Command were the lowest rated competencies.

The greatest strengths are Leads by Example, Creates a Positive Environment, and Leads Others. Despite fluctuation in the relative ordering of the most favorably rated competencies, the findings from the LBS support the results of the CASAL, specifically in the identification of the two competencies in which Army leaders show the greatest need (Develops Others and Extends Influence Beyond the Chain of Command).

Positive leader effectiveness ratings were confirmed by subordinates in the 2007 Army Values and Warrior Ethos Survey, which found that 53% of Soldiers agreed or strongly agreed their unit leaders positively influenced their attitude and behavior (USAREUR, 2007). Effective leaders, not surprisingly, have a positive impact on their followers, as the 2007 criterion-related validation study of the Army Core Leader Competency Model found significant positive relationships between leaders’ behaviors and the effectiveness of their followers (Horey, et al., 2007).

Develops Others has consistently surfaced as a developmental need of Army leaders. There is sufficient support in the findings to now say that these low ratings constitute a trend for Army leaders. Further, new data have expanded our understanding of Army leader quality to include a broader set of leaders, namely Army civilian leaders, as they also show room for improvement on this competency.

Two leader attributes (though generally positive) have been ranked among the lowest for the past three years, and warrant continued attention as well: Innovation and Interpersonal Tact (interaction with others). While improvement can be made to these areas which would benefit Army quality, of note is the fact that Army leaders are generally rated favorably in how they demonstrate all leader attributes. Though these constitute the lowest of the leader attributes, they are still rated high, relatively speaking. Thus, the Army’s effort is best placed on improving the competency Develops Others. Further discussion on this point is offered at the end of this report.
2.2 Leader Effectiveness

Performing Full Spectrum Operations

In general, Army leaders are seen as effective in performing full spectrum operations (FSO). According to the data, AC Army leaders who are deployed and who are in units or organizations with FSO responsibilities rate their immediate superiors as effective or very effective in the following seven types of operations:

- Warfighting – 77% (RC 73%)
- Stability Operations – 75% (RC 72%)
- Combating Terrorism – 76% (RC 72%)
- Joint Operations – 75% (RC 76%)
- Counterinsurgency – 73% (RC 72%)
- Reconstruction Operations – 72% (RC 74%)
- Civil Support – 69% (RC 75%)

Previous administrations of the LAS also found that leaders are generally effective in these operational environments and tasks, though direct trend comparisons are not made due to changes in the survey methodology for these items.

Part of a leader’s effectiveness in performing full spectrum operations is likely related to how prepared leaders are for hybrid threats. Results indicate about half (48% of AC and 58% of RC) of the leaders who recently graduated from a leader development course rate their course as effective or very effective for preparing them to deal with unfamiliar and uncertain situations. These findings are supported by results of the 2007 and 2009 Survey on Officer Careers (SOC), which found that 50% of officers felt their most recent course or school prepared them to adapt to changes in the adversary’s tactics (2007), while 56% of officers said their most recent course or school prepared them to adapt to changing missions. This number has gone down noticeably in 2009, as only 30% of officers surveyed felt their most recent course had prepared them to adapt to changing missions during deployed operations.

Effectiveness in full spectrum operations also relies on how well Army leaders interact with other cultures and how effectively they demonstrate an understanding of other cultures. CASAL findings indicate most leaders view their immediate superior as effective or very effective in the following areas while deployed:

- Interacting with members of another culture (65%)
- Influencing members of another culture to do something (58%)
- Extending influence beyond the chain of command (64%)

With regard to understanding other cultures, it appears that what Army leaders believe they are doing and what they actually do is fairly consistent. Exhibit 8 shows the percentage of Army leaders who rated themselves effective or very effective in areas related to cultural interactions.
on the 2007 Accelerating Change in Leader Development Baseline Survey (Center for Army Leadership, 2007). These ratings correspond to ratings by others, in which:

- Sixty-five percent of Army leaders rated their immediate subordinate leaders as effective or very effective in dealing with other cultures in their deployed areas of operation.
- Sixty percent of Army leaders rated their immediate subordinate leaders as effective or very effective at considering the impact of their actions or decisions on the local populace.

### Exhibit 8. Leader Effectiveness in Cultural Interactions while Deployed.

![Ratings for Self and Subordinate Effectiveness in Cultural Interactions while Deployed (ACLD Baseline Survey, 2007)](chart)

Along with understanding other cultures, it is important for leaders to effectively demonstrate the required interpersonal skills needed for stability operations. The competency *Communicates* and the attribute *Interpersonal Tact* are key interpersonal skills needed for such endeavors. Results of the CASAL indicate that 77% of Brigade Commanders, 72% of Battalion Commanders, and 66% of Company Commanders are effective or very effective at using *communication* in stability operations. Results also showed that 77% of Brigade Commanders, 74% of Battalion Commanders, and 71% of Company Commanders were effective or very effective at using *interpersonal tact* during stability operations.

### Setting and Maintaining a Command Climate and Building Teams

A number of leader competencies and attributes were selected as reflecting competence in setting and maintaining a command climate: *Leading by Example, Creating a Positive Environment*, the *Warrior Ethos, Leading and Influencing Subordinates*, and *Composure* and *Resilience*. Most direct reports rate their immediate superior as effective or very effective in demonstrating these five areas. The highest percentages occur for superiors demonstrating *Composure* and *Resilience* (78%), and the *Warrior Ethos* (76%). Analysis of the results by key leadership levels shows that notably fewer direct reports rate platoon leaders as effective or very effective in *Leading by Example* (61%), *Composure and Resilience* (64%), and *Leading and
Influencing their Subordinates (58%) compared to the percentage for leaders overall on these areas. Differences while deployed are observed for company commanders, with notably fewer direct reports rating company commanders favorably on Creates a Positive Environment (67%), Leading by Example (65%), and Leading and Influencing their Subordinates (59%) while deployed.

Army leaders are effective in building teams, a finding that has been relatively consistent for the past three years. Sixty-seven percent of Army leaders rate their immediate superior as effective or very effective in building effective teams. Comparisons by key leadership levels in this skill show that the percentages rating their immediate superior favorably decrease as superior leadership level decreases within officer and NCO rank cohorts. A notably higher percentage of direct reports (77%) rate their brigade commanders as effective or very effective compared to the other levels of command. This finding is also observed for brigade CSMs (86%).

At the company level, results show a notably lower percentage of direct reports that believe their company commanders (55%) and squad/team leaders (49%) are effective or very effective in building teams while deployed. However, the results of the 2007 ACLD Baseline Survey indicate that most Army leaders rate themselves as effective or very effective in standing up teams (73% AC; 68% RC), resolving conflicts among members of their teams (69% AC; 66% RC), influencing the decision-making of their teams (72% AC; 69% RC), and clarifying what is essential to the team’s purpose (74% AC; 71% RC).

In summary, Army leaders effectively lead in full spectrum operational environments. Most leaders believe their immediate superiors are effective at interacting with members of another culture, extending influence beyond their chain of command, and influencing members of another culture while deployed. Most leaders view their immediate superior as effective in setting and maintaining a positive command climate, particularly in demonstrating composure and resilience and the Warrior Ethos. Key leadership positions that receive the least favorable ratings are platoon leaders (leading by example, composure and resilience, leading others) and company commanders while deployed (creating a positive environment, leading by example, leading others). Army leaders at senior levels are seen as effective in building teams, though there is room for improvement at lower levels, specifically for company commanders and squad/team leaders.

3. Effects of Climate and Situational Factors on Leadership

Leadership and leader development do not occur in a vacuum. The climate, culture, and environment of the organization, along with situational factors, influence the type of leadership and leader development needed and how effective it is performed. The influence of climate and
situational factors on leadership were addressed by three considerations:

- Satisfaction and morale in the Army
- Commitment, career intentions and career goals
- Support for leader development in the operational environment

The findings from these considerations indicate the level of morale and satisfaction among Army leaders; the commitment, career intentions and career goals of Army leaders; and the level of support for leader development within the operational environment.

### 3.1 Satisfaction and Morale in the Army

The level of satisfaction leaders have with the Army and their careers can impact leadership and leader development. A strong relationship exists between leaders’ current level of morale and their overall satisfaction with their Army career (AC r=.55; RC r=.52). Further, if leaders are dissatisfied with the Army and have a negative attitude towards the organization (e.g., have poor morale), they may be less effective and are less likely to gain from leader development opportunities.

Leaders who report a high level of morale and satisfaction with their career also report higher ratings for the effectiveness of the three leader development domains (i.e., institutional training, operational experience, and self development) compared to leaders who report low morale or career dissatisfaction.

- Effectiveness of operational experience positively correlates with morale (AC r=.33; RC r=.35) and with career satisfaction (AC r=.38; RC r=.36).
- Effectiveness of self development positively correlates with morale (AC r=.22; RC r=.26) and career satisfaction (AC r=.23; RC r=.23).
- Effectiveness of institutional training positively correlates with morale (AC r=.28; RC r=.27) and career satisfaction (AC r=.29; RC r=.27).

Over half of Army leaders (59% AC; 63% RC) indicate their current level of morale is high or very high. Results from the 2009 ARI Survey on Officer Careers (SOC) found a slightly lower percentage of officers who reported high or very high morale (49%), though this is an improvement from two years prior, in which only 43% of officers reported high or very high morale. In the current year, junior NCOs in both the AC and RC (43% and 53%, respectively) are the least likely to report their current level of morale as high or very high. The percentages are even smaller for junior NCOs who are deployed (34% AC and 46% RC, high or very high morale).

Morale is generally higher for leaders who are not deployed compared to leaders who are deployed, regardless of rank or component. Further, with the exception of senior NCOs, more
deployed RC leaders report their current level of morale as high or very high than deployed AC leaders. Within the AC, company grade officers have the largest percentage difference between deployed and non-deployed status (See Exhibit 9). This difference is likely due to the workload and stress company grade officers experience in deployed environments. These officers serve in critical leadership roles, are leveraged heavily by senior leaders, and are responsible for carrying out multiple tasks while leading subordinates, often with limited prior experience in their current role.

**Exhibit 9. Current Level of Morale Compared across Rank and Deployment Status.**

Examining morale by location of Army leaders reveals that notably fewer leaders in OIF/OEF locations report high or very high morale compared to the percentage of CONUS leaders with high morale (63% AC; 64% RC).

- In Afghanistan, 47% of AC leaders and 58% of RC leaders report high morale.
- In Iraq, 40% of AC leaders and 51% of RC leaders report high morale.
- 25% of AC leaders in Afghanistan and Iraq report their current level of morale as low or very low (as well as 17% and 20% of RC leaders at each location, respectively)

One interesting finding is that the marital status of deployed leaders may have an impact on their level of morale while serving on a deployment. That is to say, family support back home appears to have a positive impact on Army leader morale while deployed. Army leaders currently serving on a deployment, and who are single, report lower levels of morale (30% low or very low) compared to Army leaders who are married (17% low or very low). Army leaders who are not serving on a deployment (i.e., currently at home station) tend to report similar levels of morale regardless of their marital status; 12% of married leaders report low or very low morale, compared to 16% of single leaders. The number of dependents (children) does not appear to have as much of an impact on morale, as 21% of Army leaders who indicate having no dependents report low or very low morale, compared to 17% with one or more dependents.
Britt and Dickinson (2005) proposed a theoretical model for understanding the antecedents (i.e., contributing factors) and consequences of morale in a military setting (specifically during operations). Their model suggests that mission relevance, quality of leadership, unit cohesion and individual characteristics (e.g., optimism, hardiness, self-efficacy, military identity) contribute to levels of morale, which in turn affects psychological well-being and Soldier performance. Based on their research, three out of the four key contributing factors can be controlled by actions of commanders and other key leaders in a unit. Actions of commanders and unit leaders are critical not only to mission success but also to the psychological well-being of their Soldiers. Specifically, the authors suggest commanders:

- Make the mission relevant to Soldiers by communicating a clear purpose behind the mission
- Set and obtain achievable mission objectives
- Communicate incremental success

In addition, they suggested that strong leadership qualities by unit leaders can improve morale, by instilling high trust among Soldiers, emphasizing positive outcomes, and recognizing superior performance by unit members. Recall, that the trust section, provides support for these suggestions. Finally, the authors suggested that strong collective efficacy between unit members can enhance morale across the unit.

While less than two-thirds of Army leaders report high levels of morale, over 80% are satisfied or very satisfied with their career in the Army up to this point. Over 90% of field grade officers and senior NCOs are satisfied or very satisfied with their career, compared to 67% of AC company grade officers and AC junior NCOs.

Satisfaction among Army civilian leaders is also strong. Most Army civilian leaders (88%) are satisfied or very satisfied with their career working for the Army up to this point. Similarly, most civilian leaders agree or strongly agree that:

- their work is important to the mission of their organization (96%);
- their job requires them to use a wide-range of unique skills and talents (96%);
- there is a balance between their knowledge, skills, and abilities and the challenges of their work (90%);
- they feel informed of decisions which affect their work responsibilities (74%).

The single area in which few Army civilians (33%) are satisfied or very satisfied is with their opportunities to get a better job within their organization, as reported in the FY06 Army-wide civilian personnel attitude survey (Civilian Personnel Evaluation Agency, 2006).
3.2 Commitment, Career Intentions, and Career Goals

The level of commitment and career intentions of Army leaders can affect both the quality of Army leadership and leader development. If leaders are not committed to their unit or their organization, they are unlikely to perform at their best, whereas if leaders are committed to staying in the organization, they are more likely to seek ways to enhance and improve their unit or organization. For leader development, the level of commitment and career intentions of leaders influences the amount and type of development needed. For example, if a large number of senior officers are expected to retire, more leader development may be needed to prepare the next level of leaders for these new positions.

The current level of commitment by Army leaders is evaluated based on their intent to stay in the Army until retirement eligible or beyond (i.e., 20 years of service). Of the Army leaders not currently eligible for retirement, most (70% AC; 79% RC) plan to stay in the Army until retirement eligible or beyond 20 years (see Exhibit 10).

These findings have been generally stable since 2005, with a slight increase in the current year. However, stark differences in rank groups exist. Large percentages of senior leaders plan to stay until retirement or beyond, whereas fewer leaders at lower ranks believe they will stay. Logically, as senior leaders are closer to attaining retirement eligibility, their intent to remain in the Army is expected. Also noteworthy is that a larger percentage of RC junior leaders plan to stay in the Army compared to the percentage of AC junior leaders.

For many years, much attention has focused on the career intentions of AC captains. In 2009, 47% of AC captains indicate they plan to stay in the Army until retirement eligible or beyond. While the rate at which these officers intend to remain in the Army has fluctuated slightly over the past five years, results from this year show the lowest percentage of AC captains who definitely or probably plan to leave upon completion of their current obligation (12%). Further, this is the first year in the past three years where more AC captains indicate they plan to stay in the Army (47%) than indicate they are undecided (41%). Exhibit 11 displays how the career intentions for AC captains have changed over the past five years.

Exhibit 11. Trend Comparisons for the Career Intentions of Active Duty Captains.
A majority of Army leaders (87%) agree they are committed to their squad, team or immediate work group because of a sense of personal loyalty. Forty-one percent of Army leaders agree that too much of their life would be disrupted if they decided they wanted to leave the Army right now, and 47% of AC and 57% of RC leaders agree they have invested too many years in the Army to leave now. Though notably, most AC company grade officers (56%) disagree with a statement about themselves having too many years in the Army to leave now.

It is not surprising that leaders’ current level of morale and their satisfaction with their Army career is related to their intentions to stay in the Army. Significant positive correlations exist between Army leaders’ current level of morale and their intent to stay in the Army (AC $r=.31$; RC $r=.27$) and between leaders’ satisfaction with their career up to this point and their intent to stay in the Army (AC $r=.55$; RC $r=.52$). In 2008, moderate correlations were found for AC company grade officers between “How effective is your unit or organization at utilizing or supporting leadership skills you learned in the (most recent) course?” and career intentions (AC $r=.32$; RC $r=.31$); this correlation was replicated in the present year, but with a slightly smaller effect size in the AC ($r=.25$), and a much weaker effect size in the RC ($r=.10$). In 2008, a significant correlation was observed in the between “How effective are your superiors as leaders” and career intentions (AC $r=.24$; RC $r=.23$). Again, in 2009, the effect size was weaker in both the AC and RC (AC $r=.15$).

The previous section noted that a large percentage (80%) of Army leaders are satisfied with their career and have a high level of morale, findings that have positive implications for the Army. However, the findings that more than half of AC company grade officers (56%) do not feel invested in their unit or organization, that one-fifth (21%) report low or very low levels of morale, and that 17% are dissatisfied or very dissatisfied with their Army career provides some explanation for why a lower percentage (47%) of these officers currently plan to stay in the Army until retirement eligible or beyond compared to high percentages observed for field grade officers (88%) warrant officers (86%), and senior NCOs (93%).

There are two levels or types of commitment that warrant examination: affective commitment (AC) and continuance commitment (CC). Affective commitment is an emotional or affective attachment to the Army, in that strongly committed leaders identify with and enjoy working for the Army. An example CASAL item is: “I am committed to my squad, team, or work group because of my sense of personal loyalty.” Continuance commitment is characterized by going along with the status quo based on the recognition of the costs (breaking from consistency) to leave the Army. An example CASAL item is: “I am committed to the Army because too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave right now.”

CASAL data indicate:
- Continuance commitment is more strongly related to leader intentions to stay in the Army ($r=.23$) compared to affective commitment ($r=.12$).
• However, continuance commitment was less strongly related to ratings of morale (CC $r=.07$; AC $r=.19$) and career satisfaction (CC $r=.10$; AC $r=.21$) compared to affective commitment.
• A low correlation between affective commitment and continuance commitment ($r=.19$) suggests these are distinct factors.

These findings suggest that leaders’ intentions to stay in the Army are more heavily influenced by a leader’s perceptions of the sacrifice of breaking away from their normal routine than their emotional attachment to the Army.

Career goals also provide insight into the future plans, and current behaviors of our leaders. The primary career goals of Army leaders vary from promotion to a higher rank or level, to serving in command or key supervisory positions, to becoming a leading expert in a specialty. About half of officers, including warrant officers, indicate promotion to a higher rank is their primary goal. Between 14% of AC and 21% of RC officers aspire to become leading experts in their specialty, while 19% of AC and 16% of RC officers aspire to serve in command positions. The percentage of officers desiring to serve in command positions generally increases as rank increases.

The percentages of NCOs who most desire to be promoted to a higher rank versus those who desire holding a command-equivalent position are similar. Nearly one-third of NCOs desire to be promoted to a higher rank while about one-third desire to serve in a command-equivalent NCO position. Ten percent of NCOs aspire to become a leading expert in their specialty, while 13% of AC and 14% of RC NCOs plan to transition to the officer corps. For Army civilian leaders, nearly one-third (32%) aspire to achieve a higher GS/NSPS level, while about one-fourth (26%) are satisfied to stay at their current grade. Nine percent of Army civilian leaders aspire to become functional experts and 28% desire to attain a higher level leadership role (e.g., manager, SES level).

Regardless of leaders’ career ambitions (i.e., promotion to higher rank; obtaining key leadership positions; or becoming experts in their field) the perceived effectiveness of operational experience, self development and institutional training does not vary. Leaders who aspire to different career goals rate the effectiveness of each of these domains similarly, suggesting that leaders’ experiences or what they get from each domain does not affect their desired career goals.

3.3 Support for Leader Development in the Operational Environment

One of the greatest influences on leader development, and thus the quality of leadership, is the degree to which leader development is supported by the organization. The level of support for leader development within an organization can be seen by the priority it is given, the actions and support provided by superiors and senior leaders, and by the opportunities provided and the effectiveness of those opportunities. Current support for leader development in the Army appears to be moderate, a finding consistent with data from 2008.
About one-half of Army leaders in the AC and RC (53% and 55%, respectively) and civilian leaders (51%) believe their unit or organization places a high or very high priority on leader development (see Exhibit 12), which is largely consistent with what was observed in 2008 (55% and 56%). Likewise, about half of Army leaders (55%) and civilian leaders (51%) rate their supervisor as effective or very effective in creating or calling attention to leader development opportunities in their current assignment. Trend comparisons for this item show slight fluctuation in ratings, though in the past five years, no more than 59% of leaders (2007) rated their superior as effective, which suggests there is room for improvement.

Exhibit 12. Percentage of Agreement Compared across Rank groups for the Priority that is placed on Leader Development.

While many Army leaders (71% AC; 63% RC) feel they have sufficient time to direct and work with their subordinates, fewer leaders (63% AC; 56% RC) agree or strongly agree that they have sufficient time to carry out the duties and responsibilities for developing their subordinates. These findings suggest leader development is viewed as a lower priority and that it gets put aside. The importance of these findings to the Army is that if leaders do not view leader development as a priority within the organization and something that is recognized and valued, they are not likely to support or encourage it within their subordinates or themselves. One potential solution is provided by the Commander’s Handbook for Unit Leader Development (2007). It teaches leaders that these aren’t always competing demands for time within a unit. Leaders can purposely direct and work with their

Key Finding:
Half of Army leaders believe their unit or organization places a high priority on leader development, while about 20% believe it is treated as a low priority.

Key Finding:
Many Army leaders believe they have sufficient time to work and interact with their subordinates; fewer believe they have time to develop their subordinate’s leadership skills.
subordinates in a developmental way, such as by matching tasks to their subordinates’ skill sets, results in challenging skill-building work.

The continuous trend in this area over the years has implications for a growing lack of leader knowledge of ‘how’ to develop leaders, in that many leaders have not had opportunities to see what ‘right looks like’ in terms of unit leader development. Therefore, more emphasis and recognition for leader development should be given and the priority of leader development should be elevated in units and organizations. Further, leaders should be held accountable and responsible for the development of their subordinates and themselves.

Many Army leaders in the AC and RC (60% and 57%, respectively) feel their immediate superior in their previous position actively prepared them to assume a higher level of responsibility or leadership; about one-fourth disagree (23% AC; 25% RC). In comparison, about one-half of Army civilian leaders (52%) agree their immediate superior actively prepared them to assume additional responsibility or leadership in their last position, while 26% disagree.

Most officers and NCOs (80% AC; 78% RC) that either currently or have previously served in command positions (company, battalion, or brigade) agree or strongly agree that they served in their prior assignment long enough to develop the appropriate skills needed to assume command. At the higher levels (i.e., brigade and battalion) less than 5% disagree, and at the company level, 10% AC and 12% RC disagree they served in their prior position long enough to develop. Thus, it appears the operational environment is not pushing leaders too fast through positions and is enabling them to grow and build skills in each position. This provides some evidence addressing a previous concern among senior members of the DoD and members of Congress who were worried that general and flag officers change jobs too frequently, preventing them from developing the in-depth skills and experiences needed for subsequent positions (Harrell, Thie, Schirmer & Brancato, 2003; Harrell, Thie, Schirmer & Brancato, 2005).

**Summary of the Effects of Climate and Situational Factors on Leadership**

Over one-half of Army leader report their current level of morale is high or very high. Junior NCOs report lower levels of morale than other leaders. Though, morale is also lower for leaders who are currently deployed, including AC company grade officers who report the lowest levels of morale. Most Army leaders are satisfied with their career in the Army up to this point, and satisfaction is highest among those of higher rank.

Overall, Army leaders’ intentions to stay in the Army until retirement eligible have shown a slight improvement over the past two years. Interestingly, leaders’ perceptions of the issues and additional considerations associated with breaking away from their current job seem to be related to leaders’ intentions to stay in the Army, in that leaders who view the cost of leaving...
the Army as high are more likely to stay in the Army than those who view the costs to leave as low. Positively, the career intentions of AC captains show an increase in the percentage that plan to stay until retirement and a decrease in those who plan to leave compared to the last two years.

Support for leader development in the operational environment shows room for improvement because half of Army leaders believe their unit or organization places a high or very high priority on leader development. Other indications suggest leaders themselves do not see the development of their subordinates’ leadership skills as a priority. This trend over time means that unit leaders may no longer possess the knowledge and experience base to implement effective unit leader development.

4. Quality of Leader Development

The quality of leader development within the Army was addressed by seven considerations:

- Preparing Leaders
- Subordinate Development
- Army Leadership Doctrine
- Institutional Domain
- Operational Domain
- Self Development Domain
- Unit-Based Leader Development and Training

The key findings related to each of these considerations provide an overall picture of the current quality of leader development in the Army and are highlighted in the following sections.

4.1 Preparing Leaders

According to Army doctrine, “leader development is the deliberate, continuous, sequential, and progressive process, grounded in Army values, [that] grows Soldiers and Army civilians into competent and confident leaders capable of decisive action. [This] is achieved through lifelong synthesis of the knowledge, skills, and experiences gained through the three separate but overlapping domains of institutional training and education, operational assignments, and self-development” (FM 6-22, p. 8-9). Findings from the survey on these three domains indicate that the Army’s model for leader development is well supported. In general, a majority of Army and civilian leaders perceive current leader development domains to be effective, though the perceived effectiveness and positive impact of each varies (see Exhibit 13).

Operational experience effectively grows leaders. A large percentage of Army leaders (84% AC; 81% RC) and civilian leaders (85%) rate their operational experience as effective or very effective for preparing them to assume new levels of leadership or responsibility. Further, the top two
leader development practices that have had the greatest positive impact on development for Army leaders are duty assignments/on-the-job training (79% AC; 76% RC), and deployment operations (79% AC; 75% RC). In addition, 69% of Army civilian leaders also rate duty assignments/on-the-job training as having a large or great positive impact on their development.

The self development domain is also very favorably viewed by Army leaders in terms of its effectiveness and impact in preparing them to lead. A large percentage of Army leaders (85% AC; 84% RC) believe self development has been effective or very effective in preparing them to assume new levels of leadership or responsibility. Army civilian leaders also believe self development has been effective in preparing them to lead, though to a slightly lesser extent than Army leaders (75% effective or very effective). In terms of its impact, nearly two-thirds of Army leaders (64% AC; 61% RC) and half of Army civilian leaders (53%) believe self development has had a large or great positive impact on their development.

Exhibit 13. The Perceived Effectiveness of the Leader Development Domains.

Institutional training and education are viewed favorably less often in terms of their perceived effectiveness and impact in developing leaders (when compared to the operational and self development domains). One-half of Army leaders in the AC (51%) rate institutional training courses as effective or very effective in preparing them to assume new levels of leadership or responsibility, compared to 64% of RC Army leaders and 62% of civilian leaders. The positive impact of institutional training also lags behind other leader development practices, as only

Key Finding:
Army leaders view operational experience and self development as effective methods to prepare for leadership.

Key Finding:
Institutional training is less often rated as effective compared to the operational and self development domains.
38% of AC leaders (49% RC; 40% civilian leaders) believe resident courses have had a large or great impact on their development.

The broader findings for the leader development domains are largely consistent with the perceptions of current and past unit commanders in effectiveness in preparing them for command. Ninety percent of AC leaders (89% RC) who have served in a company, battalion, or brigade command or equivalent NCO position rate their operational experience as effective or very effective in preparing them for command. Self development is also seen as effective in command preparation (82% AC; 83% RC). However, formal preparation (i.e., resident courses and/or distributed learning) is viewed as effective by 58% and 59% of AC and RC command-level leaders, respectively.

In general, the level of contribution of the three leader development domains toward developing competent Army leaders has remained fairly stable across the past year, with the exception of the institutional training and education domain.

For operational experience and self development, there are only slight changes in the percentage of Army leaders who view them as effective or very effective:

- **Operational domain-** 81% (77% RC) in 2008, to 84% (81% RC) in 2009
- **Self development domain-** 82% (83% RC) in 2008, to 85% (84% RC) in 2009
- **Institutional training domain-** 60% (68% RC) in 2008, to 51% (64% RC) in 2009

The gap in favorable ratings between the institutional training domain and the other leader development domains warrants additional inquiry, and will be discussed later in this summary and in a separate information paper. These findings are consistent with relevant literature by McCall, Lombardo, and Morrison (1988) on the contribution of experience to leader development as generalized by the 70-20-10 rule. This rule states that roughly 70% of learning comes from challenging assignments; 20% comes from learning from the example of other leaders; and 10% from programs, including training and education. McCall (2010) later clarified the best use of all three of these are in support of on-the-job development rather than stand-alone interventions. One would expect this to be true as leaders in operational assignments are serving in actual positions of leadership.

In the institutional training domain, leaders are learning key prerequisite skill sets and practicing leadership in artificial or simulated environments. In other words, leaders may not be aware of the foundation created by institutional training, which may be necessary to get the benefit of self development and operational learning. In order to address this concern an item was asked, “Instruction from Army institutional training has provided a foundation that helps me get more learning out of everyday experiences such as garrison and deployment operations.” Fifty percent of AC, 61% of RC, and 48% of civilians agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. Only 23% of AC, and 15% of RC and civilians disagreed or strongly disagreed. Note that no significant differences in agreement with this item emerged among rank groups.
4.2 Subordinate Development

As mentioned previously, AR 600-100 emphasizes the responsibility of all Army leaders to develop those junior to them to the fullest extent possible. Most Army leaders in the AC and RC (60% and 59%, respectively) believe learning from their superiors has had a large positive impact on their development. Fifty-one percent of Army civilian leaders share this belief.

In addition to supporting attendance at institutional training courses, Army leaders facilitate the development of their subordinates through counseling, coaching, and mentorship. Performance counseling is a standardized tool used to provide feedback to a subordinate, which focuses on producing a plan outlining actions the subordinate can take to achieve a goal (AR 600-100, p.5). Findings indicate performance counseling is an area that continues to show room for improvement. Half of Army leaders (50%) and 44% of Army civilians agree or strongly agree the feedback they received from their last performance counseling was useful in helping set performance goals for improvement. About one-fourth of Army leaders in the AC and RC and Army civilians (24%, 23%, and 26%, respectively) disagree or strongly disagree that the last performance feedback they received was useful.

While the focus of effective and useful counseling may seem most imperative at the junior leader level, findings suggest subtle differences among rank groups, an indication there is room for improvement at all levels of leadership. While this area has been included in previous administrations of the LAS, the presentation and arrangement of the survey items on counseling changed in the current year. Therefore, direct trend comparisons across years are not made, but will continue to be an area of focus in future surveys.

Other methods of development, not necessarily within one’s own chain of command, are generally received favorably. More than one-half of Army leaders in the AC and RC (55% and 56%, respectively) believe mentoring, coaching, or teaching from someone outside their chain of command has had a large positive impact on their development. This view is also shared by 42% of Army civilians. When leader development practices are rank ordered in terms of their positive impact, mentoring/coaching/teaching by someone outside the chain is positioned in the middle of the list of 12 practices, perceived as having less of an impact than practices such as operational experience and self development, but more of an impact than institutional training and leader development within units. As with the previous item on counseling, direct trend comparisons with past data are not made for this item given a slight change in the presentation of this item in the current year.

The role of another important developmental relationship, namely NCOs leveraging their experience to develop officer leadership skills, was examined. More than half of senior NCOs in the AC and RC (62% and 56%, respectively) believe NCOs are effective or very effective in leveraging their experience to develop officers. On the other hand (the receiving end), about
half of AC and RC company grade officers (51% and 52%, respectively) and field grade officers (47% and 38%, respectively) believe NCOs are effective in leveraging their experience in this way. However, warrant officers in the AC and RC (34% and 26%) most often rate NCOs as ineffective or very ineffective in leveraging experience to develop officers.

4.3 Army Leadership Doctrine

Of relevance to each method of leader development is the usage and role of Army leadership doctrine. *Army Leadership* (FM 6-22), is the Army’s keystone manual on leadership which establishes fundamental principles by which Army leaders act to accomplish their mission and how they care for their people. At the component level, few unformed leaders in the AC and RC (15% and 11%, respectively) use this doctrine often. A larger percent of leaders in each component have referred to it several times (36% AC; 37% RC) or at least once or twice (30% AC; 34% RC). One-half of Army civilian leaders report having never used leadership doctrine; 24% have referred to it once or twice and 20% have referred to it several times.

Senior NCOs report the most frequent usage of leadership doctrine, as more than three-fourths (76%) in the AC have referred to it several times or use it often, a consistent trend across the past five years. Also consistent is the finding that AC company grade officers show the least familiarity or use of leadership doctrine (28% have never used it), which indicates a downturn in use over the past five years (16% in 2005, 21% in 2006, 23% in 2007 and 2008).

Army leaders most often refer to leadership doctrine for the purpose of preparing one’s self to lead others in the operational environment (i.e., to teach others about leadership, to learn what the Army expects of its leaders, to prepare to counsel subordinates, and to learn to lead more effectively). Half of AC senior and junior NCOs (46% and 52%, respectively) report they referred to leadership doctrine to reference material during attendance at a leader development course. In comparison, about one-third or more of field grade and company grade officers (37% and 34%, respectively) indicate this has been a reason for using leadership doctrine. This suggests NCO courses may place greater emphasis on doctrinal requirements for leadership than officer courses.
4.4 Institutional Domain

Army regulation states the purpose of the institutional domain is to provide “Soldiers, leaders, and Army Civilians the key knowledge, skills, and attributes required to operate successfully in any environment” (AR 350-1, p. 47). CASAL findings suggest institutional training courses show room for improvement in effectively preparing leaders to face challenges in the operational environment. In addition, findings suggest leaders perceive the effectiveness and impact of intuitional training less favorably than in prior years.

Perceptions of Institutional Training

About one-half (51%) of AC leaders and nearly two-thirds (64%) of RC leaders believe institutional training courses have been effective in preparing them to assume new levels of leadership or responsibility. Sixty-two percent of Army civilian leaders also believe these experiences have been effective. Field grade officers and senior NCOs hold the most favorable perceptions of institutional training (61% and 57% effective or very effective, respectively), while the perceptions of junior NCOs and company grade officers are notably less favorable, especially among AC leaders (48% and 45% respectively).

While perceptions of RC leaders are slightly more favorable than AC leaders, it should be noted that a decline in favorable ratings for the contribution of institutional training to leader preparation is observed between 2008 and 2009 for Army leaders in both components. Nearly 9% fewer leaders in the AC and 4% fewer in the RC now believe institutional training has been effective or very effective in preparing them to assume new levels of leadership or responsibility (2008: 60% AC; 68% RC). The reason for this decline is unclear, as the survey item assesses the holistic contribution of institutional training to leader development and is observed across all leaders (not just the 17% who attended a course in the past year). A forthcoming document focused on CASAL findings related to Army education will further discuss the decline in ratings over the past few years and provide a more thorough examination of changes at the course level.

Method of Attendance

Both Army leaders and Army civilian leaders favor resident courses over non-resident and distributed learning as a method of course attendance. This is demonstrated in the percentage of leaders who indicate the positive impact each method has had on their development (% large impact):

- Resident Courses- 38% AC; 49% RC; 42% civilian leaders
- Distance or Distributed Learning (dL)- 22% AC; 31% RC; 26% civilian leaders

These findings are supported by the results of the 2008 Officer Leader Development and Education Survey, which found that officers prefer resident course through PCS attendance.
because it affords opportunities for sharing and collaborating with peers and allows for the sustainment of family connections (Riley, Hatfield, Keller-Glaze, Fallesen & Karrasch, 2008). However, leaders also recognize and appreciate the flexibility afforded through dL and TDY courses.

**General Quality of Courses**

A number of diagnostic items provide an indication of Army leader perceptions of the most recent course they attended. Overall, fewer AC leaders (58%) rate the quality of the leader development they received as good or very good compared to RC leaders (70%). A common finding across years is the elevation of RC ratings toward institutional training compared to AC ratings. However, a decline in perceived course quality is observed when comparing results to the past year for both components (7% for AC and 5% for RC).

In the 2009 CASAL, AC leaders agree that their most recent course:

- Engaged them and motivated them to apply what they learned – 56% (68% RC)
- Content required students to think critically - 57% (69% RC)
- Improved their leadership capabilities – 44% (59% RC)

AC leaders also believe course instructors are effective in delivering the course content. Recent graduates agree or strongly agree their course instructor(s):

- Provided useful feedback in a timely manner– 75% (80% RC)
- Instructors required students to think critically – 51% (61% RC)
- Provided autonomy by allowing choices and options for coursework and activities – 53% (57% RC)

Additionally, a high percentage of recent graduates (80% AC; 85% RC) agree that clear, planned goals and learning objectives existed for their most recent course.

Leader comments, concerning their most recent course, suggest that improvements could be made to better prepare course graduates for subsequent leadership responsibilities. These comments largely focused on changes to the course curriculum to include more appropriate topics, increased hands-on learning, increased coverage of leadership topics and situation-based exercises. Other comments suggested changes to the methods of course delivery (e.g., a belief that certain distance learning courses should be delivered in a classroom setting); improving course instructors (though individual ratings for current instructors are quite favorable); the timing of the courses (e.g., increasing course length); and changing course authorization practices to benefit students (e.g., equal opportunity to attend courses).

**Transfer of Knowledge and Skills to the Job**

Of importance to the Army is the degree to which courses prepare graduates for the challenges they will face in the operational environment, and how effectively the knowledge and skills
obtained through course attendance transfers to the requirements of the role in which leaders serve. This is an area that continues to show room for improvement (see Exhibit 14). **Less than one-half of AC leaders believe their most recent course was effective in preparing them for various tasks, including:**

- Influencing others in their unit or organization – 46% (58% RC; 61% civilians)
- Dealing with unfamiliar and uncertain situations – 47% (58% RC; 62% civilians)
- Developing the leadership skills of subordinates – 39% (51% RC; 59% civilians)

**Exhibit 14. Percentage of Recent Graduates Rating Courses as Effective on Important Outcomes.**

![Chart showing course effectiveness ratings for different outcomes and ranks](chart.png)

Compared to 2008 findings, course ratings for these areas by Army leaders show decline. Course effectiveness in preparing leaders to influence others has shown the largest decline (12%) in the current year, while dealing with unfamiliar situations has remained mostly stable over the past year (<2% change). As with more general course ratings, RC leaders rate the effectiveness of their most recent courses more favorably in preparing them to lead in their next assignment compared to AC leaders. Another finding common across these ratings is that company grade officers less often rate their most recent course effective (on any of these dimensions) compared to field grade officers (about an 18% difference across each task).

Half of Leaders of (AC-49%; RC-48%; civilian-52%) believe that their unit or organization effectively utilizes or supports the leadership skills they learned in their most recent course. For Army leaders, these findings show a decline in recent years, particularly in the AC, as 47% and 44% of leaders viewed their unit or organization as effective in 2007 and 2008, respectively. Effective ratings for RC leaders in the past two years show less of a decline (53% in 2007; 47% in 2008). Findings from the 2008 Officer Leader Development and Education Survey showed
slightly more optimism, as just over one-half of COLs (58%) and LTCs (57%) believed their units were effective in utilizing what officer course graduates learned in their most recent courses (Riley et al., 2008).

Goldstein and Ford (2002) provide suggestions on how to improve transfer of knowledge and skills gained in training, most of which would also be applicable to education:

- identify the specific knowledge, behaviors and attitudes to be learned;
- align education setting to match setting where behaviors will take place;
- ensure organizational support for behaviors to be learned;
- allow students the opportunity to practice and use skills post training.

**Course-Level Findings**

Table 2. Course-Level Agreement on criteria: Influence Others Within Own Organization, Improve Leadership Capabilities, and Deal with Unfamiliar and Uncertain Situations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Influence Others Intra-organizationally</th>
<th>Improve Leadership Capabilities</th>
<th>Deal with Unfamiliar and Uncertain Situations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Course</td>
<td>(% AC (% RC)</td>
<td>(% AC (% RC)</td>
<td>(% AC (% RC)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ILE</td>
<td>56% AC (61% RC)</td>
<td>57% AC (72% RC)</td>
<td>60% AC (63% RC)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCC</td>
<td>41% AC (48% RC)</td>
<td>34% AC (50% RC)</td>
<td>45% AC (54% RC)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMC</td>
<td>66% AC (64% RC)</td>
<td>59% AC (61% RC)</td>
<td>60% AC (54% RC)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BNCOC</td>
<td>44% AC (56% RC)</td>
<td>47% AC (59% RC)</td>
<td>46% AC (53% RC)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WLC</td>
<td>44% AC (61% RC)</td>
<td>49% AC (66% RC)</td>
<td>43% AC (59% RC)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANCoC/SLC</td>
<td>41% AC (57% RC)</td>
<td>41% AC (60% RC)</td>
<td>44% AC (52% RC)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As previously mentioned, the views of senior leaders are generally more favorable than those at lower levels. A little more than half of the recent graduates’ ratings of Intermediate Level Education (ILE) are somewhat favorable in preparing them to influence others in their organization (56% AC; 61% RC), improving their leadership capabilities (57% AC; 72% RC), and dealing with unfamiliar situations (60% AC; 63% RC). Compared to ILE graduates, Captains Career Course (CCC) graduates less often view the course as effective in:

- Preparing them to influence others in their organization (41% AC; 48% RC)
- Improving their leadership capabilities (34% AC; 50% RC)
- Preparing them to deal with unfamiliar situations (45% AC; 54% RC)

There is less separation in the perception of course effectiveness among NCOs. Recent graduates of the Sergeants Major Course (SMC) believe the course was effective in preparing them to influence others in their organization (66% AC; 64% RC), improving their leadership
capabilities (59% AC; 61% RC), and for preparing them to deal with unfamiliar situations (60% AC; 54% RC). Recent graduates of the Basic Noncommissioned Officers Course (BNCOC) rate the course effective for preparing them to influence others in their organization (44% AC; 56% RC), improving their leadership capabilities (47% AC; 59% RC), and for preparing them to deal with unfamiliar situations (46% AC; 53% RC). Findings are similar for the effectiveness of the Warrior Leader Course, though a larger disparity between AC and RC ratings is observed:

- Preparing them to influence others in their organization (44% AC; 61% RC)
- Improving their leadership capabilities (49% AC; 66% RC)
- Preparing them to deal with unfamiliar situations (43% AC; 59% RC)

In summary, current Army leader perceptions of the contribution of institutional training toward their development as leaders shows a decline compared to past years. Reserve component leaders generally rate institutional training courses more favorably than leaders in the AC. Leaders in both components and civilian leaders indicate course attendance via resident instruction has had a greater impact on their development than non-resident course attendance. Increasing the transferability of the knowledge and skills gained at institutional training is seen as a need by Army leaders who attend these courses. As the operational environment dictates the needs of the Army, leader development courses should ensure the content and curriculum are properly aligned to provide leaders with the knowledge and skills they need to succeed.

### 4.5 Operational Domain

The role of operational assignments is to help leaders “acquire the confidence, leadership, and the competence needed for more complex and higher level assignments” (AR 350-1, p.8). A majority of Army leaders in the AC and RC (84% and 81%, respectively) believe operational experiences have been effective in preparing them to assume new levels of leadership or responsibility. A similar perception is shared by Army civilian leaders, as 90% of managers/senior supervisors and 82% of first line supervisors/leaders also rate their work experiences as effective or very effective in preparing them to lead.

Deployment operations are also perceived to be effective developmental opportunities for Army leaders, as 79% of AC leaders and 75% in the RC believe these experiences have had a large positive impact on their development. Comparisons across years show that both of these leader development practices have consistently been rated higher than other methods in their impact on development.

**Key Finding:**
Operational experience effectively grows Army leaders, and leaders recognize the positive impact deployment operations have on their development.

These findings are supported by results of the 2009 Survey on Officer Careers, which identified 1) duty assignments and on-the-job training, 2) learning from peers, and 3) deployment operations as the most important contributions to AC officer and warrant officer development.
Seventy-nine percent of Army leaders and 76% of civilian leaders believe they know what developmental experiences they need to improve as a leader in their current position. The majority of AC and RC leaders (84% and 81%, respectively) and civilian leaders (79%) cite previous experience as the best source for knowing this. Army leaders also draw this information from their mentors (72% AC; 65% RC), through training and education (62% AC; 67% RC) and from their peers (63% AC; 58% RC) when determining what they need to do to develop as a leader. Army civilian leaders most frequently cite training and education (68%), their mentors (50%) and their superiors (49%) as sources for this information. The actual experiences Army leaders offered in order to develop their leadership skills, include:

- Operational experience including assignment to specific positions and roles, opportunities to exercise both leadership and technical skills, opportunities to serve on deployments and in combat, and increased responsibility to lead others.
- Training on leadership and in technical and tactical skills related to their job or MOS, and interpersonal and communication skills (e.g., public speaking and writing).
- Formal education through military courses, civilian institutions (i.e., college) and continuing education opportunities.
- Development and feedback from others including mentorship, opportunities to observe or job shadow superiors, and being allowed the opportunity to make mistakes in a learning environment.

Deployments offer rich and unique opportunities in which leaders develop. About half of Army leaders in the AC and RC (52% and RC 47%, respectively) that had served on a deployment within the past three years indicate satisfaction with the leader development opportunities available during their deployment. These findings constitute a positive trend, as the number of leaders indicating satisfaction with the developmental opportunities while deployed has increased over the past few years (see Exhibit 15). Note NCO responses are not included for 2005 or 2006 due to low sample size.

When asked to identify the single best developmental opportunity that was experienced during their most recent deployment, Army leaders generally cited informal leader development practices. These informal practices included opportunities to demonstrate their leadership, to collaborate with others, and to be involved with other operational duties as a part of their position or job. More specifically:

- 42% of respondents cited leadership experiences, such as assuming the leadership responsibilities of a higher rank or position, leading others while in formal or informal positions, and both the receipt of guidance, support and mentorship from superiors and the opportunity to provide this same support to subordinates.
- 28% of respondents cited collaborative or teaming experiences such as working with other components and JIIM entities, with foreign militaries or host-nation personnel, and with members of their own unit.
- 22% of respondents cited other operational experiences such as performing the expected duties of their position, utilizing and developing technical and tactical skills, and facing unexpected adverse situations (e.g., combat, the loss of a Soldier).
Leed and Sokolow (2010) argued that military leader development should include more “outside” experiences such as short assignments working in government agencies, volunteering or responding to natural disasters. These types of broadening experiences (to include serving in a joint, interagency, intergovernmental, or multinational (JIIM) assignment) are perceived by many Army leaders in the AC and RC as having a large positive impact on their development (60% and 59%, respectively).

### 4.6 Self Development

Self development is the planned, goal-oriented learning that reinforces and expands the depth and breadth of an individual’s knowledge base, self-awareness, and situational awareness. Self development complements what has been learned in the classroom and on the job, enhances professional competence and helps leaders achieve personal objectives (AR 350-1).

Self development positively grows Army leaders, as shown by the effectiveness and positive impact ratings this leader development domain has received. In the current year, more than 84% of Army leaders and 75% of Army civilian leaders believe self development has been effective or very effective in preparing them to assume new levels of leadership or responsibility. In comparison to

**Key Finding:**

Army leaders recognize the effectiveness and impact Self Development has had on their development.
findings for Army leaders in 2008 (82% AC; 83% RC), favorable ratings for self development have remained largely consistent.

As mentioned previously, nearly two-thirds of Army leaders (64% AC; 61% RC) and half of Army civilian leaders (53%) believe self development has had a large or great positive impact on their development. In comparison to eleven other leader development practices, self development is positioned toward the top in its perceived impact (behind duty assignments, deployment operations and learning from peers). Further, comparisons across years on the impact of self development indicate a positive trend for AC Army leaders. Half of AC leaders (52%) rated self development as having a large or great impact in 2005. This percentage showed gradual improvement in subsequent years (55% in 2006; 59% in 2007; 63% in 2008; 64% in 2009). In comparison, ratings by RC leaders during these years have remained more stable, between 58% and 61%.

Army leaders most frequently engage in self development to gain knowledge in new areas, to develop new skills, and to maintain proficiency in their branch, MOS, or job. Similarly, civilian leaders most frequently engage in self development to gain knowledge, complete mandatory training, and develop new skills. These findings are supported by a 2008 study by the RAND Corporation, which found that over half of Army leaders had self-development plans to sustain critical skills they had already mastered, train for individual proficiency in areas requiring improvement, prepare for future duties or assignments, attend schools and courses, and gain exposure to new tactical or technical procedures (Schirmer et al., 2008).

Though not assessed in the current year, past LAS findings (2007-2008) have consistently identified the types of self development Army leaders most frequently engage in, which include:

- Professional reading (e.g., books, journals, doctrine)
- Disciplining themselves to develop or improve a skill (e.g., physical fitness, improved communication skills)
- Networking or interacting with peers or others.

In 2009, Army civilians indicate they most frequently engage in personal study, specifically professional reading, and other focused self-study on topics related to their job or personal interests; complete college courses, pursue advanced degrees and attend professional military education courses; and seek feedback from their superiors, peers and mentors as a method of self development.

Both Army policy and CASAL findings support the importance, perceived benefit, and perceived effectiveness of self development in developing leaders. However, findings on organizational support of Army civilian self development are less favorable:

- 57% of civilian leaders agree or strongly agree that their organization expects them to participate in self development beyond mandatory training.
• 43% agree or strongly agree that their organization makes time available for self development.

As survey findings have demonstrated the perceived effectiveness and impact self development has on Army leaders, the Army should continue to promote and encourage activities at all levels. Leaders should emphasize and foster a desire to engage in self development to their subordinates, specifically its importance in filling the gaps between what is learned through formal education and operational experience.

4.7 Unit-Based Leader Development and Training

As a broad measure, “leader development from within my unit” is the lowest rated leader development practice, a trend that has been observed across all survey years. Most Army leaders indicate having experience with leader development from within their unit, but only one-third (33%) of Army leaders and 30% of civilian leaders believe the leader development within their unit has had a large or great positive impact on their development. Thirty-seven percent of AC leaders (36% RC; 39% civilian leaders) believe it has had a small impact to no impact at all on their development.

Other perceptions of leader development at the unit level are slightly more favorable. When asked about the leader development that occurs within their unit or organization (e.g., counseling, individual training, growth/stretch assignments), about half of Army leaders (51% AC; 49% RC) and civilian leaders (47%) believe it is effective or very effective. However, less support is found among junior NCOs (43% AC; 47% RC) and warrant officers (44% AC; 42% RC), as fewer than half rate it as effective. Currently, a strong positive relationship exists between the effectiveness of leader development that occurs within the unit (e.g., counseling, individual training, growth/stretch assignments) and Army leader morale and career satisfaction:
• current level of morale (AC $r=0.47$; RC $r=0.45$)
• satisfaction with career up to this point (AC $r=0.41$; RC $r=0.35$).

Unit-based leader training extends beyond its venue at homestation to include rotations at combat training centers (CTC). The purpose of CTC is to provide realistic joint and combined arms training approximating actual combat, according to Army and joint guidance (AR 350-50). In the current year:
• 58% of AC (39% RC) Army leaders indicate they have attended a CTC at some point in their career.
• Of those who had ever attended, CTC experiences are generally perceived as effective in improving leadership skills (71% AC; 72% RC).

Key Finding:
Half of Army leaders believe the leader development that occurs within their unit is effective, and one-third of Army leaders believe it has had a large impact on their development.
Leaders rate the leadership feedback they received at CTC as effective or very effective (70% AC; 69% RC).

Trend comparisons indicate that both the effectiveness of CTC experiences in improving leadership skills and the feedback received have largely remained stable over the past few years. However, as slightly more than two-thirds of leaders rate the leadership feedback they received at CTC as effective, this area continues to show room for improvement.

**Summary of the Quality of Leader Development**

In summary, the three domains of leader development effectively contribute to the growth of Army leaders. Operational experience and self development are valued methods of development that are positively received by leaders at all levels. Institutional training continues to lag behind the other two domains in its perceived effectiveness and impact on development. Ratings for institutional training show a decline in the current year, not just in a general sense, but also at the course level.

Developmental relationships between superiors and subordinates show room for improvement, specifically in the area of coaching, counseling and teaching. However, the developmental aspects of operational experiences are something that is working well for the Army. Leaders grow their knowledge and skills through duty assignments, on-the-job learning, and serving on deployments. Army leaders believe they know what experiences they need to develop as leaders, and effectively fill-in the gaps by seeking out additional responsibility, drawing knowledge from others, and through reading, self study, and other self development activities. Development from operational experience may also be problematic because it is not always purposeful, nor aligned with set standards (e.g., a leader may learn one-way to do something from field experience, but that approach may not be the most efficient, effective, or readily transferable to the next situation; the approach might also appear good in short-term, but have undiscovered negative second- and third-order effects later). Thus, capitalizing on operational experience requires feedback and careful planning.
CONCLUSION

Results of the 2009 CASAL provide several new insights on Army leadership and leader development across the force. While an increased sampling of Army leaders provides more representative data, the addition of Army civilian leaders to the sample also proved beneficial in gaining a more complete understanding of Army leadership in the current operational environment. Results of the CASAL also help to identify and interpret trends across years. The following points highlight new insights, important trends observed across years, and key areas that warrant further consideration.

New Findings and Insights

- Work perceptions by Army leaders and civilian leaders are similar. Both cohorts view their own cohort and the other as effective in completing work correctly and on time, though slightly fewer view either cohort as effective in completing work with quality that exceeds expectations.
- The level of morale at CONUS locations is generally high (63% high/very high). Morale for those that are deployed is lower compared to those at homestation. Leaders in Afghanistan more often indicate high/very high morale (47%) than leaders in Iraq (40%), though both locations report similar levels of low/very low morale (25%).
- Army leaders believe Soldiers know who or where to turn to when they experience job or work problems (80%), when they experience problems in their personal life (76%), and when they are dealing with stress (72%). Other findings suggest seeking help for stress-related problems is accepted and encouraged in organizations (16% disagree) and that Soldiers know who or where to turn when they are dealing with stress (11% disagree).
- Army civilians rate Army leaders more favorably on the core leader competencies than they do their fellow civilians. However, the pattern for highest and lowest competencies is generally the same for civilian subordinates as they are for Army leaders, regardless of the rating source.

Key Findings across Years (Trends)

- More AC captains now indicate they plan to remain in the Army until retirement or beyond (47%) or that they are undecided in what they will do upon completion of their current obligation (41%). This year shows the lowest percentage of AC captains who intend to definitely or probably leave the Army at end of their current obligation (12%) compared to the past five years.
- The institutional training domain is consistently rated less favorably than operational experience and self development in preparing leaders to assume new levels of leadership or responsibility.
- In the current year, leaders rate their immediate superiors more favorably on the eight core leader competencies than in the past two years.
- More RC leaders now agree leaders in their unit or organization help Soldiers handle combat stress than in 2008 (+11%). Findings in the current year indicate RC leader agreement is now consistent with AC leaders (62% AC; 60% RC).
More leaders now indicate they are satisfied with the leader development opportunities available during deployed operations compared to the past five years. Informal practices have been consistently perceived across years to have the greatest impact on leader development. Practices include: opportunities to demonstrate leadership at higher levels, to collaborate with others inside and outside the organization, and to perform the expected duties of the role or job.

**Considerations for Improvement**

Two areas emerged in CASAL findings that warrant further examination. These areas are *leader development within units* and *institutional training and education*.

**Leader development within units.** Several items indicate this area shows room for improvement:

- One-half of Army leaders believe the *priority* their unit or organization places on leader development is high/very high, a consistent finding from 2008.
- Most leaders believe they have sufficient time to direct and work with their subordinates, but less often indicate they have time to carry out the duties and responsibilities for developing their subordinates.
- Leader development that occurs within units is consistently rated as having the smallest impact on development among leader development practices; half of leaders believe the leader development that occurs in their unit (e.g., counseling, individual training, growth/stretch assignments) is effective.
- Develops Others is consistently the lowest rated competency for Army leaders at all levels (consistent with LBS findings); about half rate their supervisor as effective in creating or calling attention to leader development opportunities, consistent with past years.
- These areas show moderate positive correlation with the career satisfaction and morale of Army leaders. This is particularly important given the strong relationship between leaders’ career satisfaction and morale with career intentions.

The following are considerations and sources of additional information for improving leader development within units:

**Provide standards within the unit regarding how unit-based leader development should be conducted.**

- Schirmer et al. (2008) recommend raising the expectations for leader development by way of a renewed emphasis on it in TRADOC schoolhouses. Training and education on leader development would focus on “what right looks like” (p. 64) as well as implement ideas and tools for leaders to take with them to the unit. Education sessions on counseling would focus on student practice and feedback rather than administrative requirements. Institution faculty would be retrained and expectations set to model and provide examples of appropriate coaching, counseling and leader development behaviors. In summary, expectations for unit-based leader development would be established, taught and modeled in the TRADOC schoolhouse. Tools would be provided to help transfer this training to the unit environment.
Retraining and re-emphasis in unit leader development by Army senior leadership.
- Schein (1985) emphasized the important role that senior leaders play in shaping the culture of their organizations. Accordingly, senior Army leaders would transmit the importance of unit leader development by “paying attention to” (p. 225) it via a variety of means. During unit visits senior leaders could ask questions about the state of unit leader development. They could also personally teach and coach incoming commanders in unit leader development (p. 232). Teaching sessions would be in-person and in small group, informal sessions. Other means include quarterly training briefs (QTBs) and unit status reporting (USRs)

A designated individual to assist the commander (as an additional duty) to advise and execute the commander’s unit-based leader development program.
- McCall (2010) suggested the use of a “wise counselor” who understands people and their developmental needs, the opportunities available and the strategy of the business. This role serves as a knowledge resource to line management who makes the decisions, and helps to identify or pair-up people with developmental opportunities as they appear. A similar relationship could be applied to Army units and organizations, not to relieve commanders of these duties, nor to diminish their responsibility, but to advise and support their execution of leader development.

Unit level assessment and action plans for unit level leader development. Establish accountability via including results in the Quarterly Training Brief (QTB).
- Aude, Keller-Glaze, Riley, and Fallesen (2007, p. 40-45) provided substantial reference supporting the importance of establishing accountability for leader development via its assessment and evaluation. Installations and units would be provided with organization/unit level assessment toolkits for them to perform local assessments of leader development. The unit leader development assessment would be periodically required and results briefed at the QTB. The assessment toolkit would also provide unit and organizational leaders with a method of processing assessment findings and creating an action plan to sustain and improve leader development practices, systems and programs.

Institutional Training and Education. Items that examine the holistic contribution of institutional training for developing leaders show a decline in the current year and a prospect for improvement.
- Institutional training is the lowest rated domain for preparing leaders to assume new levels of leadership or responsibility. Findings indicate a decline in favorable ratings compared to past years.
- Transferability of course content to leadership requirements show room for improvement. Less than half of company grade officers and junior NCOs believe their most recent course was effective in preparing them to influence others in their unit, develop subordinate leaders, and deal with unfamiliar situations.
The following are considerations and sources of additional information on how to improve institutional training and education:

**Increase focus on transferability of course content to current operational settings.**
- Research in the field of training suggest basic steps all organizations should take to ensure any training program (unit-based or institutional) is developed and conducted to maximize the knowledge and skills of its personnel. Goldstein and Ford (2002) outline the essential steps needed to develop, conduct and evaluate effective training programs:
  - assessing educational needs;
  - developing learning objectives;
  - choosing the right learning environment;
  - understanding how learner characteristics impact learning;
  - understanding the effect contextual (environmental) factors have on education;
  - appropriately evaluating educational programs.
In addition, these authors provide thorough reviews of various learning methods and teaching styles, and evaluate how combinations of these methods could be used to maximize training programs based on environmental and trainee characteristics.

- Ulmer, Shaler, Bullis, DiClemente, & Jacobs (2004) suggested that Army leadership review institutional programs to ensure that content is aligned with developing adaptable, agile leaders. These concerns can be reflected in current trends which indicate fewer leaders believe institutional training has been effective for improving their leadership capabilities. In addition, one-fourth of leaders believe their unit is ineffective in utilizing or supporting leadership skills learned in the course.

In closing, the depth and breadth of findings continue to demonstrate the value of this effort to keep a leader pulse by collecting perceptions of leader quality and leadership development.
REFERENCES


Center for Army Leadership. (2007). *Army Chief of Staff Initiative #5: Accelerating change in leader development programs to grow leaders for the future strategic environment*. Fort Leavenworth, KS: Center for Army Leadership.


Information Security and Database Maintenance,

Please change the distribution limitation on this year’s technical reports of: ADB371012, ADB371013, ADB371439, and ADA545383 to public release unlimited distribution. Also, please change previous technical reports: ADA541315, ADB362459, and ADB362885 to public release unlimited distribution.

This year’s reports have now been examined by the Chief of Staff of the Army, have been picked up by national (e.g., Washington Post) and Army (e.g., Army News, Army Times, and Military Review) press, have been actively disseminated by the Army research community, and are available on the Combined Arms Center (CAC) repository at: http://usacac.army.mil/CAC2/digitalpublications.asp in the “Current CASAL Reports” section.

Some of the content of last year’s reports have been added into this year’s reports, and they have also been examined by the Chief of Staff of the Army, and have been widely disseminated.

The purpose for changing the distribution statement is to ensure the widest dissemination and to make this database consistent with our online repository. Future submissions from us to DTIC will carry the public release unlimited distribution statement.

Thank you,

[Signature]

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913-758-3240  DSN 585-3240

ADB371012—July 2011  Title: 2010 Center for Army Leadership Annual Survey of Army Leadership (CASAL): Volume 1, Executive Summary

ADB371013—July 2011  Title: 2010 Center for Army Leadership Annual Survey of Army Leadership (CASAL): Volume 2, Main Findings

ADB371439—July 2011  Title: 2010 Center for Army Leadership Annual Survey of Army Leadership (CASAL): Army Civilians

ADA545383—July 2011  Title: Antecedents and consequences of toxic leadership in the U.S. Army: A two year review and recommended solutions

ADA541315—May 2011  Title: 2010 Center for Army Leadership Annual Survey of Army Leadership (CASAL): Army Education

ADB362459—April 2010  Title: 2009 Center for Army Leadership Annual Survey of Army Leadership (CASAL): Main Findings

ADB362885—April 2010  Title: 2009 Center for Army Leadership Annual Survey of Army Leadership (CASAL): Army Education