

ARMY MANAGEMENT STAFF COLLEGE

*U.S. Army Special Operations Command
Staff Workshop*

*Fort Bragg, North Carolina
18-25 August 2004*



Army Management Staff College

"...the premier college for sustaining base leaders."

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**Updated
26 Jul 04**

Wednesday 18 August	Thursday 19 August	Friday 20 August	Monday 23 August	Tuesday 24 August	Wednesday 25 August
<u>0800-1000</u>	<u>0800-1000</u>	<u>0800-1100</u>	<u>0800-0930</u>	<u>0800-0930</u>	<u>0900-1200</u>
Introduction/ Icebreaker	Effective Leadership	National Security Strategy Fundamentals	Oral Presentations (5)	Oral Presentations (5)	Workshop Close-Out
<u>1000-1130</u>	<u>1000-1130</u>	<u>1100-1200</u>	<u>0930-1130</u>	<u>0930-1130</u>	
Effective Oral Communications	Building Effective Work Teams	Profile of the Army	National Military Strategy	Introduction to Army Transformation	
<u>1130-1230</u>	<u>1130-1230</u>	<u>1200-1300</u>	<u>1130-1230</u>	<u>1130-1230</u>	
LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	
<u>1230-1530</u>	<u>1230-1430</u>	<u>1300-1400</u>	<u>1230-1400</u>	<u>1230-1400</u>	
Effective Oral Communications	Decision Making & Problem Solving	Profile of the Army	Oral Presentations (5)	Oral Presentations (5)	
<u>1530-1630</u>	<u>1430-1600</u>	<u>1400-1600</u>	<u>1400-1600</u>	<u>1400-1600</u>	
Effective Writing	Team Leadership Development Activity (TLDA)	U.S. National Security Military Command Structure	Written Communications Feedback	Professional Development/ Individual Counseling	

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WORKSHOP INTRODUCTION

1. PURPOSE:

Whether you are in a class, a workshop, or your workplace, you are most likely working with others. Groups, like individuals, need to operate in ways that maximize their chances for task success and minimize their chances of failure. Group norms are the informal rules that groups adopt in order to define appropriate behaviors. Norms facilitate group success and simplify or make predictable the behavior of group members and possibly avoid interpersonal problems. This is the first stage of the team development process. (OK, will they post these norms as well?)

We will provide you with a picture of what we will be doing academically and administratively—you want to know this information in order to make this Workshop worthwhile for all of us. We will provide you the necessary books and materials we believe that you need in order to complete this workshop.

It is important that we all take this opportunity to express our expectations and concerns regarding the workshop. We will go over the course materials and schedule for the workshop.

2. OBJECTIVES: You will understand what to expect academically and administratively from the workshop. You will work with your colleagues in developing norms for individual and group conduct in the workshop.

3. ISSUES FOR CONSIDERATION:

a. What are your expectations and concerns regarding your attendance at this workshop?

b. Consider the work teams you have served on in the past. What types of individual behaviors helped the team work together effectively?

c. What types of behaviors have caused a team to be ineffective?

4. REQUIREMENTS: Be prepared to discuss the issues for consideration.

EFFECTIVE ORAL COMMUNICATIONS

1. PURPOSE:

The greater responsibilities in an organization, the greater the need to communicate effectively. Improving your oral communication skills is key to making you a better leader in your current position and preparing you for a next higher-level position.

You may be the finest technical expert and problem solver of our century. However, you are ineffective within your organization if you cannot communicate your solutions to your superiors in order to gain approval and to your subordinates for execution. This session is linked to several other sessions where you will receive peer and faculty feedback on your speaking ability.

2. OBJECTIVES:

- a.** Practice the techniques you learn in this session to improve your oral communication skills.
- b.** Implement these new skills into your everyday life to become a better communicator and a better leader.

3. ISSUES FOR CONSIDERATION:

- a.** Basic principles of public speaking—preparation, organization, analysis, practice, and delivery
- b.** Positive imagery
- c.** Practice, practice, practice
- d.** Effective feedback techniques

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4. REQUIREMENTS:

a. Required Readings:

(1) Noce, J. & Stokes, C. (1993). Effective speaking. Fort Belvoir, VA: Army Management Staff College.

Scan this attached reading (approximately 30 minutes).

(2) Stokes, C. (undated) Reading for effect. Fort Belvoir VA: army management staff college.

Select two or three readings and be prepared to read your selected passages placing emphasis on the tone that you wish to project e.g., emotion, anger, serenity, etc.

(3) Prepare and present a 10 to 12 minute speech using effective oral communications techniques that you have read about and practiced. Your topic can be any subject related to the sustaining base. Canned briefings from your office will not be acceptable.

b. Other:

(1) CRM Films. (Undated). Speaking effectively...To one or one thousand.

This tape will be shown during the workshop.

(2) Give effective feed back to fellow workshop participants using the AMSC effective speaking feed back sheet.

EFFECTIVE SPEAKING**

SECTION I. Aims of the AMSC Speaking Program

One goal of this workshop is to help you improve your oral communication. A good leader and manager must be a master of effective speech. You must know your audience and how to communicate with them. Although few leaders can expect to speak as well as President Lincoln, or Rev. Dr. Martin L. King, Jr., good leaders must effectively communicate their intents to their subordinates and to other staff elements. For these reasons, we stress logic, organization, directness, and precision in oral communication.

Because most of your oral presentations as a manager will be in the form of briefings, let's discuss some types of military briefings and then consider proven techniques of effective speaking.

SECTION II. Military Briefings

2-1. Introduction:

The military briefing occurs so frequently that it has become a primary staff technique, one that saves time and eases rapid, coordinated decisions. It is an operational tool and requires clear, concise speaking.

The principles and techniques of effective speaking apply to the military briefing just as to any other type of speech, but the military briefing is usually more concise, often limited to the bare, unglazed facts needed for comprehension. It is usually a one-time presentation of sometimes unfamiliar facts, with reference to enough familiar material to establish the scope and content for the listeners. It is usually not the place for dramatic "attention-getters", only for the essentials delivered in an objective manner, a significant difference between the military briefing and a public speech.

2-2. Types of Military Briefings:

The military briefing is a specialized type of military speech that has as its purpose the compressed presentation of selected information. Each type of briefing has a specific purpose: to impart information, to obtain a decision, to

** Noce, J. & Stokes, C. (1993). Fort Belvoir, VA. Army Management Staff College.

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exchange information, or to review important details. The objective common to most briefing is to obtain a rapid, coordinated response. In this sense, routine staff coordination on a current project is not really a briefing. Such informal coordination could fall more properly under the label of a conference or an exchange of ideas. Likewise, when the Chief of Staff of the U.S. Army addresses the assembled representatives of any civilian group, although he speaks of the Army and its progress, his presentation is not actually a briefing, but rather an "address" or a "speech."

Military briefings come in four varieties: information briefings, decision briefings, staff briefings, and mission briefings. Although each has elements common to all, each type is distinct. We will discuss the first two types in the following sections.

a. The Information Briefing. The purpose of the information briefing is to inform the listener, report on the current situation, or to supply specific requested information. It does not require a decision, although a purpose may be to give background information and analysis for a future decision.

The information briefing may be necessary when:

- High priority information requires the immediate attention of the proper authority.
- Complex information, such as statistical charts, requires detailed explanation for complete understanding.
- Controversial information may elicit questions requiring elaboration for thorough comprehension.

The information briefing ordinarily deals only with facts. In its simplest form, the briefing presents only common facts about a subject or an issue. In its most complex form, it may present a complete argument for a specific course of action, but again, the listener does not have to act on the argument, he can simply consider it for future action. As with all briefings, presentation of the facts must be orderly, strictly objective, honest, clear, concise, and coherent. The briefer should avoid presenting information already known by the listener.

Mastery of the techniques of the information briefing is most important. The required mental discipline forms an essential part of each of the other

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three types of briefings. Therefore, the novice speaker should first seek to master the information briefing before trying to master the other three types.

While at AMSC you will be provided a briefing check sheet, the Oral Presentation Assessment, that will be used to provide feedback on the various presentations given.

b. The Decision Briefing. Although the decision briefing contains elements of the information briefing, it is broader and more comprehensive, and it has an entirely different purpose. A decision briefing seeks an answer to a question or seeks a decision about courses of action. In major headquarters (such as Department of the Army, U.S. Army Training and Doctrine Command, or U.S. Army Forces Command), where policy and long-range planning are the general rule, decision briefings are common and may follow on the heels of an action paper on the same subject. In headquarters of smaller units that must actually direct the performance of the mission and where response must be more immediate, a modified decision briefing is more effective. As the briefer, you must consider the following requirements in preparing for your decision briefing:

Know Your Role as a Briefer and Know Your Audience. First, determine whether your job is merely to show slides, flip charts, and answer questions or to be a subject matter expert persuasively selling your recommendation to the decision-maker. Similarly, find out how your listener prefers to have the briefing given. He may not like slides, he may prefer a paper copy of everything you project on a screen, or he may only wish to read and have you say nothing except answer questions. Be prepared.

Put Your Bottom Line Up Front. In keeping with the requirements of AR 25-50, Preparing and Managing Correspondence, state your specific recommendation up front so that your listener knows where you're headed and can more easily follow your logical progression. Later, you'll restate this recommendation and ask for the listener's decision.

Isolate and Define the Problem. Next, you must isolate and define the problem. Never present a problem-solving situation that is too complex for solution by any step-by-step logical reasoning process.

Assumption(s). After you isolate and define the problem, nail down any assumptions you can make now that will affect any solution to the problem. Although you may choose not to state them in your decision briefing, you must think through your assumptions now to make sure that they are both

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reasonable and supportable. Examples: "Adequate resources are available" or "The enemy will continue to defend."

Collect and Present Facts Bearing on the Problem. This portion of the decision briefing is essentially the same as it is in the information briefing, and the same rules apply, with a few exceptions. Even if the listener already knows some of the facts that have a direct bearing on the problem, you should repeat them in this type of briefing. Because this briefing is to elicit a decision, you, as the briefer, may need to remind your listener of all pertinent facts directly related to the problem to obtain a sound decision. In addition, limit facts previously unknown to your listener to those facts that have a direct bearing on the problem and that may influence the decision.

In presenting facts, strive for objectivity. Be careful to present all pertinent positive and negative facts. Intentionally ignoring facts detrimental to your conclusions or recommendations can introduce bias, dishonesty, and illogic, so bring out all important facts accurately and fully. Substantiate facts by citing single authoritative sources, multiple supporting opinions, personal experiences, or by demonstrating the facts' reasonableness. Be familiar with the sources of your information. Listeners can more easily excuse wrong conclusions or recommendations that result from incorrect human judgment than improper or biased presentation of the facts. There is no excuse for failure to present all the pertinent facts that bear on the problem.

State Feasible Courses of Action. Next, state feasible courses of action and point out the advantages and disadvantages of each. Before the presentation, you should analyze possible reaction to each course of action and state concisely the potential dangers involved.

Conclusions. After you state feasible courses of action, state your conclusions, succinct reasons for acceptability or unacceptability of each course of action.

Logic is the prime consideration in both the discussion and conclusion portions of the briefing. Through logic, correct conclusions follow from the facts presented. Throughout a presentation, disclose evidence and draw conclusions from it. Make all connections between your evidence and your conclusions to show how your conclusions flow reasonably from the facts you have presented.

In your conclusions, also list the possible courses of action in their order of merit. Well before you give the briefing, you should solicit concurrence, or

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nonconcurrences, from interested staff sections. Then, before restating your recommendation, be prepared to identify who did not concur and why.

Recommendation. Restate your recommendation so that the decision maker can use your words to state his decision.

Expect questions at any point during the briefing. When they occur, answer them completely before proceeding, remembering that you must resume your planned sequence of presentation as rapidly as possible. Remember, just as in writing, you, the briefer, must be able to support, by explanation, any part of your briefing. So when preparing for your briefing, anticipate possible questions or objections and be ready to answer them. Briefing requires considerably more effort and depth than does mere recitation. The depth of understanding of the subject and the preparation required by a briefer equal the understanding and preparation required by the writer of the discussion section of the decision paper. Both are very important. The discussion tests the various elements of the argument, accurately identifies the main points of logic, and contains the creative thinking and the logic the writer used to select the most critical steps in arriving at a solution.

Because a decision briefing seeks a decision, announce clearly at the outset that you are seeking a decision. At the conclusion, if you do not receive a decision, tactfully ask for it. When you do receive a decision, make sure you thoroughly understand it, if not, ask for clarification.

After the briefing, relay the decision to the appropriate person. Write a memorandum for record of the decision and send an information copy to the interested agencies.

It is not always necessary to follow the complete format of the decision briefing. For example, you may present a new aspect of a current problem and may only need to explain its effect on current operation plans, recommend a course of action, and ask for a decision. Depending largely on the personality and desires of the person being briefed, only portions of the briefing may be necessary. (Remember, know your audience!) However, the processes used to formulate the decision briefing remain essentially the same, regardless of the local peculiarities of presentation.

SECTION III. Preparing Oral Presentations

3-1. Introduction:

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Speakers cannot learn how to speak effectively simply by reading a book. Skill in presenting a briefing requires not only knowledge of the principles of speech but also experience gained only through considerable rehearsal and performance. Even the most accomplished speakers will learn something every time they brief or make a speech.

The remaining material, with modifications, comes from Air University publication AU-1, Communication Techniques.

3-2. Characteristics of a Good Speaker.

What makes a speaker effective? What are the attributes of an ideal speaker? The answer is simply that we do our best speaking when we have something worthwhile to say.

The requisites of a highly competent speaker are fundamentally three: integrity, knowledge, and skill. Integrity is a reflection of the personal qualities of the speaker. Knowledge and skill may come through specific study and practice.

a. Integrity. Ralph Waldo Emerson once said, "What you are . . . thunders so that I cannot hear what you say to the contrary." In this same vein, Aristotle said, "The speaker's character is the most potent of all the means of persuasion." Clearly, speech is a form of self-expression, and you cannot express yourself without sooner or later revealing your true self. If the self you reveal is unworthy, your audience will refuse to accept what you have to say.

Imagine that you are a well-known person addressing a large audience. You are a recognized speaker; you have a keen mind, excellent training, and years of experience. During your record of public service, however, you have been known to engage in some questionable practices. As the audience listens to you, a lingering suspicion prevents the listeners from responding wholeheartedly and accepting your point of view. Because the problem is neither the speech nor its delivery, it must be you, the speaker, who stands between your audience and your argument.

In general, however, when your audience thinks that you believe what you say, they will be inclined to believe also. Sincerity and enthusiasm are contagious qualities that go far in helping you win a favorable response. On the other hand, perfunctory utterance carries no conviction. If you, the speaker, do not build confidence--if you are arrogant, patronizing, hostile, or fearful--your listeners may close their minds to a worthwhile idea.

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Emerson said that no true eloquence exists unless a real person is behind the speech. The implication is clear. If you reveal yourself through your speech, you should determine whether you have a self worth revealing and, if not, do something about it. The task of becoming an effective speaker, like that of becoming an effective leader and manager, is a lifetime job. Integrity alone, however, is not sufficient. You may be sincere and yet be wide of the mark. You must also have knowledge and skill.

b. Knowledge. The first kind of knowledge that a speaker must have is a comprehensive mastery of subject matter. Public speakers are often in a position of special influence, and influence carries with it an obligation. Speakers have no moral right to stand before groups of people unless they know what they are talking about. People credit a speaker with the voice of authority, whether the speaker likes it or not.

Speakers must also consider their listeners. Why do people come to hear speeches? They may come for new ideas, fresh information, encouragement, or simply entertainment. Regardless of which of these demands speakers are attempting to meet, when they consume public time, they should be as effective as possible. Speakers may well not be effective if they have less than a comprehensive, up-to-date mastery of their subject.

Speakers should have a second kind of knowledge: an understanding of human behavior. Because all speaking is an effort to secure some kind of response from listeners, speakers, if they are to be successful, should know something of the patterns of human behavior. Why do people do the things they do? Why do they enroll for a particular course? Why do they study at all? Why do they seek the approval of others? What, in short, makes people tick? What are the forces that motivate human desires, wants, and wishes? What stimuli can speakers put in motion to get people to do what they want them to do or to believe what they want them to believe? Knowing the answers to these questions enables speakers to appeal to an audience in both a logical and a psychological way.

Knowledge of subject matter and knowledge of human behavior are, then, the two kinds of knowledge every competent speaker must have. Are they enough? Knowledge, to be powerful, requires the speaker to put it to work. Plato wrote: "Mere knowledge of the truth will not give one the art of persuasion." Alfred North Whitehead put it another way when he said, "A merely well informed man is the most useless bore on God's earth." As effective

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speakers, we must have not only something to say but also the skill to say it well.

c. Speaking Skills. The first skill we need as speakers is that of organizing material for our listeners. Most speakers organize for themselves, but this is not sufficient. We must learn to organize for others--for our audience. Most effective speeches have patterns of organization that the audience can recognize, understand, and follow.

In addition to making our organization clear, we must have the skill to deliver our talk--to project our ideas to the audience. Clearly, subject matter is the most important part of any speech. In no circumstances can delivery alone substitute for sound substance. But the way in which a speaker projects ideas helps to give them dignity, force, and effectiveness.

All ideas and feelings communicated through speeches occur in the form of audible or visible symbols. Stated another way, the two elements in delivery are voice and action. We should talk loudly enough to be heard; we should be fluent and forceful; and we should use our body to express animation.

A third skill we need to acquire is the skill to handle questions and questioners. The need for this skill is especially acute during a military briefing, because it usually includes a question-and-answer period. Always anticipate the possible questions that may arise in the minds of listeners and incorporate the answers in the briefing itself. Because listeners can interrupt a briefing with questions at any time, the person giving the briefing must have additional facts available.

3-3. Planning and Preparing to Speak.

The detailed and complete preparation necessary for a speech should not limit its flexibility. In every step, we should bear in mind that we are preparing ourselves to speak to people who will react to all that we say and do. If someone asks a question, we should be able to answer. If someone misunderstands, we should be able to dispel confusion. Any step in preparing a speech is out of place if it interferes with our ability to adjust to audience reactions while speaking.

These four steps should guide speech preparation: determine the purpose, gather data, analyze data to determine the organizational pattern, and prepare a speech outline.

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a. Determining the Purpose. Why do speakers speak? What response do they expect from the audience? A basic requirement for success with any speech is that we know what we hope to accomplish. No speech ever occurs in a vacuum; it always has some purpose that involves at least one listener. After a talk is over, no one should have to ask, "What was the point?" The ultimate purpose of any speech is to create shared meaning of ideas and feelings in order to win response. But what is that response?

(1) General Purpose. Most speaking has one of three purposes:

<u>General purpose</u>	<u>Response intended</u>
To inform	Understanding, knowledge
To persuade	Stimulation, conviction, decision, action
To entertain	Pleasure, relaxation

Entertainment is the reason for some speaking, such as after dinner, but most speaking makes something clear or informs. We give briefings, lectures, and reports to provide information for our listeners. On the other hand, persuasive speeches seek to influence listeners to change their feelings, beliefs, or actions. Although this section devotes a separate section to each, no clear-cut distinction between the speech to inform and the speech to persuade is readily available. All speaking influences people to some degree. As a result of an informative talk, a listener may decide to act, but this effect is incidental when the general purpose is to inform. In planning a talk, therefore, we should ask, "Do I want my listeners to understand, or do I want them to feel strongly, believe, or act in a certain way?"

(2) Objective. We must both determine the general purpose for speaking and decide on a specific objective. The objective states exactly what an audience is to understand, believe, or do. For example, if we wish to encourage greater participation in civil affairs, our general purpose would be to persuade and our objective would be for our audience to participate. We cannot choose our materials intelligently until we have a clear objective.

In some cases, subject and objective are identical. For example, the purpose of a speech may be to explain how to operate a word processing program. The objective would be to bring about an understanding of keyboard operations. In

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persuasive speaking, we may wish to hide the real objective behind subject matter without disclosing our intent to an audience. For example, if the objective is to secure votes, we might emphasize the qualifications of Mrs. Jones for president of the Union. An effective speaker probably would not say to the audience, "My purpose is to get you to vote for Mrs. Jones."

We should record the objective in one sentence and let it dominate everything. In preparation we should make sure that every idea expressed, every item of supporting material, and every chart or visual aid contribute to achieving the desired response from the audience. Otherwise, the speech is likely to fail.

(3) Analyzing the Audience and the Occasion. In analyzing listeners, you should know something about them:

- Educational age or intellectual maturity. Knowing these factors will help you determine how to pitch the talk. You should talk neither over their heads nor below their level. Nothing will more quickly close the minds of listeners than a patronizing speaker.
- Probable attitude toward you and your objective. Does the audience know you personally? Will they be hospitable, or must you win their goodwill? Do they recognize you as an authority, or must you prove competence? What is their attitude toward the objective? You should choose material and method of presentation according to what your research discloses as the answers to these questions.

The nature of the occasion will also make a difference in what you say and in how you say it. Where will you give the talk? How large is the auditorium? All of these factors affect the temper of the audience and the style of speaking required. The more accurately you can picture the audience and the occasion beforehand, the easier you can adapt to conditions when you face them.

b. Gathering Data. With the objective in mind, you can proceed to the next step--obtaining material on the subject. Three sources of information will prove helpful: personal knowledge and experience, the knowledge and experience of others, and study.

(1) Gather Material Through Research. As a speaker, you should start by assessing your knowledge and experience. What do you already know about this subject? In what areas are you weak? From this survey you can develop a checklist for further research and study.

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Next, turn to those people who know something about the subject--those who work with you or fellow workers in a related field. These people can help you clarify your own thinking. They can also give you new facts and suggest sources for further research.

You are now ready to do primary research. You know what aspects of the subject you need to study. You may be able to study the actual object you are preparing to discuss, or you may perform the actual skill you are planning to teach. You may look for research material in your own office or in the library. If you have properly narrowed your subject, you will have to do research on only a relatively small part of the total subject.

As you converse, read, or observe, you are evaluating ideas. You then, tentatively screen all the material and information you have gathered to see what is relevant to your objective. This preliminary screening allows you to list ideas.

(2) List Important Ideas. What should the listener know about the subject? What ideas must you get across if you are to achieve your objective? From the material you have gathered, make a list of all ideas that may be important, without attempting to evaluate or expand them at this point. You need write only a phrase about each idea. Now you are ready to evaluate your ideas. You will discard some as irrelevant or unimportant; you will combine others. Usually, you will find that the ideas you keep will fall into two or three categories. These are your main ideas.

You must remember that you can adequately support only two or three main points in a period of about thirty minutes. Even in an hour, you should not try to cover more than four or five main points. Do not expect your listener to follow and remember too many points at a single hearing. Your job as the speaker is to tell your listeners just what you think is important to them among all the information you have gathered. Listeners rarely want to hear absolutely everything you know about a subject; instead, they usually want to know just what is relevant to them. Besides, even adults, especially busy ones, often have short attention spans. Remember how many speeches you have heard that you knew could have been much shorter and much better organized and that you wished had been.

(3) Select a Pattern. You are now ready to select the best way to organize ideas for presentation. Many patterns of development are possible, and the main ideas of a speech or paper will usually lend themselves to one of these.

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- Use the time pattern when you need to discuss your information chronologically.
- Use the topical pattern when you need to list your main points, for example, in presenting reasons in support of a proposal or a contention.
- Use the cause-and-effect pattern to explain forces or circumstances that have produced a particular result.
- Use the spatial pattern, often called the "geography book" pattern, to describe things in a setting.
- Use the problem-solution pattern to present and consider several possibilities and to eliminate those that fail to solve the problem.

If your subject is too broad to handle with ease, try one of the above patterns, and then another, and so on until you find the one that accomplishes your overall objective, the pattern that promises to clarify the material for your listener. Follow that pattern in presenting your main points. You may, however, adopt other patterns to develop supporting points.

(4) Outline the Ideas. The final step in planning for speaking is to outline the ideas. The outline gives you an organizational pattern to follow, and it helps you check the purpose, the logic, and the completeness of your presentation. Never view the outline as a crutch, but as the ultimate tool in the process of preparation. Many successful speakers consider their speeches to be only as strong as the outlines they develop as a final step in organizing and planning to speak.

The outline is a skeleton of a speech. It contains all the major points needed to reach the objective. Under each major point, list the first set of minor points needed to support it.

3-4. Organizing To Speak. Clear organization is vital to a good speech. As a speaker, your goal is to organize your speech so well that the audience will clearly understand your message. You must lead your listeners mentally from where they are when you begin to where you want them to be. Therefore, develop your speech with your audience constantly in mind; your organization should conform to the thinking processes of the listeners.

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a. Conventional Organization. Speeches traditionally have three major divisions: introduction, body, and conclusion. This plan is simple and usable, and it conforms to the practice of most speakers. It suggests that listeners expect you, as the speaker, to perform three specific functions: to introduce yourself and your topic to the audience, to develop your ideas to achieve your objective, and to provide a note of finality. But to think of the parts of a speech only in these conventional terms may not be adequate. Another pattern, developed by Alan H. Monroe, may be worth examining.

b. Motivated Sequence. In his Principles and Types of Speech Communication,¹ Monroe discards the conventional labels in favor of a "motivated sequence" of five steps. Each of these steps--attention, need, satisfaction, visualization, and action--aims to secure a particular reaction from the audience. Thus, the names of the divisions remind you first to gain attention, then to create a feeling that something needs to be done, to satisfy the need by presenting the solution to the problem, to make the audience visualize the benefits from doing as you suggest, and, finally, to induce the listeners to act. Obviously, not every speech requires all five steps. For example, if your listeners already realize that a need exists, you may simply remind them of the nature of the problem and show how your proposal will satisfy the need.

c. Problem-Solving Pattern. Closely related to Monroe's sequence is the five-step pattern of problem-solving set forth by John Dewey: (1) locating and defining a felt difficulty, (2) analyzing the problem to discover its causes, (3) suggesting possible solutions, (4) weighing the merits of the solutions and choosing the one that seems best, and (5) testing the solution by exploring its implications and deciding whether to accept or reject it. In short, you may discuss a problem after calling attention to it in the introduction, offer possible solutions, prove a particular solution, and ask listeners for action. Especially suitable for persuasive speeches, this plan also works for an informative talk that explains how people faced and solved a troublesome problem.

3-5. Divisions of a Speech.

The plans just described are useful in organizing a speech from the viewpoint of the audience. Although they are similar, you may find that one better suits your subject, purpose, and audience than another. Each plan

¹Alan H. Monroe and Douglas Ehmingier, Principles and Types of Speech Communication, 7th ed. Chicago: Scott, Foresman, and Co., 1974.

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relates to the others in terms of the conventional divisions of a speech (see Table 1).

Although this student text considers the introduction, the body, and the conclusion separately for convenience, you must think of the finished speech as a smooth-flowing, unified whole. The three parts should blend into one another so that your listeners are scarcely aware when you move from one to another. You will want to plan suitable transitions to bind all parts together—to bridge the gaps between subdivisions within the body of the speech as well as between the major divisions of the speech as a whole.

TABLE 1. Pattern.

<u>CONVENTIONAL</u>	<u>MOTIVATED SEQUENCE</u>	<u>PROBLEM-SOLVING</u>
Introduction		
Attention Need	Attention Need	Problem
Body	Satisfaction	Possible Solution
Visualization	Visualization	The Solution
Conclusion	Action	Action

a. The Introduction. Speakers often prepare this part of a speech last. Not until you have outlined the body of your talk--not until you have seen how the ideas unfold--will you be able to plan the best way to open your speech. The introduction has two purposes: (1) to gain attention and establish goodwill, and (2) to disclose and clarify the subject.

(1) Gaining Attention and Establishing Goodwill. "What holds attention," said William James, "determines action." If you can get the attention of the audience and can keep that attention sharply focused on the speech, the audience will tend to respond as desired. The first requisite of effective speech is to have the attention of some listener. Unless someone attunes to what you are saying, you are not communicating, and it is your job as speaker to ensure a fair and full hearing. To do this, try one, several, or all of the methods suggested here.

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- Begin with an interesting narrative of a speech or illustration. A striking incident that dramatizes the central idea of a speech can be one of the most effective openings for a speech:

The Battle of New Orleans was fought after the war ended. In 1815, two thousand men marched off to die without knowing that, 15 days earlier, a peace treaty had been signed in Europe to end the fighting. That needlessly tragic conclusion to the war of 1812 was in keeping with the war's beginning.

The first shots were fired two days after Great Britain agreed to repeal the laws over which that nation and our own were to go to war. Better communications might have made the beginning and ending to that conflict happier.²

- Begin with an apt quotation. Many a speech has gained a hearing by a striking quotation in the first sentence, just as the following classic example arouses interest with a quotation:

"There was a South of slavery and secession--that South is dead. There is a South of union and freedom--that South, thank God, is living, breathing, growing every hour." These words, delivered from the immortal lips of Benjamin H. Hill, at Tammany Hall in 1866, true then, and truer now, I shall make my text tonight.

- Arouse curiosity. All human beings are curious. The following introduction may arouse the curiosity of an audience:

On the eastern side of the South Dakota Badlands there is a geologic feature labeled appropriately "The Door." From this entrance, carved long ago by nature's persistent forces, the traveler follows a trail winding past high pagoda-like columns into a maze of oddly shaped rock piles. And if you have the good fortune to take the excursion in early morning or late evening, when the shadows are the longest, the effect is startling and enchanting, substantiating again and again Frank Lloyd Wright's observation that the Dakota Badlands have more spiritual quality to impart to the mind of America than anything else in it made by man's God.

²Arthur R. Taylor, President, Columbia Broadcasting System, Inc., at Los Angeles World Affairs Council, Los Angeles, CA, on 24 October 1973. Vital Speeches of the Day 40, no. 4 (1 December 1973): 110-113.

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- Begin with a fusillade of questions. This method has the challenge of a "brain teaser." It stimulates listeners to answer the questions or to hear an answer. For example, if you were to speak on the importance of space exploration, you could open this way:

Why should this country spend enormous sums investigating space? Why should our most intelligent citizens risk their lives in scientific experiments? Won't our tampering with nature lead to our ultimate oblivion? What is to be gained? Haven't we already overstepped ourselves in technological advance?

- Begin with striking, dramatized facts. Here is an example: Nowhere along our famous five-thousand kilometer border do so many Canadians and Americans live so close together and work so close together as in the Detroit-Windsor area. If Michigan were an independent country, it would be Canada's second largest trading partner, exceeded only by the rest of the United States. Nowhere else better exemplifies the importance of a mutual understanding of one another's domestic problems and aspirations. Because of this importance in understanding one another, your invitation has come at a particularly good time. Canadian policy in three major areas--energy policy, foreign investment policy, and industrial policy--has undergone some important and rapid development in recent months.³

- Begin with an amusing anecdote. This old method, unfortunately, is apparently the only method some speakers know. It is a good method only if the joke or anecdote is fresh and pertinent, as the following example demonstrates:

You may remember the famous story about the letter Mark Twain is said to have written to a newspaper editor who had reported his death. The letter went something like this: "Dear Sir: I noted that your newspaper this morning announced the news of my untimely demise. I beg to inform you that his report is slightly exaggerated." I am reminded of this story every time I hear or read a statement to the effect that the days of the flying Air Force are numbered. I would like to use this welcome occasion to present a few facts which I hope will

³Alastair Gillespie, Canadian Minister of Industry, Trade and Commerce at Economic Club of Detroit, MI, on 11 February 1974, Vital Speeches of the Day 40, no. 11 (15 March 1974): 348-351.

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show that the flying Air Force is still very much alive and that any reports of its impending demise are, in the words of Mark Twain, "slightly exaggerated."⁴

- Begin with sincere expression of pleasure. Do this simply. Most audiences suspect elaborate expressions of pleasure. General B. A. Schriever started his address by using this approach:

⁴General J. P. McConnell, Chief of Staff, United States Air Force, at Air Force Association Chief Executives Luncheon, Washington, D.C., 17 September 1965.

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I welcome this opportunity to address your association and appreciate being allotted this period of "prime time" in your national convention schedule. Knowing of your continuing campaign against long commercials, I shall try to be brief.⁵

(2) **Disclosing and Clarifying the Subject.** As part of the introduction to an informative speech, you should include a statement of the specific objective in order to give the listeners something to which they can tie the parts of the speech. Without such clarification at the outset, many talks, and informative talks in particular, may seem to have no point. Moreover, in the interest of clarity, your introduction should give a preview of the main points you plan to present and the definitions of unfamiliar terms and words. In a persuasive speech, however, you may not want to disclose the objective or to give a preview. If the audience is hostile, you may want to keep the objective hidden until you have assured yourself a fair hearing.

b. The Body. The heart of the speech is the body. Building the body of the speech involves arranging or rearranging the main points of the tentative outline, as explained previously, and developing each point as effectively as possible.

No matter how long your speech may be, it seldom should have more than three or four main points, almost never more than five. If you carefully analyze any idea, you'll find you can resolve it into a few basic parts. If your speech has too many main points, your analysis has been faulty, and you may have mistaken subordinate ideas for main ideas.

c. The Conclusion. Nothing weakens a speech more than a speaker's breaking off suddenly with the lame statement, "Well, I guess that's all I have to say, so I'll sit down." A conclusion should contain at least three elements. First, it should summarize the main ideas to remind the audience of the objective of the speech. This summary may be a brief recapitulation of main points, a quotation that epitomizes the argument of the speech, a vivid illustration or narrative that dramatizes the central ideas, or any other device that focuses attention on the main ideas and ties them together. The conclusion also needs to ensure that those in the audience know their relationship to the objective. You may, for instance, want to show how the

⁵General B. A. Schriever, Commander, Air Force Systems Command, luncheon address, National Association of Broadcasters, Washington, D.C., 24 March 1965.

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audience could use the information for their own personal needs. Listeners will then have a clear understanding of both the objective and how the speech relates directly to them. Finally, a conclusion should leave the audience favorably disposed toward the speaker. It is a way of saying goodbye. The speaker should strive in composition and delivery to achieve closure--a tone of finality that clearly indicates that the talk is finished. Here is an example that includes all three of these elements:

Mr. President, "Fellow delegates:

Are we prepared to accept and infuse our labors with a new vision? Or shall we content ourselves with a temporary pause in the turmoil that has wrecked our century? Shall we proceed with one-sided demands and sterile confrontations? Or shall we proceed in a spirit of compromise produced by a sense of common destiny? We are convinced that we must move from hesitant cooperation born of necessity to genuine collective effort based on common purpose. It is a choice no country can make alone. We can repeat old slogans or strive for new hope. We can fill the record of our proceedings with acrimony or we can dedicate ourselves to dealing with man's deepest needs. The ideal of a world community may be decried as unrealistic--but great constructions have always been ideals before they can become realities. Let us dedicate ourselves to this noblest of all possible goals and achieve at last what has so long eluded us: true understanding and tolerance among mankind."⁶

3-6. Developing The Speech.

After outlining your speech, your next concern is to give the outline some substance, using support material to clarify, expand, or prove each point.

Listeners always demand a "for instance." They want speakers to explain or prove their assertions and to get down to specific cases. Good speakers, therefore, translate the abstract into the concrete. They use both verbal and visual aids. These major forms of support are the flesh, sinews, and muscles that grow from the skeleton speech outline.

⁶Henry Kissinger, U.S. Secretary of State, before the United Nations, New York, NY, on 24 September 1973. Vital Speeches of the Day 40, no. 1 (15 October 1973): 1-4.

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a. Using Verbal Supports. Good speakers develop their thoughts and impress their ideas upon an audience by verbal support. Good speakers fill their speeches with definitions, examples, comparisons, quotations, statistics, and restatement and repetition.

(1) Definitions. In normal conversation, listeners often ask the speaker, "What do you mean by that?" But those listening to speeches generally cannot ask oral questions. Therefore, it is important for you, as a speaker, to clarify terms that your audiences may not know. Words that only people in select groups know, such as military terms, academic language, computer jargon, and so forth are the most troublesome. Further, you need to define words to which you intend to give special meaning in your speech. If your listeners do not understand what certain words or phrases mean, you have failed to communicate.

To establish a common ground of understanding, you should define terms early in the speech, perhaps in the introduction. Although you may be able to describe the subject matter of your speech in one word or phrase, you may often need to define this word or phrase carefully. Such a definition will allow you to set the limits of your speech. Consider the advice Humpty-Dumpty gave Alice, "When I use a word it means just what I choose it to mean, neither more nor less."

(2) Examples. Not only do words need defining for clarification, but also many ideas need vivid examples for clarification. Good word pictures will help hold the interest of the audience. Consider the occasion and the audience's background when choosing the examples or illustrations because they must fall within the experiences of the listeners to be meaningful.

Two basic types of examples or stories are available--factual and imaginary. Factual examples are about actual events, people, or things. You should inventory your own experiences before borrowing from others, because you are always more comfortable and convincing about personal experiences.

When you cannot find actual examples, develop hypothetical or imaginary ones. Henry W. Grady, the famous American journalist, knew how to use imagery in his speeches. The example below comes from his speech, "The New South," delivered at a dinner of the New England Society in New York on 22 December 1886:

"Let me picture to you the footsore Confederate soldier, as, buttoning up in his faded gray jacket the parole, which was to bear testimony to his children of

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his fidelity and faith, he turned his face southward from Appomattox in April 1865. Think of him as ragged, half-starved, heavy-hearted, enfeebled by wounds and exhaustion--having fought to exhaustion--he surrenders his gun, wrings the hands of his comrades in silence, and, lifting his tear-stained and pallid face for the last time to the graves that dot the old Virginia hills, pulls his gray cap over his brows and begins the slow and painful journey”

Such material wins quick and strong response; it tends to establish belief; it cuts swiftly and deeply into the mind.

(3) Comparisons. A comparison is a bridge between the known and the unknown. Showing a new idea's similarity to something that is already familiar to the audience often clarifies the new idea. Comparisons can be factual or imaginary.

A factual comparison deals with actual things or situations. You might compare the U.S. Army with the Soviet Army, a Buick with an Oldsmobile, or a Remington typewriter with a Royal typewriter. Factual comparisons often take the form of literal analogies. A literal analogy draws a comparison within the same class of things.

A figurative analogy makes comparisons between objects in widely different fields. You could explain radar, for example, by comparing its action with the rebound of a baseball or with the way a bat "sees" in the darkness. Franklin D. Roosevelt used a figurative analogy when he spoke of the three branches of government as a team of three horses: when they pull in the same direction, progress occurs; when they pull in opposite directions, things come to a standstill. Either figurative or literal comparison is useful, but only the literal comparison establishes proof.

The most vivid and compact forms of imaginary comparisons are similes and metaphors. A simile actually states a comparison, generally by using the words "like" or "as": As popular as an empty CARE package; their ideas were like the wind, hard to grasp.

The metaphor does not assert that one thing is like another; it states that one thing is another. Alfred Noyes could have said, "The moon was like some ship tossed about on the sea." However, he chose to use a metaphor: "The moon was a ghostly galleon tossed upon cloudy seas." Winston Churchill dramatized our international problems by using the following metaphor: "From Stettin in the Baltic to Trieste in the Adriatic, an iron curtain has descended across the continent."

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When figurative language is apt and fresh, it not only clarifies but also holds attention. When using figures of speech, try to avoid trite expressions. Such well-worn phrases as "white as snow," "heavy as lead," or "heart of gold," may lull the listener to sleep. When using figures of speech, see that they do not get out of hand. A speaker who "mixes" figures of speech is likely to form some amusing hybrids. One speaker ended a lecture this way:

“As you hike through the forest ahead, you must be wary of the hidden rocks that threaten to swamp your boat; and by banking your plane sharply, without spinning the wheels, you can skirt the thunderstorms and arrive safely at home late for the winning touchdown”.

(4) Quotations. Probably the largest single source of support material is quotations because the speaker can borrow from all types of writings. Use quotations to add variety through apt wording and to strengthen ideas by using testimony of experts. Quotations from well-known persons are often effective to open or to close speeches and to add humor and spice throughout.

The mere assertion of a speaker may not always be sufficient to convince. Speeches often need the reinforcing testimony of people whom the audience accepts as authorities. You can often strengthen audience acceptance by giving some reason for choosing a certain person as an authority. Who is the authority? Is the person an expert in this area of discussion? Is the person free from prejudice? Is the source acceptable to this audience? How much background information is necessary to establish an authority? Answer these questions after considering both the authority and the audience's background.

(5) Statistics. Figures can frequently establish or amplify a point in an argument. Statistics are scientifically collected and classified facts. Used wisely and sparingly, they can make clear an otherwise vague idea. Statistics are the best source of proof available to a speaker, but the speaker must translate them into terms the audience can understand. Audiences do not enjoy being inundated with statistics. Good speakers will help make statistics palatable by dramatizing them, either visually or orally.

Large numbers do not necessarily impress the average listener; instead, they are often meaningless. Many people do not realize that a billion dollars is a thousand times greater than a million dollars. World War II cost the United States more than 200 billion dollars, but this figure itself means little to most of us. The figure would be more meaningful to an audience, for example, if the speaker showed that this sum would provide a comfortable home and a

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medium-priced car for every family in this country. If a speaker says that the state deficit totals 25 million dollars, this figure may have little effect; but if the speaker can show that each man, woman, and child owes the state four dollars as a proportionate share, the statement takes on added meaning. If a speaker describes a new building as 500 feet high, listeners may not be able to visualize its height until the speaker points out that 500 feet means 45 stories or that the building laid on its side would extend the length of a city block.

Unless you have a good reason for presenting an exact figure, use round numbers. People cannot remember \$251,006,510.73. They can remember "a little more than \$250 million," or "a quarter of a billion dollars." If exact figures are important, show them in visual form.

(6) Restatement and Repetition. One way to implant an idea firmly in the mind of a listener is to restate or repeat it. Skillful speakers are able to clarify ideas by following more than one approach. They sprinkle their speeches with such terms as "in other words," "another way of putting this is," and "to summarize what I've just said."

Some explanations and directions need considerable repetition. The purpose of an overview and of a summary is to repeat the main ideas of a speech for emphasis. Moreover, skillful repetition has persuasive force. When Britain stood alone against Germany, Winston Churchill's words rang out:

We shall defend our island, whatever the cost may be. We shall fight on the beaches. We shall fight on the landing grounds. We shall fight in the fields and in the streets, and we shall fight in the hills. We shall never surrender.

b. Visual Reinforcement. Frequently, because speakers sometimes have difficulty explaining their ideas using only oral means, they need to find some way to help the mental processes of their listeners. One way is through the use of visual symbols. By using visual aids and by appealing to a second sense, you may be able to establish a much better bond of communication with the audience. People remember what they see much better than what they merely hear. Therefore, you should visually reinforce your key ideas. You can make most forms of support material visual. Present statistics graphically. Use a picture of an object to reinforce a verbal description. Visual representation of things you are comparing will help highlight the similarities as well as the differences. Films can make examples of ideas, principles, and theories more dynamic. In fact, many objects, ideas, and principles are simply too complicated to explain verbally.

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Realizing this fact, the Army has developed charts, maps, diagrams, photographs, models, slides, filmstrips, motion pictures, and other aids to assist in the presentation of complicated subjects.

(1) Reasons for Using Aids. Because one function of aids is to provide a visual presentation of an idea, be sure that the aids convey the right image to the listener's mind. The wording, or visual verbal presentation, on aids can be just as confusing as the oral use of words. The visual presentation of the sentence "I like fish" could have at least two meanings. It could mean "I like to eat fish," or, "I like fish as a field of interest." A second function of aids is to assist in increasing retention. Many studies have shown that visual reinforcement helps the viewer to retain the ideas presented much longer. Another reason for using aids is that they help hold the attention of those listening. When the eyes wander, so does the mind, generally. Speakers should space visual reinforcement to keep the listeners' attention focused on the subject. Finally, the use of visual assistance often saves valuable time and substitutes for paragraphs of descriptions. For example, an organizational chart can graphically depict relationships that would be almost impossible to describe orally in a short period of time.

(2) Guidelines for Using Visual Aids. The most important guideline in using visual reinforcement is to establish a clear, single purpose. You must determine what you want the listener to receive from a particular aid. Once you have developed aids, you should "dry run" your speech to look for places where ideas need clarifying. Yet another aid might help in these areas.

Aids should be as simple and uncluttered as possible. Trying to economize by putting several things on the same chart or slide complicates the work of the audience as well as that of the speaker. The more ideas a speaker has in view of the audience at one time, the more difficult it is to keep their minds on any one idea.

Visual aids should be large enough for all in the audience to see. The best way to test such aids is to put them in the room in which you will speak and determine whether you can see them clearly from all areas.

Visual aids serve the same purposes as verbal support: to arrest attention, to hold interest, to clarify, to amplify, and to prove. Visual aids can provide no magic, however; a poor speaker is a poor speaker with or without them.

3-7. Presenting The Speech.

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No matter how well prepared or interesting a speaker you may be, you cannot be successful unless you put a message across to your audience. Through the skillful use of your voice and your body, you must project ideas to listeners to accomplish your objective. The manner of delivery determines the outcome of most speeches. The old saying that he who has something to say will be able to say it has no more validity than the parallel that he who has something to drive will be able to drive it.

Delivery is not something to cultivate for its own sake. Speech is for communication, not exhibition. You speak to accomplish an objective. This objective determines the nature of delivery, just as it determines choice of subject and materials. The test of good delivery is whether you hold attention to those aspects of your speech that promote your objective. Anything in your manner of speaking that calls attention to itself diverts attention from the central idea.

You can improve your delivery, not by study and reading, but through practice followed by learning from constructive criticism and competent guidance. Some suggestions about improving delivery may be useful, however.

a. Total Preparation. Preparation is the key to successful public speaking. You may think preparation includes only knowledge of your subject, but such narrowness of preparation lowers your probability of success. When you speak, your entire being becomes involved--your mind, your body, and your emotions. Therefore, always consider all three in preparing to face a speaking situation.

(1) Mind. When you speak, you should feel confident that you have something worthy to say and that what you have to say is of interest to your audience. If your objective is clear and your goal is attainable, you will be amazed at the flexibility you possess. You can now adjust to changing situations. When a clear pattern of development exists, one idea leads logically and inevitably to the next idea. The objective of the speech becomes the skeleton to which you attach each idea. The speech now has a clear context to both you and your audience. Knowledge of your subject gives you confidence in the content of your speech.

(2) Body. You must also get your body ready to speak because of its interrelationship with the set of your mind and emotions. Although your palms and brow may be moist with perspiration and your hands cold or hot, you should recognize that these symptoms are nature's way of preparing you to speak.

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Proper appearance assists you in gaining acceptance. Walking and standing in a normally erect position aid your breathing and help you gain audience acceptance. Testing your voice by softly humming tells you that your body is functioning normally. Your body is now partially prepared. You can prepare even more.

To make a good delivery, you must be comfortable. Comfort includes comfortable clothing as well as a comfortable standing position. Comfortably balance your weight on both feet. From such a balanced position, you can step in any direction and move your hands and arms freely. You can now forget your body--just put it out of your consciousness--and concentrate on the ideas you want to present.

The mental stimulus of the ideas you are presenting should guide your body activity while you are speaking. Your body naturally adjusts to your ideas and supports them. Rehearsing gestures, body movement, and facial expressions only emphasizes them unnaturally. Emphasis should rest on your objective and your ideas. To be an effective speaker, let your body react and reinforce what you are saying with natural gestures and movements. They help give your audience a whole picture because consistency exists among your ideas, your voice, and your body.

(3) Emotions. Emotional preparation is just as important as mental preparation and physical preparation because they reinforce one another. Nervousness is a normal and natural outgrowth of mental preparation. Some speakers, however, sometimes do not want to accept this fact.

(a) Reducing Fear. If you suffer from stage fright, nervousness, or fear of speaking, your listeners may also become uneasy or anxious. Yet, some nervousness is both natural and desirable because it often prevents complacency. Even the most skilled speakers often experience the queasy feeling of "butterflies in the stomach" as they prepare to speak. The secret is to get the butterflies flying in formation through practice. A visiting athletic team practices on the home field before game time to accustom themselves to differences in terrain and environment; you need to "dry run" or practice a new speech several times before actually presenting it. Practice reminds you to look up the pronunciation of a new word or to check an additional source on an important point. Practice may not, however, eliminate stage fright. Many professional speakers, actors, politicians, and other public figures admit that they suffer from stage fright. Effective speakers develop their own ways of overcoming stage fright, such as talking out loud in front of a mirror or practicing deep breathing exercises, yoga, throat exercises, or meditation just

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before they begin to speak. One of the best ways to keep your fears from preventing you from doing what you need to do, however, is to practice, practice, practice.

When practice is over and you are ready to deliver the actual speech, enthusiasm is the key. At times you may need to speak on subjects you find dull, but as you get more involved, the subject becomes more interesting. There is no such thing as a dull subject, only dull speakers. It is important to be enthusiastic about a subject, because enthusiasm can replace fear. And the more enthusiastic a speaker is about the subject, the more involved the audience will be both with the speaker and with what the speaker says.

Second, you should hold good thoughts toward your audience. The people in the audience are the same ones that you would probably enjoy speaking with in a less structured environment. They are really no different. Most audiences are warm human beings with an interest in what you have to say. An audience rarely does such things as boo or throw vegetables. Most audience members have great empathy for you and want you to do a good job.

Third, you should not rush as you begin to speak. Many speakers are so anxious to get started that they begin before they are really ready. The little extra time taken to arrange notes, manuscript, or briefing paper will generally pay big dividends. When you are ready to begin, you should look at the various parts of the audience, take a deep breath, and begin to speak.

(b) Using Humor. One of the most effective ways to combat initial nervousness when speaking is to use humor--not necessarily the kind that brings a deep belly laugh, but perhaps the kind of quiet humor that evokes a chuckle from listeners. Even if someone has just introduced you to the audience as a brilliant person who is eminently well qualified to speak on the subject, the audience really knows very little about you as a human being. Humor in the speech helps the audience see your human side. In his pre-presidential days, whenever Lyndon Johnson received a highly flattering introduction, he would say, "I wish my father and mother were alive so that they could have been here to hear that very fine introduction. My father would have enjoyed it--and my mother would have believed it."

Humor also relaxes both the speaker and audience, especially at the beginning of a speech, because it places you directly in communication with the audience. When you meet another person, you shake hands and engage in small talk before you begin to talk about more serious matters. When someone introduces you as a speaker, your audience may applaud politely and then just

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sit there. At this point, you become acutely aware of their silence and your anonymity. But if you can hear the audience members laugh, or even see them smile, you know they are attentive and responsive.

Humor may belong in the body of the speech for two reasons. One is to bring back the attention of the audience. The attention span of most people is only a few minutes, so unless the material is terribly engaging, an audience's attention may wander. Humor regains attention. The second reason to use humor in the body of a speech is to emphasize an important point. Although a story or anecdote is seldom real proof, it may be the most powerful clarification device a speaker can use.

Only properly used humor is effective in a speech. Consider these five essentials to using humor:

- Know the item thoroughly. No doubt you have heard speakers stumble through a potentially humorous item or make it through in fine shape only to forget the punch line. But if you know the story and have told it before, you will be able to tell it again and know the kind of response to expect. Generally, a good rule is not to use a story or humorous item of any kind in a speech unless you have told it several times in informal situations so that you can both practice and gauge the reactions of others.
- Don't use dirty jokes. Some people consider off-color stories or bathroom words a cheap way to get a laugh from an audience. But even people who laugh at such stories in private often lose respect for the speaker who uses them in public. Deciding whether a joke is inappropriate is not always easy. If you have any doubts, the story probably isn't appropriate.
- Vitalize humor. Personalize stories so that they are believable and sound as if they really happened. Rather than talk about "this guy I heard about" or "this truck driver," you should give the characters in the stories names. Successful comedians and speakers nearly always vitalize their humor.
- Don't laugh before the audience laughs. Some comedians get away with laughing first, but good speakers never laugh before the audience. If you fail to get the story across, laughing alone on a platform is disastrous. If the joke fails, leave it and go on.

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- Capitalize on the unexpected. One of the primary elements of humor is that people laugh when they are surprised. A few years ago streaking was a fad on college campuses. Most first hand observers laughed when confronted by a streaker, from either embarrassment or surprise. The following types of humor depend on the unexpected: quips (Of course, women aren't what they used to be--they used to be girls), puns (Try our bread: we knead the dough), exaggeration (The heat was terrific: Last week I saw a hound dog chasing a rabbit, and they were both walking), understatement (If at first you don't succeed, well, so much for skydiving).

By carefully selecting humor to use in your speeches, you can establish a good, necessary link with your audience.

b. Speaking Clearly. Public speaking only slightly intensifies normal talk, so let's consider this process for a moment.

- Articulation. Articulation concerns the vocal noises or sounds you make. You form most sounds in the mouth by using lips, teeth, tongue, and roof of the mouth. A person with lazy jaws, lips, or tongue is difficult to understand. Speech sounds should be clear and distinct. The best practice for achieving clear speech is extensive everyday conversation with the purpose in mind of providing easy listening.
- Pronunciation. Audiences tend to scoff at speakers who mispronounce words. Pronouncing the end of words and emphasizing proper syllables tend to make pronunciation correct and acceptable. A careful speaker checks pronunciation where doubt exists and then practices correct pronunciation of words by using complete sentences.
- Vocal Variety. Your voice is a finely tuned musical instrument covering a range between the high and low frequencies. By using these frequencies you can avoid vocal monotony. By varying your pitch, you can vocally project excitement, enthusiasm, caution, hesitancy, emphasis, warmth, and warning. Pitch adds meaning to the vocal symbols you use. Inasmuch as you may vocalize for 5 to 50 minutes, you must use vocal variety during your speech.

You may speak faster when you are pleasantly excited. You may speak more slowly and deliberately when you are emphasizing ideas. Normally, people speak at the rate of 110-130 words per minute. If your normal rate is faster than 130 words a minute, your vocal pace may easily tire an audience. If it is

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less than 110, the rate can make an audience nervous or uncomfortable, and it raises the probability of vocal monotony because some people can't or don't want to listen that slowly. The fast speaker can slow down considerably by practicing articulation and pronunciation. Using a tape recorder can help the slow speaker. A good average for a wide range of speeds is 120 words a minute, so the speaker can speed up for relatively unimportant items and slow down for major points.

If you speak regularly, you should observe your vocal rate and its change and thus develop a style. You should pause for emphasis. Some speakers, afraid of silence, substitute "er" for pauses. "OH's" and "ER's," however, weaken the speech; silence, on the other hand, provides emphasis. An effective speaker pauses to permit ideas to "sink in," to provide transition for new points, to allow audiences to think, and to emphasize important words and ideas.

c. Using Aids. Speakers often misunderstand the role of aids. This misunderstanding may stem from the erroneous belief that if aids are available, one should use them. Aids are cues, prompts, or memory jogs, to use only when necessary. Several types of aids are available.

(1) Notes. Your speech should be in your mind. Use notes, then, only when your mind cannot recall the point you need to make. Do not use a manuscript as a substitute for notes because you must find the point you need in the manuscript. Turning pages calls attention to itself and tells your audience that you are in trouble. By referring to major ideas and to one or two-word cues listed on an index card, you can immediately receive the memory jog you need. The audience is none the wiser.

You can also use quick reference to notes as a meaningful transition from point to point.

(2) Manuscripts. Certain occasions require reading a speech. The nature of the subject may be such that a word or two out of context could alter the meaning and lead to misinterpretation. In this case, the manuscript serves as a record of exactly what the speaker said. All of us have seen the President read a prepared statement at a news conference or read a major policy address. If you must read a speech, the following techniques can help you overcome some of the problems you may face.

- Practice. Rehearse the speech enough so that the ideas flow and that you are not just reading words. Practice should be aloud and as close to simulating the actual speech as possible.

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- **Emphasis.** By making notes or underlining words or sentences, you can build emphasis into the manuscript. Marginal notes, such as pause, stress, read rapidly, look at audience, and smile, can help you emphasize major ideas.
- **Eye Contact.** Place your manuscript on the lectern so that your face is visible to the audience. You can give the impression that your head is toward the audience, although your eyes may be pointing slightly downward toward the manuscript. This position also adds a delivery advantage. If your head is bent downward, your Adam's apple and throat can become bound by your collar. This binding causes you to sound muffled and to run vocal sounds together.

(3) **The Lectern.** The lectern serves as an excellent display for notes; however, it limits the audience's view of the speaker. These suggestions for using the lectern may be helpful:

- **Microphone.** When using a microphone on a lectern, you must stay behind or very close to the lectern. Such relative immobility, however, permits great use of vocal emphasis as well as pauses. It further permits you to use your natural speaking pitch and range, which, in turn, permit greater range of the voice for emphasis. Vocal variety then compensates for the lack of body movement.
- **Manuscript Reading.** The lectern is an excellent holder for your manuscript. If you can place the manuscript as high as possible on the lectern, you can improve eye contact and focal emphasis and lessen the distraction of turning pages.
- **Normal Speaking Situation.** Because your body, and body movements, add emphasis to the speech by supporting the major ideas, the lectern can weaken the total effect by hiding your body from view, leaving only verbal communication. By turning notes sideways, however, you may stand next to the lectern and still refer to your notes, or as a transition, you might walk back to the lectern. You need the advantage of both the hearing and the seeing senses of the audience instead of only the hearing. A lectern, however, even under the best circumstances, is basically a distraction. A good rule to follow is to use the lectern only when it is absolutely necessary. In any event, when you do use the lectern, use it with great caution.

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(4) Visual Aids. Words cannot convey as specific a meaning as pictures or graphics. Visual presentations allow the sense of seeing to reinforce the sense of hearing. Projected slides, charts, and pictures can be helpful to you, as a speaker. But the visual aids temporarily divert attention from you to the aid. Aids left visible to the audience can compete with you unless the aids specifically support your point. Be sure that an aid aids, not hinders.

d. Methods a Speaker Can Use. All speakers use one of four common methods of presenting a speech: (1) speaking from manuscript, (2) speaking from memory, (3) speaking impromptu with no specific preparation, and (4) speaking extemporaneously with, ideally, a great deal of preparation. The fourth method usually allows you the most freedom in adjusting to an audience and is best for almost all Army speaking.

(1) Speaking from Manuscript. Sometimes reading to an audience from a manuscript (rather than speaking extemporaneously) is desirable. Often no time is available to prepare well for extemporaneous speaking. Speaking from a prepared manuscript also allows for planning the exact words and phrases to use and practically eliminates the danger of misquotation. Finally, you may be in a situation such as radio, television, or speaking for the record that requires a complete text of what you are going to say.

The primary goal of all manuscript speaking is to sound spontaneous, as if the speaker were uttering the words for the first time. The speaker attempts to take the meanings of the written words and communicate in such a way that the listeners attach the same meanings. In other words, the speaker should do two things: fully realize the meanings of the words at the time of delivery and communicate directly to the listeners.

(2) Speaking from Memory. The method of speaking from memory, like reading from manuscript, is helpful to people who cannot think on their feet. But the memorized speech is a straitjacket. One cannot adapt such a speech to the immediate occasion or to audience reactions. Moreover, the method is almost sure to destroy spontaneity and the sense of communication. The method also requires an inordinate amount of preparation, and the danger of forgetting always lurks.

(3) Speaking Impromptu. From the extreme of laborious preparation, speakers may have to go to the other extreme. They may speak on the spur of moment without any specific preparation. When they speak impromptu, they may rely entirely on general knowledge and skill. Experienced speakers saturated with their subjects sometimes use this method, but even these

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speakers fall back on thoughts and phrases they have used before. They have spent their lives, so to speak, preparing to give an unprepared speech.

(4) Speaking Extemporaneously. Extemporaneous speaking, the kind effective speakers use most, produces the most fruitful results. Using full preparation and adequate practice, the extemporaneous speaker carefully plans and outlines the speech in detail, idea by idea rather than word by word. This well constructed outline is the speaker's only guide.

The advantages of speaking from a well-planned outline are many. The method compels you to organize ideas and puts pressure on you to weigh materials in advance. It gives you freedom to adapt a speech to the occasion and to adjust to audience reactions. It enables you to change what you plan to say right up to the moment of utterance. In short, the extemporaneous method permits you to adhere to the two vital needs of effective speaking: adequate preparation and a lively sense of communication.

Through the habit of preparing outlines of speeches, you can develop skill in organizing ideas and arranging material. You can become familiar with the structure of a speech. Then, when called upon to speak, you will automatically formulate a rough sketch of ideas that you can support with examples from experience and knowledge.

e. Experience. Learning to speak successfully is a result of constant practice. As you gain experience, a speaking style or personality emerges that demonstrates your communicative strengths. Poise and confidence result. If you consider speaking an accomplishable task, you can learn from each experience. In essence, you will project an image of yourself to an audience. The more experience you have, the greater the probability of speaking success.

3-8. The Informative Speech. Much of what we learn is a direct result of listening to other people. This process of learning may have led to Mark Twain's observation that the trouble with the world is "that too many people know too much that ain't so." The purpose of an informative speech is for the listener to gain the understanding of the speaker. Obtaining meaning and understanding by listening is a highly complex series of tasks--sophisticated listening skills, the ability to relate information correctly to old and new situations, the ability to reason both inductively and deductively, and the ability to attach specific meaning to words. If you organize the speech for the listener, you considerably raise your chances of complete communication.

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a. Types of Informative Speeches. Informative speeches fall into several categories, according to purpose, organization, pattern, style, and occasion. In the Army environment, the two major subdivisions are the briefing and oral report. On the other hand, an informative speech given before various civic organizations or public gatherings may require a different approach, because of the differences in the occasion and the purpose.

(1) Briefing. Roughly comparable to an abstract, a brief used in courts, a synopsis, or a precis, the briefing is almost completely a military speech. Certain assumptions exist concerning the audience--they are highly interested and motivated to receive the information; they want basic data stripped of frills; and they want the information organized so that it is digestible. Because of these assumptions, many of the traditional parts of an informative speech are unnecessary. A briefing, then, is an oral presentation of essential data on a specific subject designed for a specific type of audience. Its primary function is to save valuable research time.

Although no all-purpose format exists for presenting a military briefing, consider these guidelines:

- Would graphic support help? Most briefings depend on heavy visual support. In this situation, your primary task is to clarify the graphics.
- Have you practiced the presentation? Good briefings are accurate, brief, and clear. Careful planning and diligent dry-running can help you achieve these goals.
- Have you answered all critical questions? Effective briefers anticipate and answer in advance as many questions as possible. In addition, you should know enough to expand on any part of the briefing, if requested.

A briefing is a factual, objective, carefully planned, military speech to inform an audience about a specific topic. It is brief, clear, and accurate.

Choose the technique of presentation after careful analysis of your subject matter and your audience.

(2) Oral Reports. You have a responsibility to keep your supervisors (and subordinates) informed of circumstances that can affect the mission of your organization. Attendance at meetings, conferences, seminars, conventions, workshops, and discussion groups carries with it a responsibility to report

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findings, conclusions, discussion topics, and so forth, to the organization. An oral report may precede a written report, or it may follow a written report in order to expand the data. Like other types of speeches, an oral report may have some characteristics of a briefing; however, it differs considerably. In an oral report, you may draw conclusions from facts; make a subjective judgment concerning the worth of the ideas, or use details and processes to add meaning to your conclusions. You should not, however, necessarily assume that the audience is highly motivated for listening.

b. Hints on Speaking to Inform. Consider these suggestions for developing an effective informative speech:

(1) Introduction.

- Attention. This part of an informative speech should relate clearly and reasonably to the topic in the minds of all your listeners and be a bridge from the broad to the limited topic or from the abstract to the specific. The attention step often includes a rhetorical question, a humorous story, or a startling statement. You may want to make this point pictorially through the use of an attractive visual aid.
- Motivation. This is a two step process: (1) establish the basic worth of the topic, and (2) connect the listener to the topic personally by making it logically and emotionally appealing.
- Overview. Clearly explain the words and symbols chosen to convey key points. Stress the reason each key point is central to communicating your topic and the reason the key points will occur in a specific sequence. Some speakers leave the overview chart used during this part of a speech visible throughout the presentations.

(2) Body.

- Organization. Make sure that the names of key points in the body are the same as those you mention in the overview. If you use sub points, make them clearly evident within each key point. Organizational pattern depends on your topic. The time you spend on each key point should be consistent with importance of the topic.
- Support. Support material presented for clarification should be applicable, clear, current, and interesting. Support material presented for proof (statistics, expert testimony) needs to be honest, clear, valid, and

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personalized. Audiovisual aids need to be attractive and to lend strong support to your words.

- Transitions. Transitions need to be clear to the listener when you move from the introduction to the body, between key points, between sub points within each point, and into the conclusion of the speech.

(3) Conclusions.

- Summary. Develop in your listener's mind what all your key points and sub points mean. This is not the time to use support material and new information.

- Remotivation. Answer the question for the listener "What do I do now?" Your remotivation should be stimulating, realistic, and reasonably applicable to the listeners and logically flow from the information you presented in the body of your talk.

- Closure. Use a well-selected quotation, a challenge, or a stimulating question to give a clear signal that the speech has ended.

3-9. The Persuasive Speech.

A persuasive speech is an attempt to change beliefs, feelings, or actions. Consider persuasion in terms of degree. As a speaker, you may strive to stimulate, to convince, or to move to action.

When you stimulate listeners, you overcome their apathy about a belief or opinion already held. Their faith may have lost its vitality or intensity with time. You strive to intensify a mild belief, to bring alive a dormant belief, or to translate intellectual assent into emotional assent.

In the speech to convince, you seek to influence the beliefs of an audience. The position you hold may differ from that of most of your listeners. Your aim is to achieve a permanent change of opinion, to secure long-range mental agreement. A speech intended to activate listeners is the most difficult of all speeches to make. Such a speech not only must inform, stimulate, and convince, but also must energize belief into immediate action or a specific proposal. Analyze the situation, and then answer the question, "What must I do to stimulate, convince, or activate?"

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a. The Materials of Persuasion. To get the audience to accept a proposition, draw upon all the materials of persuasion that are at your disposal: your personality as well as logical and psychological appeals. In rhetorical theory those tools are ethos (ethical proof), logos (logical proof), and pathos (emotional proof). Each can be a highly effective vehicle of persuasion; used in combination, they are the basis of all persuasion. The effective speaker makes maximum use of all three of these tools.

(1) The speaker's Personality (Ethos). In any speaking situation, your personality argues either for you or against you. The listeners' impressions of you as a person affect their willingness to accept what you have to say. These impressions come primarily from: your reputation with the audience and your conduct during the speech.

An audience will more readily accept your remarks if they already admire and respect you. As an Army speaker, you may have only the prestige of the Army uniform or the prestige of your position when you appear before an audience. You must gain additional prestige from what you say and do in the course of your speech. Audiences sense the caliber of a speaker. They form impressions of your merits or flaws, unconsciously revealed through voice and language. Listeners are likely to believe a person who reveals intelligence, sincerity, enthusiasm, confidence, frankness, tact, fairness, and modesty. Such qualities of character exert a favorable influence in any communication situation. You may increase your prestige if you speak as one having authority: provide ample evidence accurately stated, carefully documented from well-qualified authorities, and clearly linked to your conclusions.

(2) Logical Argument (Logos). In the persuasive speech, you have one basic purpose in presenting your arguments: you want your listeners to adopt your position. To get them to believe as you wish, you support your position with reasons and facts that you hope will cause listeners to accept your point of view. Few people will change their minds merely because someone tells them their opinions are wrong. People demand reasons for changing their beliefs, and they usually ask for evidence and analysis of that evidence in relation to the argument to support these reasons. You can tell a friend a thousand times that one car is superior to another, but unless you can produce both definite reasons and evidence in support of the statement, you'll have little chance of changing the friend's point of view. To prove an assertion, you must do two things: use reasoning and offer evidence to support your reasoning. If listeners accept your reasoning as valid and consider your proof conclusive, they will believe. These essential ingredients of persuasion may be easier to remember with this simple formula: support = evidence + analysis (S = E + A).

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The greatest weakness of persuasive speeches is the lack of both evidence and logical analysis of that evidence to give reasonable proof. In the informative speech you use verbal support, such as examples, statistics, and testimony, to clarify. In the persuasive speech, you use the same means of support to prove. Whenever you make an assertion, you must support the idea with enough evidence plus analysis to convince beyond a reasonable doubt.

The amount of logical proof you need to gain belief varies greatly according to the nature of the statement you want to prove and the audience you want to influence. For example, it would take much less evidence to persuade most Americans that democracy is a good form of government than it would to get a Soviet premier to believe it. You can hardly provide enough proof to convince a prejudiced listener. In fact, you simply cannot prove some statements, such as those that directly oppose the experience or strongly held beliefs of the listeners. However, you can use enough reasoning and evidence to cause an unprejudiced listener to accept your argument.

(3) Emotional appeals (pathos). Ideally, logical proof should be sufficient to support a proposition. Sound reasoning and valid evidence should induce belief. Logic alone, however, governs people's actions and attitudes much less than they want to think. People tend to believe what they want to believe and to do what they want to do. Most of their beliefs and actions result from non-logical forces. The ideal speech, therefore, must have both logical and psychological appeal.

Appeal to reason and appeal to emotion are not necessarily two distinct appeals. Logical and emotional reactions are interrelated. When you prepare to speak, do not choose some arguments that are logically sound and some that are emotionally appealing. Make the same argument appeal to both reason and emotion. If, for example, you support the assertion that faulty maintenance procedures result in the death of pilots, you are using an appeal that is at once logical and psychological. You are not violating logic. All behavior has its motives, and you cannot use emotional proof to advantage unless you understand these motives. In persuasion, you must relate the response you seek to the basic wants, needs, desires, or aspirations of listeners. Every person begins life with certain basic drives that develop into attitudes under the influence of experience and habit. People are influenced by all their experiences: their education, their environment, and their associations. This condition profoundly affects certain habits of mind, emotional responses, and behavioral patterns.

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Human motives are so complex that it is impossible to classify them exactly, but a person may get suggestions about analyzing audiences from the following list of motives: self-expression, self-esteem, patriotism, security and stability, helpfulness, curiosity, new experience, freedom, power and influence, fair play, and a sense of belonging. Motives vary in kind and in intensity in different people. You must determine which motives are relevant and important to listeners at the time you are speaking. Then you can show how your proposal will satisfy one or more of their wants. The sooner you adapt your speech to the needs of the audience, the sooner you will win response. An old proverb says, "The fool tries to convince me with his reasons; the wise man persuades me with my own."

b. Organizing the Persuasive Speech. The basic task in persuasion is to state an idea and prove it. As a speaker, however, you deal not merely with facts and opinions, but with the desires of listeners. The key to success is the fitness of ideas and organization for listeners. A talk may be clearly organized and yet not arranged in the most effective sequence for an audience. You must be audience-centered rather than subject-centered when planning your speech. While this is true for all types of speaking, it is vital for persuasive speaking.

The following patterns may help you develop effective organizational patterns for persuasive speeches. In each case, the basic organizational pattern is a series of rhetorical questions. Use these questions orally as part of the presentation or as a checklist during development of your speech. Following the pattern outline is an example of the kinds of answers that each question could elicit for a selected topic. By further developing and supporting these answers, a speaker could develop a persuasive speech.

- (1) Problem-Solution (basic form)
 - (a) What is the problem?
 - (b) Why is it a problem?
 - (c) Why does it need a solution?
 - (d) How could you solve it?
 - (e) What can you do to help solve it?
 - (f) Why should you help solve it?

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Because you do not disclose your objective at the outset, the devil's advocate pattern is especially useful in speaking to a hostile audience. It is always psychologically sound, however, to take the listeners into your confidence and invite them to join you in reaching the best solution to a problem. For this reason, the problem-solution pattern is also effective in talking to a friendly audience that would not object to a statement of purpose early in the speech.

Many so-called briefings are really persuasive speeches. If the purpose of a briefing is to convince or activate listeners, this pattern is probably the best guide. State the problem, discuss the facts bearing on the problem, propose and test solutions, draw conclusions, and recommend specific action. Your listener will know immediately that you have been thorough, logical, and conclusive. You will make it easy for your listener to make a decision. Your audience will feel that you are helping solve a problem, not creating more problems. (In all staff work, develop the habit of using this approach]. Whether your supervisor/commander accepts the proposals or not, they will probably become the basis for further guidance and instruction.

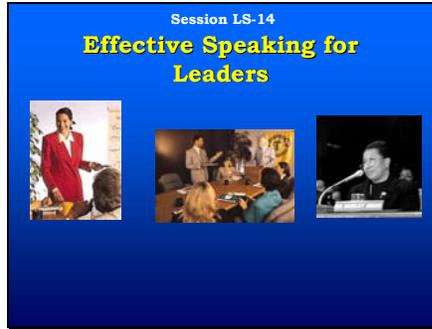
Whatever organizational pattern you choose, your personality and delivery will have a strong persuasive effect. To induce belief or to move an audience to action demands enthusiasm and intensity. You must be confident and forceful. You must show by your intensity that what you say is really important--that you have faith in yourself, faith in your cause, and faith in the wisdom and fairness of your audience. Remember, too, that a slashing attack against the beliefs of listeners may make an impressive performance, but it will seldom win a favorable response. It is far better throughout a speech to minimize differences, to stress agreements, and to narrow the points at issue. The word "persuasion" is related to the Latin word for "sweetness," and the closer you stay to this basic concept, the more successful you are apt to be.

c. Practice. It takes a highly proficient speaker to present a speech of any type without practice or dry-running before actual delivery. Practice gives you confidence. It also gives you a chance to discover support material that does not fit the context of your speech, to smooth out your transitions, to emphasize ideas instead of groping for words, and to experience the interrelationships of your speech as they relate to your objective and to your major idea. If a speech is not important enough to you for you to practice, why should the speech be important enough for the audience to listen to? Practice cannot always make perfection, but it does help assure success in speaking.

Practice, practice, and more practice. (Stokes)

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Slide 1



Slide 2



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Slide 3

**10 Tips
For Successful Public Speaking ***

1. Know the room.
2. Know the audience.
3. Know your material.
4. Relax.
5. Visualize yourself giving the speech.



* Source: Toastmasters International

Slide 4

**10 Tips
For Successful Public Speaking
(Continued)**

6. Realize that people want you to succeed.
7. Don't apologize
8. Concentrate on the message-- not the medium
9. Turn nervousness into positive energy.
10. Gain experience.

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Slide 6



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Slide 7

Impromptu Speech

Ground Rules:

1. The goal for your speech is 3 minutes.
Your speech may not exceed 3 1/2 minutes in length.
2. Peer and faculty assessments will be done.
3. Each student will be videotaped .



Slide 8

In Conclusion
Remember

- Practice..Practice..Practice
(Overcome fear and/or anxiety)
- Be enthusiastic & smile
- If you use humor--
(Keep it in good taste!)
- Speak clearly & use an appropriate tone of voice
- Dress appropriately
- Abide by the **Toastmasters International**
10 Tips for Successful Public Speaking



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GUIDELINES FOR SPEAKING—WORKSHEET I (Exercise A)

Presumably, you speak out in public because you feel you have something valuable to say—even if you may doubt your ability to say it effectively. Knowing the guidelines of good speaking—and putting them into practice—can help improve your performance as a speaker or presenter.

This worksheet lets you test the “knowledge” part of the Speaker’s Equation. Complete each of the sentences below, choosing the options you feel is most correct.

1. Before making my presentation I:
 - a. Try not to think about it positively or negatively because I might get nervous.
 - b. Visualize the success of my performance and “hear” the applause.
 - c. Anticipate the things that can go wrong so I’m prepared when the inevitable happens.

2. I think it’s a good idea to practice enunciation by:
 - a. Putting marbles in my mouth to rehearse my speech—after teaching my significant other the Heimlich Maneuver.
 - b. Putting nothing in my mouth, but mouthing the whole speech to myself.
 - c. Using good breath support and speaking with a clear, natural voice in front of a mirror.

3. I believe humor can be appropriate when it:
 - a. Shocks the audience out of their complacency.
 - b. Creates a feeling of camaraderie because of in-jokes.
 - c. Shows I don’t take myself so seriously.

4. I make eye contact with my audience by:
 - a. Focusing on different people in the audience for several seconds at a time.
 - b. Looking just over the heads of the audience to the back of the room.
 - c. Singling out three people in separate sections of the audience and maintaining eye contact with them.

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5. I believe my gestures are most effective when:
 - a. I strive to unlock my arms and point my finger forcefully to show I'm a "take-charge" person.
 - b. I don't think about it and pour all my efforts into what I want to communicate.
 - c. I consciously vary my gestures to punctuate different emotions.

6. In choosing what I wear for my speaking engagement, I:
 - a. Select a wardrobe that matches the way I feel.
 - b. Always abide by the dress for success formula.
 - c. Dress in a manner that's appropriate for the audience.

7. Knowing as much as I can about the audience helps me to:
 - a. Choose my topic, content, type of speech and vocabulary.
 - b. Picture them in the buff so I'm less afraid of standing in front of them.
 - c. Decide whether or not I can use certain four-letter words.

8. When I appear on television, I dress for the medium by:
 - a. Wearing bright red because it stands out on the screen, as in the red power tie.
 - b. Wearing checks or pin-stripes because these patterns are especially effective on-camera.
 - c. Avoiding pin-stripes, checks and colors that can strobe or bleed on camera.

9. I make sure before I step up to the podium that I:
 - a. Eat a big meal so I will have enough energy to get through my presentation.
 - b. Eat a well-balanced meal a couple of hours before my speech.
 - c. Eat nothing, but drink lots of coffee.

10. I believe that being a little nervous about my presentation is:
 - a. Something that can push me toward a peak performance when I'm well-prepared.
 - b. A negative that I will always try to avoid.
 - c. Always a sign that things are not under control.

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ANSWERS:

- 1. b.**
- 2. c.**
- 3. c.**
- 4. a.**
- 5. b.**
- 6. c.**
- 7. a.**
- 8. c.**
- 9. b.**
- 10. a.**

Give yourself 10 points for each correct answer.

A score of 100 shows that you have the knowledge to be an expert speaker, so let's see you at the podium. A score of 80-90 means you've got a good grasp of the rudiments of public speaking. A score of 70-80 reveals a satisfactory understanding of speaking in public. A score of 60 and below indicates a need to improve your knowledge of speaking to others—whether it's to one or one thousand.

SELECTED PASSAGES FOR PRACTICE IN VOCAL EXPRESSION

Compiled by Charles Stokes
Army Management Staff College

Oral reading is one of the easiest and most commonly used methods of improving vocal expression. Oral reading is more, however, than just reading aloud. It is reading in such a manner as to express the ideas of the author. However, it is sometimes difficult to formulate an image of what the author might have had in mind when the prose was written. But, we can form our own mental picture --- and that is what we should concentrate on while preparing to do the oral reading.

A good oral reader, therefore, prepares by: 1) studying the selection until the meaning desired is understood and clear in the readers mind. Or studying it until the understood meanings and feelings of the author are expressed, 2) practicing word or thought grouping until ideas can be express in a clear and understandable manner, 3) using pauses effectively for emphasis, 4) regulating the rate of reading to suit the size of the audience and to bring out the meaning and mood of the material, and 5) speaks clearly with volume enough to be heard by all.

*Before beginning your **practice** on any passage, study it carefully to understand its full meaning and allow yourself to **drink in the dominant mood**. Avoid mere superficial*

*manipulation of voice; read so as to **make the meaning clear and the feeling contagious to your listeners.***

Effective reading of this sort requires enough practice in private so that before an audience you will not need to think of vocal skills but can concentrate on the ideas and feelings you are trying to express. A main key to initial success with public speaking is to practice, practice, and practice some more. Remember to vary the pitch, pace, and inflection of your voice for effect.

The purpose of speaking is to communicate an idea. In many cases you will find that in order to be successful not only do you have to tell what your idea is, but also you will have to sell that idea. The practice and use of effective speech techniques will help sell your ideas to your audience.

*Remember, **SELL IT! Don't just TELL IT!***

Credits:

This selection of passages has been collected over the years. Undoubtedly you will recognize many. I have listed the author of some of the better known pieces. Many are anonymous; some are taken from the Holy Bible, and names of other readings/authors I have lost over the years. I make no claim to the authorship, other than the pieces with my

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***mark on them. This credit is to give full recognition and
acknowledgement to those original authors.***

Charles D. Stokes

ONE IDEA

If I had a choice given me of one idea or all the atomic bombs in existence, I would unhesitatingly choose the one idea.

You would too.

If you don't think so, then let's look closely at some simple ideas.

For instance, Henry Ford just had one idea. His idea was to produce a car cheap enough so that the man in the street, the common man, could afford to buy it.

If you look in the files of almost any newspaper from September 1922, you will find advertised there a Ford chassis and motor delivered complete for \$290 and a five-passenger touring car complete and ready to go for \$450.

We Americans paid Henry Ford more than a billion dollars for his one idea. And we got our money's worth.

FROM THE FIRST CHAPTER OF KINGS

And, behold, the Lord passed by,
and a great and strong wind. rent the mountains,
and brake in pieces the rocks before the Lord;
but the Lord was not in the wind;
and after the wind an earthquake;
but the Lord was not in the earthquake;
and after the earthquake a fire;
but the Lord was not in the fire;
and after the fire a still, small voice.

The Holy Bible

THE AGE OF ANXIETY

Years ago my father gave me some advice that stands me in good stead this morning. Said he, "Flattery is like perfume, it should be sniffed but not swallowed." I'm flattered by your invitation to speak, but I'm not taken in. My presence here merely supports your reputation, as Unitarians, for being practical philosophers.

You see, I too happen to know that Plato said, "When you have a really difficult question to ask, ask it of a young man; for he will be audacious enough to offer an answer and because of his youth, his elders will be charitable enough to forgive his errors."

Thus, I come to you today in the main, much pleased, but not one whit beguiled, realizing that yours is a difficult question. "What can we do that is sincere and realistic to commemorate the war dead?" - difficult, because today we live in an age of anxiety that apparently embitters the fruits of all the wars.

But I shall answer that question promptly and directly. Commemorate the war dead by curing this bitter anxiety through analysis and self-help. Make this a real peace.

FROM A CHRISTMAS CAROL

"What else can I be", returned the uncle,
When I live in such a world of fools as this?

Merry Christmas!!!

What's Christmas time to you but a time for paying bills
without money;

A time for finding yourself a year older, and not an hour
richer;

A time for balancing your books and having every item in
'em through a round dozen of months presented dead
against you?

If I could work my will, said Scrooge indignantly,

"Every idiot who goes about with Merry Christmas on his
lips should be boiled in his own pudding, and buried with a
stake of holly through his heart. He should."

From a Christmas Carol

BABIES LEAVE ME COLD

I don't like babies on ANY basis.

The very appearance of a baby is as unpleasant to me as is any evidence of a new, raw project.

Ugly, formless, pointless, and indicative in no sense of the architect's rosy mental sketch, it certainly has no eye appeal.

Some babies, to be sure, enjoy perceptible advantages in form, pigmentation, and awareness of surroundings.

But in no sense can one compete in lively interest, warm response, or common sense with a puppy, a kitten, or even a suckling pig.

Small pigs are infinitely diverting, with their frank and jolly priggishness and suspicious shoe button eyes; not so a baby.

Lying there in pink arrogance like a slug on a lettuce leaf, he takes all and screams for more.

Almond-headed, vacant-faced, toothless. It staggers human credulity to imagine this phenomenon in any role not bounded by the canvas of a sideshow.

To this day, I am utterly unable to imagine a handsome man or a breathtaking bit of feminine pastry as ever having been a baby.

Having seen the one, I simply cannot believe the other. Nature for all her magic couldn't have done it.

SEA-FEVER

I must go down to the seas again,
to the lonely sea and the sky,

And all I ask is a tall ship and a star to steer her by,
And the wheel's kick and the wind's song and the white
sail's shaking,

And a gray mist on the sea's face and a gray dawn
breaking.

I must go down to the seas again,
for the call of the running tide is a wild call and a clear call
that may not be denied;

And all I ask is a windy day with the white clouds flying,
And the flung spray and the blown spume, and sea gulls
crying.

I must go down to the seas again,
to the vagrant gypsy life, to the gull's way and the whale's
way where the wind's like a whetted knife;

And all I ask is a merry yarn from a laughing fellow-rover,
And quiet sleep and a sweet dream when the long trek's
over.

THE TWENTY-THIRD PSALM

The Lord is my shepherd, I shall not want.
He maketh me to lie down in green pastures: He leadeth
me beside the still waters.

He restoreth my soul: He leadeth me in the paths of
righteousness for His name's sake.

Yea, though I walk through the valley of the shadow of
death, I will fear no evil: for Thou art with me; Thy rod and
Thy staff, they comfort me.

Thou preparest a table before me in the presence of mine
enemies;

Thou anointest my head with oil; my cup runneth over.

Surely goodness and mercy shall follow me all the days of
my life: and I will *dwell* in the house of the Lord forever.

The Holy Bible

ABSURDITY OF ETERNAL PEACE

With the most crushing of victories, in one of the most just wars, Italy, with war in Africa, has acquired an immense, rich, imperial territory, where for many decades she will be able to carry out the achievements of her labors and of her creative ability.

For this reason but only for this reason, will we reject the absurdity of eternal peace, which is foreign to our creed and to our temperament!

In Flanders Fields

*In Flanders fields the poppies blow
Between the crosses, row on row,
That mark our place; and in the sky
The larks, still bravely singing, fly
Scarce heard amid the guns below.*

*We are the Dead. Short days ago
We lived, felt dawn, saw sunset glow,
Loved, and were loved, and now we lie
In Flanders fields.*

*Take up our quarrel with the foe:
To you from failing hands we throw
The torch; be yours to hold it high.
If ye break faith with us who die
We shall not sleep, though poppies grow
In Flanders fields.*

John McCrae

LIBERTY OR DEATH

There is no retreat but in submission and slavery!
Our chains are forged.

Their clanking may be heard on the plains of Boston!
The war is inevitable and let it come!

I repeat it, sir, let it come!

It is vain, sir, to extenuate the matter.
Gentleman may cry peace, peace! –
But there is no peace.

The war has actually begun.
I know not what course others may take;
but, as for **me**,

Give me liberty, or give me death!

Patrick Henry

LIFE ON THE MISSISSIPPI

"I'm the original iron-jawed, brass-mouthed, cooper-bellied,
Corpse-maker from the wilds of Arkansas!

Look at me!

I'm the man they call Sudden Death and General Desolation
Sired by a Hurricane, dam'd by an earthquake,

Half brother to the cholera,
nearly related to the small-pox on the mother's side

Look at me!

I take nineteen alligators and a bar'l of whiskey -
for breakfast when I'm in robust health

and a dead body when I'm ailing - - -

I split the everlasting rocks with my glance,
and I quench the thunder when I speak!

Who-ooop!

Mark Twain

BUFFALO DUSK

The buffaloes are gone
And those who saw the buffaloes are gone.

Those who *saw* the buffaloes by thousands
and how they pawed the prairie sod into dust
with their hoofs,

their great heads down, pawing on in a great
pageant of dust,

Those who saw the buffaloes are gone.
And the buffaloes are gone.

ECCLESIASTES

There is a time to be born, and a time to die;

A time to plant, and a time to pluck that which is planted;

A time to kill, and a time to heal;

A time to break down and a time to build up;

A time to weep, and a time to laugh;

A time to morn and a time to dance;

A time to cast away stones, and a time to gather
stones together;

A time to keep silence, and a time to speak;

A time to love, and a time to hate;

A time of war, and a time of peace.

The Holy Bible

BLOOD, TOIL, SWEAT AND TEARS

I have nothing to offer but blood, toil, sweat and tears.
We have before us an ordeal of the most grievous kind.
What is our policy?

I say it is to wage war by land, sea and air.

War with all our might and with all the strength God has
given us, and to wage war against a monstrous tyranny

Never surpassed in the dark and lamentable catalogue of
human crime.

What is our aim?

I can answer in one word.

VICTORY!

VICTORY! At all costs victory in spite of all terrors.

VICTORY! However long and hard the road may be,
for without victory there is no survival.

Sir Winston Churchill

A FOOLISH QUESTIONS

You all have met the man who greets you on your way
And asks you where you're going and listens while you say

You're going to the funeral of poor dear brother Ned
And then when you have finished, he will say "Oh, is he
dead?"

FOOLISH QUESTION!

And you might as well reply, "Oh no, he thought he'd have
his funeral first, and after while he'd die.
Brother Ned was so original, he wanted it that way."

Suppose the elevator boy forgot to close the doors
And you should fall right down that shaft past twenty-
seven floors

And when you hit the bottom and are lying there inert,
The first fool to approach you will say, "Are you hurt?"

FOOLISH QUESTION!

And let your dying words be "NO!" "I was in such a hurry
and this blooming elevator is so *slow*- I thought I'd save a
lot of time by coming down this way."

THE GENERATION GAP

The world's political and religious differences melt away- when it comes to the problem of the younger generation.

Whether it's the United States, Britain, Russia -- Almost any place you look the older generation is voicing alarm- about the wild teenagers.

That complaint was old and worn eons ago, but today there seems to be in it a hidden confession that perhaps the older generation has shirked its responsibility.

After all, who created this world with its grisly prospect of instant atomic annihilation?

The older and the younger generations, the parents and the children, are of one age and one pattern and perhaps both are in need of reminder and guidance.

People of the United States

Sitting at the table doesn't make you a diner.

You must be eating some of what's on that plate.

Being here in America doesn't make you an American.

Being born here in America doesn't make you an American.

Malcolm X (1925–1965), U.S. black leader.

African Americans

We were here before the mighty words of

the Declaration of Independence were etched across the pages of history.

Our forebears labored without wages. They made cotton "king.

" And yet out of a bottomless vitality, they continued to thrive and develop.

If the cruelties of slavery could not stop us, the opposition we now face will surely fail.

...Because the goal of America is freedom, abused and

scorned tho' we may be, our destiny is tied up with America's destiny.

Martin Luther King, Jr. (1929-68), U.S. clergyman, civil rights leader. Letter, April 1963, from Birmingham Jail, Ala. The last sentence of this extract echoes a speech by abolitionist Frederick Douglass, 12 Feb. 1862, in Boston: "The destiny of the colored American . . . is the destiny of America."

RATS!

Rats! They bite babies in their cradles,
They take cheeses out of vats
And lick the soup from cook's old ladles;
They split open the kegs of salted sprats,
Make nests inside man's Sunday hats
And even spoil the woman's chats
By squalling and squealing
In forty different sharps and flats.

Gunga Din

You may talk o' gin and beer
When you're quartered safe out 'ere,
An' you're sent to penny-fights an' Aldershot it;
But when it comes to slaughter
You will do your work on water,
An' you'll lick the bloomin' boots of 'im that's
got it.

Now in Injia's sunny clime,
Where I used to spend my time
A-servin' of 'Er Majesty the Queen,
Of all them blackfaced crew
The finest man I knew
Was our regimental bhisti, Gunga Din.
 He was "Din! Din! Din!
 You limpin' lump o' brick-dust, Gunga Din!
 Hi! slippery ~hitherao~!
 Water, get it! ~Panee lao~!
[Bring water swiftly.]
 You squidgy-nosed old idol, Gunga Din."

The uniform 'e wore

Was nothin' much before,
An' rather less than 'arf o' that be'ind,
For a piece o' twisty rag
An' a goatskin water-bag
Was all the field-equipment 'e could find.
When the sweatin' troop-train lay
In a sidin' through the day,
Where the 'eat would make your bloomin'
eyebrows crawl,
We shouted "Harry By!"
Till our throats were bricky-dry,
Then we wopped 'im 'cause 'e couldn't serve us
all.

It was "**Din! Din! Din!**"

You 'eathen, where the mischief 'ave you
been?

You put some ~juldee~ in it
Or I'll ~marrow~ you this minute
If you don't fill up my helmet, Gunga Din!"

'E would dot an' carry one
Till the longest day was done;
An' 'e didn't seem to know the use o' fear.
If we charged or broke or cut,

You could bet your bloomin' nut,
'E'd be waitin' fifty paces right flank rear.
With 'is ~mussick~ on 'is back,
'E would skip with our attack,
An' watch us till the bugles made "Retire",
An' for all 'is dirty 'ide
'E was white, clear white, inside

When 'e went to tend the wounded under fire!
It was "**Din! Din! Din!**"

With the bullets kickin' dust-spots on the
green.

When the cartridges ran out,
You could hear the front-files shout,
"Hi! ammunition-mules an' Gunga Din!"

I shan't forgit the night
When I dropped be'ind the fight
With a bullet where my belt-plate should 'a'
been.

I was chokin' mad with thirst,
An' the man that spied me first
Was our good old grinnin', gruntin' Gunga Din.
'E lifted up my 'ead,

An' he plugged me where I bled,
An' 'e guv me 'arf-a-pint o' water-green:
It was crawlin' and it stunk,
But of all the drinks I've drunk,
I'm gratefulest to one from Gunga Din.

It was "**Din! Din! Din!**"

'Ere's a beggar with a bullet through 'is
spleen;
'E's chawin' up the ground,
An' 'e's kickin' all around:
For Gawd's sake git the water, Gunga Din!"

'E carried me away
To where a dooli lay,
An' a bullet come an' drilled the beggar clean.
'E put me safe inside,
An' just before 'e died,
"I 'ope you liked your drink", sez Gunga Din.

So I'll meet 'im later on
At the place where 'e is gone --
Where it's always double drill and no canteen;
'E'll be squattin' on the coals
Givin' drink to poor damned souls,

An' I'll get a swig in hell from Gunga Din!
Yes, Din! Din! Din!
You Lazarushian-leather Gunga Din!
Though I've belted you and flayed you, By the
livin' Gawd that made you,
You're a better man than I am, Gunga Din!

Rudyard Kipling

Thoughts

Many deep philosophical statements are probably contemplated during times of great reflection and despair.

The world affords us many opportunities to reflect on the ills of this, that, and the other.

Self-reflection, brotherly reflection, or on any given situation - there is good and there is bad.

It all depends on our own experiences and the context from which we understand our own reflections.

Sometimes there is more to understanding a statement than meets the eye, and sometimes there is less.

Where is truth, do you recognize truth when you see it? Is truth the moment of deep thought at one moment?

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Is truth what we want it to be - just to satisfy the given moment. Does the perception of truth make it true - or does it simply add to our concept of truth to make it what we want truth to be?

Stokes.

()These Advertisements were done solely with the voice in days when only radio was available as an oral presentation media. Vocal emphasis could make or break the sales pitch.
Try your speaking (selling) skills on these.*

(*) WESTINGHOUSE COMMERCIAL

Do you want numerous gadgets an your new TV set?

If not, buy Westinghouse.

Simple one dial tuning.

Westinghouse electronic viewing gives you the clearest picture.

For free demonstration call your local Westinghouse dealer.

REMEMBER, you can be sure if it's Westinghouse.

(*)**IVORY COMMERCIAL**

I can't say this often enough.

It's so true!

Your hands can have "that Ivory Look" in just twelve days.

Do you think washing dishes brings red knuckles, catchy fingertips and coarse skin?

Then learn this: It can come from using the wrong soap!

If that is the case with you your hands can have "that Ivory Look" in just twelve days.

Y' know doctors advise Ivory soap for skin-care over any other soap.

Naturally, skin-care includes the hands.

Give your hands twelve days with Ivory floating in your dishpan.

You'll see the difference. Smoother fingertips, whiter knuckles, softer hands!

Your hands can have "that Ivory Look" in just twelve days.

STANDARD OIL COMMERCIAL

Have you ever stopped to think what a big value today's high quality gasoline really is?

Well, it is true! You get today's gasoline at about 1925 prices ---only the tax is higher

Standard Oil is not only in a race to meet ever-growing demand with bigger volume. It's also in the race to build demand with higher quality products.

All of which, as far as Standard Oil is concerned, you can look forward to an even-better gasoline value tomorrow!

World War II

How horrible, fantastic, incredible it is ---
that we should be digging trenches and
trying on gas masks here because of a quarrel
in a faraway country between people of
whom we know nothing.

Neville Chamberlain (1869–1940), Radio broadcast, 27 Sept. 1938, on Germany's annexation of the Sudetanland, Czechoslovakia.

THE THRILL OF LIFE

"She slips. She moves. She begins to feel the thrill of life along her keel."

*Mrs. Larson from her early childhood radio days
My friend, George's mother*

"He walks. He talks. He crawls on his belly like reptile."

"I don't make the rules here. I just apply them with a helpless and defeated attitude".

"Poor reliability is worse than poor efficiency". Why have either!

"The manager's job is to drive out fear."

From the memory of George

TONGUE TRIPPER TEST USED FOR
APPLICANTS FOR TV-RADIO JOBS

I bought a batch of baking powder and baked a batch of biscuits.

I brought a big basket of biscuits back to the bakery and baked a basket of big biscuits.

Then I took a big basket of biscuits and the basket of big biscuits and mixed the big biscuits with the basket of biscuits that was next to the big basket and put a bunch of biscuits from the basket into a box.

Then I took the box of mixed biscuits and a biscuit mixer and a biscuit basket and brought the basket of biscuits and the box of mixed biscuits and the biscuit mixer to the baker and opened a can of sardines.

GLEAMING and STREAMING

Gleaming and streaming and streaming and beaming,
And rushing and flushing and brushing and gushing,
And flapping and rapping and clapping and slapping,
And curling and whirling and purling and twirling,
Retreating and meting and beating and sheeting,

Delaying and straying and playing and spraying.

BETTY BOTTER

Betty Botter bought a bit of butter. "But," she said, "This butter's bitter. If I put it in my batter, it will make my batter bitter. But a bit of better butter will make my batter better."

Theophilus Thistle, the thistle sifter, sifted a sieve of unsifted thistles. If Theophilus, the thistle sifter, sifted a sieve of unsifted thistles, where is the sieve of unsifted thistles Theophilus Thistle, the thistle sifter, sifted?

Sarah Shuster said Susie Simpson, Sam Simpson's sister, shouted she *saw* seven short, shivering soldiers sadly standing on the shining, sandy seashore, severely shaking six sick, shy, shorn sheep sold by the sheriff for sixty cents.

For EMPHASIS practice these:

Boy! Look at that boat. She's a beauty!

That's the most magnificent sunset I have ever seen!

Why don't you come with us?

Come on - We'll have a wonderful time

I'm very glad to meet you. This is a pleasure.

I hope to see you soon again.

Hey! What a drive! Wish I could hit the ball like you do, Harry.

Promise? Will you do it? Oh, that's great!!!

I must say, I'm very proud of you.

It's **Just** what I wanted. You couldn't have picked a nicer gift!

It's marvelous, marvelous! A true miracle.

Although I'm not sure what you think, I'm really not for it.

Oh, it's raining again - always raining. Some weather!

I was thinking of buying it, but your price is much too high

**TO DEVELOP AN AIR OF AUTHORITY IN YOUR
VOICE, PRACTICE THESE**

1. This is what we must do.
2. I've read the report. I approve of it one hundred percent!
3. If what you say is correct, we'll have to act.
4. Wire him to take the first plane to Paris! If he doesn't make it, we'll lose the whole deal.
5. Okay! Go right in and let' Em have it!
6. I've seen what **can** happen. There's only one way to prevent it. We must be firm! Do you hear?

ALL THE SPEECH SOUNDS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

An old lighthouse keeper found an old map which he studied carefully and was able to decipher. From the peculiar lines and signs he was able to make it out only after a careful study. The directions were to dig four feet from the lighthouse and five feet underground for a rare chest of treasures.

Owning a new pick and shovel, he was sure he could follow the instructions exactly. However, after several tries he dug through the earth and began lifting out the box of treasure. Suddenly he fell back as the treasure disintegrated into a thousand pieces and became nothing. That night he slept a wiser man.

CONFUSING SOUNDS

Similar sounds can cause confused understanding if the pronunciation is not clear. There are consistently misused sounds, which can produce serious results if not heard the way they are supposed to be pronounced. The following lists are but a few of the sounds in the English language which can produce misunderstanding, and which can occur in your speech from time to time.

What did you say?

SAY

I heard you come in.
Could you come at noon?
I wrote you last week.
Did you ever hear from Fred?

DID IT SOUND LIKE?

I heardjuh cam in.
Couldya come at noon?
I wortecha last week.
Jever hear from Fred?

MODIFIER EXERCISES:

"ba" vs "pa"

balm	palm
been	pin
bill	pill
ban	pan
bear	pear
cab	cop

"Ka" Vs "Ga"

call	gall
came	game
crate	grate
lack	lag
cot	got
coast	ghost

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lab

lap

luck

lug

EFFECTIVE WRITING

"When I use a word, it means just what I choose it to mean, neither more nor less."

Humpty Dumpty to Alice

1. PURPOSE:

To improve your written communication skills. Writing is part of your everyday work. In this workshop you will work on writing assignments in order to improve your writing skills so that you can handle your professional responsibilities and tasks as part of your jobs at USASOC.

Effective writing is essential to effective job performance because we need to be able to clearly articulate to others our thoughts and intents regarding professional matters. Since we often prepare written correspondence for "the boss" we need to be able to express his or her ideas clearly and concisely, using proper grammar. This will help eliminate the need for multiple drafts and "redos" of office correspondence, improve communications, and ultimately save a lot of time and effort in the office.

2. OBJECTIVES: Write a paper that is clear, concise, and organized using the Army Writing Style and AR 25-50 to improve written communication.

3. ISSUES FOR CONSIDERATION:

- a. Does my writing serve the intended purpose?
- b. Is the main point clear?
- c. Is it concise?
- d. Is it generally free of errors in grammar, mechanics, and usage ?

4. REQUIREMENTS:

a. Read the attached Army Management Staff College article, Effective Writing that provides an overview of several writing principles and tips on how to avoid common writing problems. Use what you learn from the reading to assist you in completing the writing assignment as follows:

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b. Write a 2-3 page paper about an issue of concern or interest at USASOC. No specific format is required, but be sure that your paper addresses the following areas:

- (1)** Define the topic.
- (2)** Discuss and describe the facts regarding that topic.
- (3)** Explain what the most important part of this topic is.
- (4)** Explain why it is the most important part.
- (5)** Explain to the boss reasons that he or she needs to do anything about this topic.

ARMY MANAGEMENT STAFF COLLEGE

EFFECTIVE WRITING

Introduction.

One of the major goals of the entire curriculum is to help you improve your writing. You cannot be an effective leader and manager without the ability to communicate clearly, efficiently, and persuasively on paper.

Good writing is stressed because good writing involves thinking, and the most important objective of this and every other college is to stimulate students to improve the quality of their thinking.

Most managers think of themselves as logical and straightforward, yet all too frequently what they actually write makes them seem fuzzy-headed and pretentious, wasteful of words, and obscure of thought. This kind of "official" prose stems sometimes from the erroneous belief that the Army has ordained an elaborate, formal style of writing for its people: "It is requested that the undersigned be permitted to..." More often, however, it stems from a more serious, real error: the writer's failure to master writing, which is as much a skill as swimming or marksmanship, and a good deal more demanding.

Use of this Text.

We do not have enough time to offer you a comprehensive writing course, nor would all students need such a course if we did. This article provides a review of basic information that will be needed to complete your assignments.

Our evaluation of your writing skills will help you determine how well you meet standards and whether you need additional study. The goal is to help you channel these skills into the professional requirements of your civilian careers and military assignments.

To solve your more complicated writing problems, we further recommend the following resources:

H. Ramsey Fowler, The Little, Brown Handbook

Porter G. Perrin, Writer's Guide and Index to English

Hans P. Guth, Concise English Handbook

Glenn H. Leggett, The Prentice Hall Handbook for Writers

William Strunk, Jr. and E.B. White, The Elements of Style

AMSC WRITING STANDARDS

The Standard

The belief that one can fairly evaluate writing presumes that a standard for "good writing" exists. In fact, an Army standard and style does exist. According to AR 25-50, Preparing and Managing Correspondence, "effective writing can be understood in a single rapid reading and is generally free of errors in grammar, mechanics, and usage."

This style directly fits the workaday Army world that depends greatly on directness and speed. Army readers want to know exactly what the message is and know it as quickly as possible. Of course, these goals derive ultimately from the battlefield, but their importance is only slightly diminished in a peacetime command headquarters or staff agency.

The Style

To fit this standard the Army has designed a very specific style of writing. Chapter 1 of AR 25-50, Preparing and Managing Correspondence, details this style, but let's review it here.

The regulation calls for two important changes to traditional Army writing: a structure change and a style change.

- The structure change: Packaging. Properly shaping your ideas in expression can make your ideas both clearer and more quickly understood to the writer. Packaging means:

- Putting the "bottom line" up front, opening your document with the sentence or sentences that best express the major idea you want to get across. Granted, you may discover the idea after a long trail of background research and logical analysis. The reader, however, should not have to repeat that lengthy process. You should give the conclusion at the outset. That way, the reader can consider the idea right away and judge your argument more efficiently, or the argument can be skipped if the reader readily agrees with your conclusion!

- Separating your supporting ideas and arranging them sensibly after the main idea. Most real issues, of course, need more than one or two sentences to be clear. But every body of information--even supposedly "factual" information--has a logical hierarchy of ideas, a hierarchy that you can use to shape your writing.

Say the most important idea first. Then, after some white space, say the next most important idea. Skip some more space, and--well, you get the idea. When you have said all that's important, just stop! Your ideas should be in sequence, and easily visualized so the reader will have a clear picture.

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--Use the appropriate format, if your readers expect one, so they won't be surprised by a strange appearance and hence distracted from your message. Keep one rule in mind: never use a format whose structure does not match the structure of the idea you want to express. Your reader will have a tough time seeing the idea because the format will suggest a different idea. Instead, find a better format or modify the one you have until idea and expression match.

- The Style Change: Active Writing. Every English sentence has at its heart the sequence Subject-Verb-Object or Subject-Verb-Complement. Too often in military writing, the grammatical subject is not the subject of the idea being expressed, so the reader must postpone truly understanding the idea until the entire sentence is reread, or some parts are rearranged or deleted. That process takes time and effort not required when the sentence's shape matches the idea's shape. Here are some applications:

--Use Active Voice. Place the subject doing the action into the subject position of the sentence. Doing the opposite, placing the object of an action into the subject position of the sentence creates the passive voice, so-called because the subject is passive: it's the receiver, not the doer. Using the active voice can improve your writing immensely. Many Army writers use the passive now as a habit because they have used that style for so many years. If you are one of them, change to active writing. Save the passive for special occasions when it is really needed (right here, for example), usually to emphasize the receiver by giving it special prominence in the sentence.

--Use Substantial Subjects and Verbs. Often, we begin our sentences with constructions that, typically, push off the real actor and action until later in the sentence. Usually, we begin to express before we have finished thinking what we want to say. Consider this example:

-Weak Subject/Verb:

It is important that we automate this office. (Grammatical subject: "it"; real subject: "we." Grammatical verb: "is"; real verb: "automate.")

-Strong Subject/Verb:

We must automate this office. (Grammatical and real subject: "we." Grammatical and real verb: "automate.")

Notice that the revision takes fewer words and has a more logical arrangement of parts, and consequently is easier and quicker to understand. The difference may be slight in a single sentence, but it is great in a whole document--or in an in-box's worth of documents!

--See AR 25-50 for other small style changes that will make your writing more active, hence more understandable, the first time through and get your job done better and faster than ever before.

The Concept of Writing.

We can think of writing as a window between two worlds, the world of ideas and the world of expression. The writers are in one while they are thinking, but the reader is in the other. Any spot, drip, or flyspeck on that window (a spelling mistake, imprecise word, vague organization or substance, incoherence) prevents the reader from "seeing" the writer's ideas quickly and clearly and results in poor communications. If the writer intends to communicate a round light bulb, for example, but the writing window is dirty, the reader may in fact see something quite different: a square bulb, or no bulb at all--and the fight is on!

In other words, the act of writing embodies a conflict: the writer must begin with idea and end with expression, but the reader must begin with expression and end with idea. Unfortunately, this conflict is all too real. Simply put, many writing difficulties come from a writer's being either "married to the draft"--too focused on expression--or "close to the subject"--too focused on ideas. In either case, although the emphasis is different, the problem is the same: the expression and the ideas are not matched and the writer cannot see past the one to check and change the other.

These three solutions, at least, can solve the problem:

- One solution, relatively permanent, is simple education. A writer who knows that both worlds exist and what their relationship is to the task of writing often quickly resolves or even avoids the blockage.

- A second solution, although not as fast, is to forget the whole thing. Good writers will let the draft "cool off" by putting it away overnight or for a few days--until they can't see what they meant to say, only what they actually did say. On rereading, then, they can more easily compare the ideas in the draft expression to the ideas in their mind.

- A third solution, temporary but equally effective, is to let someone else read it. A writer who asks for help is calling on a fresh mind unencumbered by long hours of thinking or by still-remembered earlier drafts.

POSITIVE STEPS TOWARD BETTER WRITING

The Writing Process.

Coherent writing demands coherent planning. Writers who define and organize their material before drafting are, in effect, enabling the smooth execution of that drafting. On the other hand, writers who think as they

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write, who attempt to create and organize their ideas even as they are creating and organizing the expression of those emerging ideas, make a lot of extra work for themselves. Almost always, the draft reveals a tangle of ill-defined, ill-chosen ideas rather than a reasonable progression of ideas that are clear and proper. Skipping the prewriting steps usually leads to starting all over again after wasting precious time and energy.

Here is a simple, five-step writing process:

- Research
- Plan
- Draft
- Revise
- Proof

This process can apply to everything you write, even that letter to your favorite friend or relative as well as to the tasks at hand in your office. Note that drafting is neither the first step in the process nor more than just one step among five. The steps of researching and planning form a prewriting phase during which you do most of your thinking: you learn about your subject or problem, discover your options, decide what to do, and organize all that you have done into a coherent framework. Then, you are ready to write!

Note, too, that this process is only generally sequential. At any later step, you will often have to return to an earlier step before going on. For example, your planning may show your researching incomplete. Or, your drafting or revising may reveal an error in planning, an error in researching, or both. Good writers, however, know that writing does not always occur "by the numbers." Further, because they don't expect perfect first plans or first drafts, they are not disappointed--or made nervous or upset--by imperfection. They know it's normal. In fact, they see those first products as writing aids to reveal errors otherwise unseen. Then they revise as necessary to reach the final, best product. Check any writing manual or ask anyone who you think is a good writer to describe his or her process. You may expand their description, condense it, or even approach it differently, but the idea will be the same.

Here are some added thoughts regarding "writing."

People who write well are those who think well. We can come to this conclusion by observation, constant reading of a variety of student papers, and individual discussions with both faculty and students at AMSC. It is easier to construct a response to a problem statement when you have a response in mind or have sufficiently organized it mentally. More frequently, students who are successful exhibit both good thinking for writing and good mechanics. In theory, you can relearn the

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mechanics through personal study and even attendance at the writing workshops.

Writing in this workshop

You are here because you want to improve your writing. Numerous studies show that motivation moves mountains. We will have very little time to effect a change in your writing performance. So, it's up to you put in the effort. We are here to assist. We'll give you feedback that will help you down the road. By the way, our experience is that those who take part in these workshops improve their writing. **Bottom line:** It is your responsibility to learn and apply good writing styles and techniques.

Army Regulation 25-50

3 June 2002

Effective date: 15 June 2002

UNCLASSIFIED

Information Management

Preparing and Managing Correspondence

SUMMARY of CHANGE

AR 25-50

Preparing and Managing Correspondence

Specifically, this revision dated 3 June 2002-

- * Changes letterhead policy for preparing correspondence.
- * Removes the requirement for placement of a file number after the office symbol on correspondence (para [2-4a\(1\)](#)).
- * This revision-
- * Supersedes AR 25-50, dated 21 November 1988.
- * Eliminates the use of the endorsement as an authorized form of correspondence. The memorandum will be used in all instances where an endorsement was previously used.

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- * Makes significant changes in the use of the memorandum and letter (paras [1-7a](#) and [b](#), [2-2](#), [3-2](#)).
- * Modifies the addressing of mail and correspondence (paras [1-8](#), [1-9](#), [2-4a\(4\)](#)).
- * Modifies the MEMORANDUM FOR line (para 2-4a(4)).
- * Modifies abbreviation practices (para [1-16](#) and throughout).
- * Eliminates duplication of policy on letterhead stationery contained in [AR 25-30](#), The Army Publishing and Printing Program, 21 June 1999.
- * Revises [DA Form 1222](#) (Routing Slip).

**Chapter 1
Preparing Correspondence**

**Section I
General**

1-1. Purpose

This regulation prescribes Department of the Army (DA) policies, procedures, and standard formats for preparing and processing Army correspondence.

1-2. References

Required and related publications and prescribed and referenced forms are listed in appendix [A](#).

1-3. Explanation of abbreviations and terms

Abbreviations and terms used in this regulation are explained in the [glossary](#).

1-4. Responsibilities

a. The Administrative Assistant to the Secretary of the Army will--

- (1) Establish policies and procedures for preparing correspondence on behalf of the Secretary of the Army.
- (2) Oversee Army correspondence on behalf of the Secretary of the Army.

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- b.* The Deputy Chief of Staff for Personnel will develop policy and direction of correspondence management for DA.
- c.* The Deputy Chief of Staff for Operations and Plans will incorporate effective and efficient Army writing into training policy and will fund any special requirements.
- d.* Heads of Headquarters, Department of the Army (HQDA) agencies and commanders of major Army commands (MACOMs), installations, activities, and units will supervise and manage the Correspondence Management Program within their agencies or commands.
- e.* Commanders at all levels will actively support effective and efficient Army writing by working to eliminate poor writing in their commands and providing training opportunities for all Army writers.

1-5. Restrictions to this regulation

This regulation has been made as complete as possible to avoid the need to issue additional instructions. The correspondence formats outlined in this regulation take precedence over format instructions outlined in other regulations or directives. Therefore, supplements to this regulation will be restricted to instructions that are unique to an agency or command. Guidance found in [DA Memo 25-52](#), dated 15 September 1996 (Staff Action Process and Correspondence Policies), must be followed when preparing correspondence for signature by the Secretary of Defense; Secretary of the Army; Chief of Staff, Army; Vice Chief of Staff, Army; and the Director of the Army Staff.

1-6. Objectives

The objectives of this regulation are to--

- a.* Create a standard of acceptance for written communication in the Army.
- b.* Provide clear instructions for the preparation of all correspondence. This should reduce the time needed for training in this area.
- c.* Reduce the cost of preparing correspondence.
- d.* Standardize the preparation and distribution of correspondence.

Section II

General Correspondence Guidance

1-7. Methods of communication

a. Personal or telephone contact. Whenever possible and appropriate, conduct official business by personal contact, local telephone, Defense Switched Network (DSN) or electronic mail (e-mail). A memorandum for record (MFR) should be used to document any decisions or agreements reached during these communications.

b. Memorandum. The memorandum will be used for correspondence within a department or agency, as well as for routine correspondence to Federal Government agencies outside the Department of Defense (DOD). Do not use the memorandum format for corresponding with the families of military personnel or private businesses. See paragraph [2-2](#) for the proper use of the memorandum.

c. Letter. Letters will be used for correspondence addressed to the President or the Vice President of the United States, members of the White House staff, members of Congress, Justices of the Supreme Court, heads of departments and agencies, State governors, mayors, foreign government officials, and the public. Letters may also be used to address individuals outside the department or agency when a personal tone is appropriate, such as in letters of commendation or condolence. See paragraph [3-2](#) for the proper use of the letter.

d. Electronic mail. Electronic mail may be used for unclassified organizational and individual information transfer.

e. Automated Digital Network (AUTODIN) messages. Use electronically transmitted AUTODIN messages or commercial telephone only when other means of transmission will not suffice.

1-8. Direct communications

Send correspondence as directly as possible to the action office concerned. See paragraph [2-4a\(4\)](#). Include the action officer's name and office symbol when addressing correspondence.

1-9. Routing through channels

a. Routing action correspondence. Route correspondence through commands, agencies, or offices expected to exercise control or to take action.

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b. Bypassing intermediate headquarters. Correspondence will not be routed through a headquarters that has no interest or concern in the matter or action. However, a copy of the communication and the referral action will be sent to the command, agency, or office that was bypassed. Routine correspondence may bypass intermediate headquarters when--

- (1) It is apparent that the intermediate headquarters is not concerned.
- (2) No action is required.
- (3) No controls need to be exercised.

c. Routing directly to the addressee. When there is not enough time to route a communication through channels and still meet a suspense date, send it directly to the addressee. This is an exception to [1-9a](#). At the same time, send a copy of the communication and referral action to the organizations that were bypassed.

d. Using technical channels. Use technical channels to route correspondence that deals with technical matters. This includes technical reports, instructions, or requests for information that do not involve command matters. Before using technical channels, ensure that the action is not one that should be sent through command channels. Do not use FOR THE COMMANDER on the authority line of technical channel correspondence.

1-10. Quality of writing

Department of the Army writing will be clear, concise, and effective. Army correspondence must aid effective and efficient communication and decision making. Writing that is effective and efficient can be understood in a single rapid reading and is generally free of errors in grammar, mechanics, and usage. Refer to paragraphs [1-43](#) through [1-46](#) of chapter 1 and appendix [B](#) of this regulation and to [DA Pamphlet \(Pam\) 600-67](#), Effective Writing for Army Leaders, for more information on effective and efficient Army writing. The standards contained in these references are the mandated Army style.

1-11. Rewriting, retyping, and drafts

a. Correspondence and mission accomplishment. Correspondence helps the Army accomplish its mission. Information clarity and efficient mission accomplishment are the most important aspects of correspondence.

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b. Rewriting. Excessive revisions to create a perfect product are a waste of time. The objectives of good correspondence are clarity and brevity. Do not rewrite internal DA correspondence unless it is clearly inadequate for the intended purpose. Do not rewrite to correct minor errors in format, arrangement, and phraseology unless the correspondence is going outside DA or to the general public.

c. Retyping. Do not retype DA correspondence to correct typographical errors, word omissions, or other minor errors unless the changes are so numerous that the end result looks sloppy. Make corrections neatly and legibly with pen and ink.

d. Drafts. When correspondence must be prepared for the approval or concurrence of another office, submit it in draft form (unless it is known that it will not be changed). The approving or reviewing official will approve and return the draft. Prepare the final correspondence for signature and attach the draft to the record copy.

1-12. Review of outgoing correspondence

Keep the number of times outgoing correspondence is reviewed to a minimum. Normally, make one review for grammar, format, and content. When available, use electronic spell check. The senior secretary or administrative officer of an organization should provide a final review of all the correspondence prepared for the signature of the signing official.

1-13. Form letters

The term "form letter" is a generic term and encompasses memorandums and letters. Form letters save time and money and often provide a higher level of quality than composed letters.

a. Economy. The form letter, when designed and used properly, is the most economical of all correspondence media.

b. Appropriateness. Use a form letter to convey information about impersonal or routine matters.

c. Flexibility. Form letters that are well designed provide flexibility and can be adapted to serve almost all the needs for which a form letter is economical and appropriate.

d. Forms approval and control. See [AR 25-30](#), The Army Publishing and Printing Program, for information on approval procedures and forms control.

1-14. Exclusive For correspondence

- a. Use.* Use Exclusive For correspondence for matters of a sensitive or privileged nature. Keep its use to a minimum to avoid delay of action if the named addressee is absent or unavailable to receive and act on the correspondence. Prepare Exclusive For correspondence in either the letter or memorandum format.
- b. Addressing.* Address Exclusive For correspondence to the name and title of the addressee.
- c. Handling.* When preparing Exclusive For correspondence, place it in a sealed envelope. Type and underline the words Exclusive For on the envelope. Distribution center and mailroom workers will give this kind of mail to addressees unopened.
- d. Personal For.* The term Personal For is not authorized for use on Army correspondence, but it is used in certain electronic message traffic as prescribed in [AR 25-11](#), Record Communications and the Privacy Communications System.

EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP

1. PURPOSE:

Everyone in a leadership position sets an example and creates expectations on the part of followers. The example may be good or bad, and the expectations may be positive or negative, realistic or unrealistic. Leaders must have a benchmark against which they can measure their performance. Using personal observations, experiences, and discussions, you will develop a framework for leadership and management.

Differences in both the competence and confidence of your followers means that you will have to adjust your leadership style in order to achieve the best results. Since each leadership style requires different time demands, there is a direct relationship between developing your subordinates and having the time to do your own job.

This session covers the characteristics of effective leaders and the concept of situational leadership. It allows you to consider your leadership style and your ability to adapt that style to the various developmental levels of your followers.

2. OBJECTIVES:

- a. Develop a list of characteristics and behaviors of effective leaders.
- b. Analyze an individual's leadership behaviors related to the developmental level of their followers, and apply these concepts to your own leadership skills.

3. ISSUES FOR CONSIDERATION:

- a. Think of the best leader(s) you have ever known, or known of. What characteristics made them so effective?
- b. Leaders must have followers in order to be leaders. What are the characteristics of good followers?

4. REQUIREMENTS:

- a. **Required Readings:** None
- b. **Other:** Be prepared to discuss the Issues for Consideration.

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Slide 1



Slide 2



Slide 3



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Slide 13

Army Values
"Respect"
Treat people as they should be treated.

Slide 14

Army Values
"Selfless Service"
Put the welfare of the nation, the Army, and
your subordinates before your own.

Slide 15

Army Values
"Honor"
Live up to all the Army values.

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Slide 16

Army Values
"Integrity"
Do what's right, legally and morally.

Slide 17

Army Values
"Personal Courage"
Face fear, danger, or adversity (Physical or Moral)

Slide 18

Interpersonal Skills
Coaching
Teaching
Counseling
Motivating
Empowering

Conceptual Skills
Creative Thinking
Analytical Reasoning
Critical Thinking
Ethical Reasoning

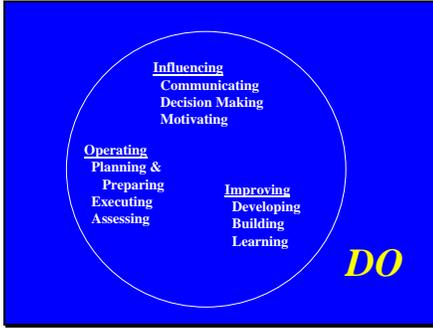
Technical Skills

Tactical Skills

KNOW

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Slide 19



Slide 20



Slide 21



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Slide 22

**COMMUNICATION
BARRIERS**

- Physical distractions
- Semantic problems
- Mixed messages
- Cultural differences
- Absence of feedback
- Status effects

Slide 23

You Make the Difference!



"The Army Of Tomorrow Relies On The Army Of Today
To Accept The Challenge And Responsibility For The
Development Of Leaders For The Future"
GEN Vuono

Slide 24

WEBSITE

Separate Sections For The Leader Domains Of Values,
Attributes, Skills, And Actions

Viewers Can Download Manual And Chain Teaching Package
(- videos)

Viewers Can Visit Links To Vignettes And Examples

Viewers Can Participate In A Leadership Forum
To Share Experiences And Provide Feedback
For The Next FM 22-100

www.fm22-100.army.mil

BUILDING EFFECTIVE WORK TEAMS

1. PURPOSE:

A fundamental goal of this workshop is to introduce you to skills and techniques that will allow you to work successfully on various kinds of teams. You must learn how to form effective working relationships and maintain cohesive teams. This session allows you to participate in team building exercises and acquire an understanding of team concepts. It is very important to develop team skills in the workplace. Much of the learning is accomplished through group or team exercises. Understanding group behavior and how teams function is imperative, and feedback is a necessary part of developing strong, motivated teams.

This lesson emphasizes the importance of team building in developing effective work organizations and group effort toward goals. The roles of the leader as a decision-maker, communicator, and motivator of teams are applied in a demanding environment. This session helps refine problem solving skills while under stress.

You will develop and refine your leadership skills. Discussion will focus on such team building areas as goals, interdependence, commitment, accountability, and problem solving under stress. All of these areas are applicable within offices, directorates, and agencies that must work together in organizational teams.

2. OBJECTIVES:

a. Apply concepts of team building and team development using personal and workshop experiences.

b. Develop a list of characteristics of effective teams and team members, participate in a team problem solving exercise, and provide effective feedback.

3. ISSUES FOR CONSIDERATION:

a. Is there a significant difference between "groups" and "teams"? Explain.

b. Can problems be solved more effectively in a team environment? If so, what kinds of problems or decisions?

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c. What is the effect of team-building or team-subverting roles on the team and the organization?

4. REQUIREMENTS:

a. Be prepared to participate in a team problem solving exercise.

b. Readings: Complete this reading prior to this session.

Rycroft, L. A. & Konopka, M. A. (2002). Teams and team building.
Fort Belvoir, VA: Army Management Staff College.

This article is attached. It covers basic information on teams, stages of team development, and team member roles.

TEAMS AND TEAM BUILDING**

The Basics

In elementary school, the math books always began the section on whole numbers with the terms used to describe groups of animals. A group of geese is a gaggle. A group of elephants is a herd. A group of wolves is a pack. What is a group of people? A bunch? A team? What is the difference between a group and a team? Is there a difference? Teams and teamwork is the focus of most successful and innovative organizations, to include the U.S. Government and the Department of the Army. Team building is a strategy used by these organizations to effectively create teams to pursue the organization's goals and achieve its mission. In this article, definitions of teams and team building, characteristics of teams, and team member roles and behaviors are discussed in order to provide an overview.

A group is characterized by a gathering of individuals with common interests forming a recognizable unit. Groups tend to be simply a collection of personalities with their own agendas. Often times, these agendas are more valuable to those personalities than the agenda that the majority of the group members seek to fulfill. Discussions in such groups are often characterized by shifting agendas, power subgroups, and simply going along with decisions rather than demonstrating or displaying commitment. The result is one person or a subgroup gaining its desires over another.

A team, on the other hand, is a group of people working together in a coordinated effort **toward a common goal or purpose**. The single most distinguishing characteristic a team possesses is that they have, as their highest priority, the accomplishment of team goals. In a team, the members support one another. They collaborate freely and communicate openly and clearly with one another. Cooperation is the method of operating.

Many groups can, and often do, evolve into closely-knit teams. Some of the more common groups that do this are: (Quick, 1992, pp. 3-5)

Committees: Which usually serve as investigative or advisory bodies reporting to the person or agency that has appointed and organized them.

** Rycroft, L. A. & Konopka, M. A. (2002). Fort Belvoir, VA: Army Management Staff College.

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Task forces and Ad Hoc Teams: Which, most often, are temporary problem-solving groups formed to deal with issues that cross functions or lines of authority.

Process Action Teams: Consisting of groups of employees and supervisors who search for ways to increase the effectiveness of their work groups through higher productivity and improved quality.

Project groups: Organized to work specifically on a project, such as a new product, a new facility, or a computer program. Like the task force, the project group may have a temporary existence. When its mission has been accomplished, the group disbands.

Why Teams?

Before examining the characteristics of a successful or effective team, it is important to understand the benefits for both team members and the organization for working together in teams (Quick, 1992, pp. 13-14).

Collaboration is the primary benefit. People want to work well together to support one another because they identify with the team. They want the team to shine and be successful. Individual competitiveness is reduced. They want to do more than just cooperate with one another. They *collaborate*; they willingly invest themselves in the team effort.

Communication is another benefit. People who have learned to support and trust one another share what they know freely. They realize the importance to the team to pass on the information that members need to operate more effectively. Information flows freely up, down, and sideways.

There is also a more efficient *application of resources*, talents, and strengths because people are applying them willingly and sharing them with other team members. Whenever one member of a team lacks certain knowledge or competence, another is there to fill the gap.

A fourth benefit is *decisions and solutions*--made simultaneously, with everyone generating and evaluating more options than one person can develop. Decisions are by consensus, which means they are usually better than what even the brightest person in the work group could come up with alone. This concept is also known as synergy, the action of two or more individuals to achieve an effort of which each is individually incapable or the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. The down side may be that "conventional wisdom"

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may be the lowest common denominator and it may not be the best possible decision.

People who are responsible for decisions and solutions own them, and consequently, they feel *committed* to carrying them out successfully. Team members also feel a strong commitment to the team itself, not to let it down.

And last is *quality*. There is a genuine concern for achieving quality and accuracy because employees feel they are part of a team effort and want to make the team look as good as possible. Since team members are also working collaboratively, they are ensuring that each member gets what he or she needs from the team to turn out the best possible work.

Characteristics of an Effective Team:

In his book Team Players and Teamwork: The New Competitive Business Strategy, Parker (1990) devotes an entire chapter to "What makes a team effective or ineffective." The factors listed below are some of the principal characteristics of an effective team (Parker, 1990, p.33).

Clear Purpose: The vision, mission, goals, or tasks of the team have been defined and are accepted by everyone. There is an action plan.

Informality: The "climate" or atmosphere tends to be informal, comfortable, and relaxed. There are no obvious tensions or signs of boredom.

Participation: There is a lot of discussion and everyone is encouraged to participate.

Listening: The members use effective listening techniques such as questioning, paraphrasing, and summarizing to get out ideas.

Civilized Disagreement: There is disagreement, but the team is comfortable with this and shows no signs of avoiding, smoothing over, or suppressing conflict.

Consensus Decisions: For important decisions, the goal is substantial but not necessarily unanimous agreement. This is often reached through open discussion of everyone's ideas and avoidance of formal voting or easy compromises.

Open Communication: Team members feel free to express their feelings on the task as well as the group's operation. There are few hidden agendas. Communication takes place outside of meetings.

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Clear Roles and Work Assignments: There are clear expectations about the roles played by each team member. When action is taken, clear assignments

are made, accepted, and carried out. Work is fairly distributed among team members.

Shared Leadership: While the team has a formal leader, leadership functions shift from time to time depending upon the circumstances, the needs of the team, and the skills of the members.

External Relations: The team spends time developing key outside relationships, mobilizing resources, and building credibility with important stakeholders in other parts of the organization.

Style Diversity: The team has a broad spectrum of team player types including members who emphasize attention to task, goal setting, focus on process, and raising questions about how the team is functioning. In terms of MBTI, there would be a balance of personality types; Ss and Ns, Ts and Fs and so forth.

Self-Assessment: Periodically, the team stops to examine how well it is functioning and what may be interfering with its effectiveness.

As you can see, there is some similarity between what one views as a benefit and another sees as a resultant characteristic. Often times, what a team generates as its finished work reinforces a positive characteristic of the team; they are **productive**. The key point is the team members' willingness to work together towards attainment of the benefits. The resultant effect of their behavior and the end results of their work will be labeled as characteristics of an effective team.

Team Problem Solving:

Being part of a team can enhance an individual's ability to see things from another's point of view. This is beneficial in developing creative solutions to new problems (Langford, 1995). Besides solving the problem at hand, the team members will learn valuable skills to be used on future teams solving future problems. Deming (1986) stated "Teamwork requires one to compensate with his [or her] strength someone else's weakness, for everyone to sharpen each other's wits with questions." The investment into the solution is usually time. An individual can make a decision or solve a problem quicker, in most cases,

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than a team, but the solution may be incomplete or biased. Solving problems as a team will help ensure that all bases are covered.

Team Building:

If a team is a group of people working towards a common goal, team building is the process used to help the group to reach its goal. It involves determining the team's goals, identifying the barriers that may prevent the team from reaching those goals, and creating strategies to eliminate the barriers. Those barriers can be anything from logistical issues to individual behaviors.

Stages of Team Development:

Leadership and team building literature is replete with models of team or group development. One of the most referenced models is Tuckman's model of group development first published in 1965. This four stage model is often referred to as the "FORMING Model." The stages and the characteristics of each are: (Fay & Doyle, 1982, pp. 125-126)

Forming--For teams with new leadership, mission, or members, this stage is a period of testing behavior and dependence on both the formal and informal leadership. Other characteristics include hesitant participation, suspicion, fear and anxiety, complaints about the organizational environment, and minimal work accomplishment.

Storming--During this stage, team members frequently become hostile or overzealous as a way of expressing their individuality as resistance to group or team formation. Other characteristics include intra-team conflict, disunity, increased tension and jealousy, concerns over work, polarization of group members, and minimal work accomplishment.

Norming--Members, during this stage, accept the team, team norms, their own roles, and idiosyncrasies of other team members. Emotional conflict is reduced by patching up previously conflicting relationships. Other characteristics include development of team cohesion, establishment of team boundaries, sharing personal problems, expression of emotion constructively, and moderate work accomplishment.

Performing--Now that the team has established its interpersonal norms, it is an entity capable of diagnosing and solving problems and making decisions. Other characteristics include functional role relatedness, constructive self-

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change, insight into personal and interpersonal processes, and a great deal of work accomplishment.

Team Member Roles:

In an effectively functioning team, the team members exhibit different behavior or roles that contribute to the team's ability to reach its objective or to the team's continual improvement in their long-term operation. These roles can

be categorized as either being *task-related member functions* or *maintenance-related member functions*. However, if team members begin to act in a manner that apparently suits their own purposes, but is contrary to the group's interests, then they are exhibiting behavior that is *disruptive or subversive*.

Activities that help a group or teamwork on its task are referred to as *task-related member functions or roles*. By performing one or more of these functions, a team member can help the team accomplish its objectives. When any of these functions are omitted, the overall effectiveness of the team declines. Some of these functions or roles include: (AMSC, 1992, p. 4)

Initiating--Helping the team get started by proposing tasks or goals; defining a team problem; and suggesting a procedure or idea for solving a problem.

Information or Opinion Seeking--Requesting facts, asking for clarification of statements that have been made; trying to help the team find out what people think or feel about what is being discussed; and seeking suggestions or ideas.

Information or Opinion Giving--Offering facts or additional useful information; expressing what one thinks or feels; and giving suggestions or ideas.

Clarifying or Elaborating--Interpreting or reflecting ideas and suggestions; clearing up points of confusion; offering examples to help the team imagine how a proposal would work if adopted; and distinguishing alternatives of issues before the team.

Summarizing--Pulling together related ideas; restating suggestions after the team members have discussed them; and organizing ideas so that members will know what has been said.

Setting Objectives--Expressing objectives for the team to achieve; applying standards or expectations in evaluation; and measuring accomplishments against goals.

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Testing Workability--Applying suggestions to real situations so that the team can examine the practicality and workability of ideas.

Consensus Checking--Sending up "trial balloons" to see if the team is nearing conclusion; and checking to see how much agreement has been reached.

Activities that maintain or build the morale or spirit of the group or team are referred to as *maintenance-related member functions or roles*. These activities help the members work together so that they develop a loyalty to one another, to the team, and to the task or mission. When any of these functions are omitted, the effectiveness of the group declines. Some of these functions or roles include: (AMSC, 1992, p. 5)

Gate Keeping--Attempting to keep communication channels open; making it possible for others to make their contributions to the team; and suggesting procedures for better sharing in the discussions.

Willingness to Share--When one's own idea or status is involved, offering to challenge one's own position for the sake of the team's goals; and admitting error and/or disciplining oneself in order to maintain team unity and to avoid win/lose decisions.

Harmonizing--Attempting to reconcile disagreements; trying to provide common ground compromises for opposing points of view so that members can continue to work together; and getting people to explore their sameness as well as differences.

Relieving Tensions--Draining off negative feelings by jesting or pouring oil on troubled waters; and putting tense situations in wider context.

Encouraging--Being friendly, warm, and responsive to others and their contributions; helping others to contribute; listening with interest and concern; and reinforcing others' participation.

Diagnosing--Determining and discussing sources of difficulty about how the team is working together; and seeking appropriate steps to take next.

Attempts by team members to satisfy their own individual needs in a way that blocks progress toward the common goals or loyalty to the team and its tasks are referred to as *disruptive or subversive behavior*. Normally, these roles

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or behavior occur in the "Storming" stage of team development. Some of these functions, roles, or behavior include: (AMSC, 1992, p.6)

Blocking--Being negative in behavior and stubbornly resistant; disagreeing and opposing without or beyond "reason," and attempting to maintain or bring back an issue after the team has rejected or bypassed it.

Attack--Deflating the status of others; expressing disapproval of the values, act, or feelings of others; attacking the team, its leader, or the problem the team is working on; and joking aggressively.

Playboy/Playgirl--Displaying lack of involvement in the team's process by cynicism, nonchalance, or horseplay; and inappropriate sexual comments and posturing during work.

Recognition-Seeking--Boasting; inappropriate reporting on personal achievements; acting in unusual ways; struggling to prevent being placed in an "inferior" position; trying to take credit for another's contribution.

Deserter--Withdraws in some way, indifferent, silent, aloof, excessively formal, and day-dreaming.

Pleading Special Interests--Speaking for a specific group; and cloaking one's own prejudice or bias in the stereotype to fit individual needs.

Dominating--Asserting power or superiority to manipulate the team or certain members of the team; asserting a superior status or right to attention; giving directions autocratically; and interrupting the contributions of others.

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Slide 1

**Teams
&
Team
Building**

Slide 2

What is a Team . . .

- shared purpose or common goal
- have to work together
- payoff or benefit for everyone on the team

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Slide 3

Two Types

 Grind-it-out Groups Aim for predetermined results Hard grinding effort EXHAUSTED and relieved when it's over 	 High-performance Teams Aim for better than expected results Easy and flowing ENERGIZED and enthusiastic when it is over 
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Slide 4

A High Performing Team

Characteristics	How I Felt
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• _____• _____• _____• _____• _____	

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Slide 5

**Characteristics of a
High Performing Team**

- Has a clear vision and clear goals
- Everybody participates
- Communication is clear
- Has a process improvement plan
- Everybody has clearly defined roles
- Team members engage in beneficial behaviors

Slide 6

**Characteristics of a
High Performing Team**

- Decision procedures are well-defined
- Norms have been established
- Awareness of the group process

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Slide 7

BUILD A HIGH PERFORMANCE TEAM

- Communicate high standards
- Set tone from first meeting
- Create sense of urgency
- Choose members with needed skills
- Set clear rules; model desired behaviors
- Give positive feedback
- Reward high performance

Slide 8

A High Performing Team Member

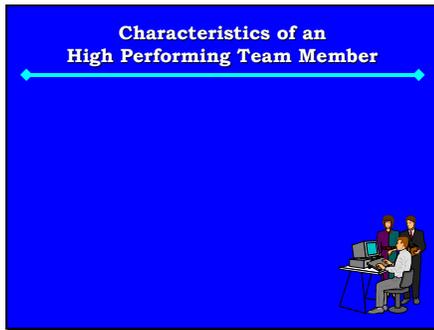
Characteristics / Qualities

- _____
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Slide 10



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Slide 11

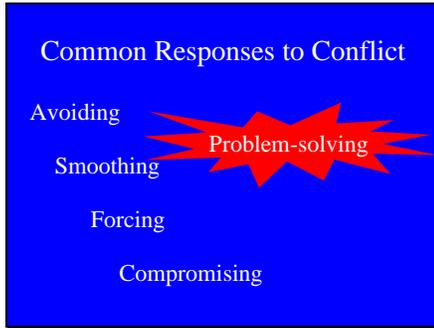


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Slide 13

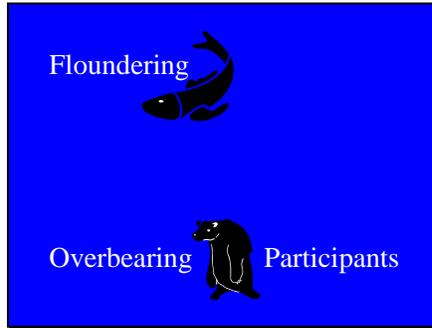


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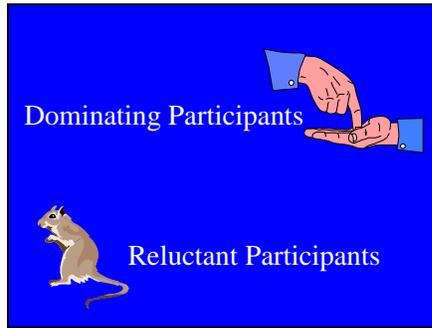


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Slide 16

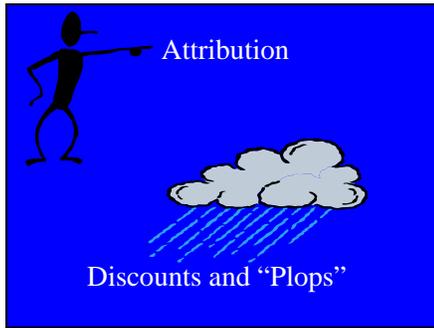


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Slide 18



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Slide 19



Slide 20

Exercise: the team agrees on methods for dealing with group problems.

Work in table groups.
Brainstorm behaviors that could disrupt team activities.
Select one behavior to address.
Discuss the possible responses to this behavior.

Preventive Measures	Minimal Intervention	Higher Intervention

PROBLEM SOLVING AND DECISION MAKING

1. PURPOSE: This session focuses on the development of problem solving and decision making skills required of a successful leader in the sustaining base and winning performance in the sustaining base environment. You will be introduced to several structured approaches to problem solving as well as the basics of the rational decision making process. An understanding of the models and the process help leaders through the rational, critical, and creative aspects of solving complex problems.

2. OBJECTIVES:

a. Identify systematic approaches in problem solving and decision making.

b. Identify tools that can be used to assist in solving structured and unstructured problems, and apply them in the problem solving/decision making process.

3. ISSUES FOR CONSIDERATION:

a. Decision making is a process that takes place on a continuous basis in organizations. The overarching framework for decision making can be seen as problem solving. Problem solving is the process of moving from a current state to a desired state when there is a mismatch between existing conditions and desired outcomes.

b. Decision making is inserted at various points in the problem solving process where choices must be made. There are quite possibly many decisions that must be made while solving a problem. The first is “Is there a problem?” Another decision is, “What, specifically, is the problem?” There are several decision making models and tools that can aid in this part of the process. They do not, by themselves, solve the problem but they are effective in helping to collect, organize, and evaluate information.

c. A comprehensive approach to problem solving/decision making includes using a model as a framework and utilizing various techniques to make decisions. An underlying assumption is that all problems are solved and all decisions are made within a particular context; that context must be constantly assessed.

d. There are many models available that provide the framework to systematically solve problems and make decisions. They are helpful in

understanding an actual event or a possible event. This session will present several problem solving models, all of which are useful in certain situations but are not applicable in all situations. It is important to use the model that best lends itself to viewing a particular problem and identifying a solution.

4. REQUIREMENTS:

(1) Review your Memory Jogger. This is an issued handout.

(2) Scan the attached reading. Rycroft, L. and Eichhorn R. (2002). *Problem solving and decision making*. Fort Belvoir, VA: Army Management Staff College.

PROBLEM SOLVING AND DECISION MAKING**

Problem Solving and Decision Making

Decision making is an integral part of problem solving, and although we tend to try and solve one problem at a time, we must make many decisions in order to achieve the solution. In some publications, decision making and problem solving are considered as being the same process. We will make a distinction between the two processes, although some models will show an overlap or integration between them. This is appropriate since they are pieces of a systemic approach to managing new situations.

There are tools that help to support the decision making process, referred to as decision making tools. They actually do not, in and of themselves, produce a sound decision, but they are helpful in collecting, organizing, and analyzing information used in solving problems. There are tools that measure performance, and there are tools that guide planning. They can be inserted into the problem solving process at any point where there is a decision to be made (i.e., identifying the problem, gathering the relevant facts, developing and evaluating alternatives, and planning for the implementation of the solution). Just as with woodworking tools, there are those decision making tools that are exactly right for the job, those that are adequate, and those that can ruin the outcome.

Solving problems is a straightforward process that involves knowledge, rules, and practice. Knowledge of a particular topic is essential in solving the problem. A little knowledge allows you to solve simple problems, and more knowledge enables you to solve more complex problems. The process of problem solving is woven in with the content of the subject. The rules of solving problems are in the models used. You simply follow the steps in the various models, depending on the emphasis of a particular model. Finally, in order to become good at solving problems, you must practice problem solving techniques. The ability to solve a problem is found in the ability to control the process of finding a solution (McAllister, 1996) That is why we turn to models to help maintain organization and control. Using a set of principles increases the reliability of developing a good solution and not just leaving it to chance

** Rycroft, L. and Eichhorn R. (2002). Fort Belvoir, VA: Army Management Staff College.

The AMSC approach to decision making and problem solving is to present several models that can be beneficial to the problem solver. Each is different from the others in some significant way, and there is some overlap between all of them. There is no endorsement of one model over the other, as they are all useful in certain situations.

The **rational decision making process**. There are **six steps** in the rational decision making process:

1. Define the issue.
2. Get the facts.
3. Develop alternatives.
4. Evaluate alternatives.
5. Choose alternative.
6. Implement.

(AMSC, 1992)

Some thoughts on the Rational Decision making Process:

Defining the issue is an important place to start and then stop. Our experience is that many students jump past this point and present problem solving as simply a series of steps to implement a solution. They really haven't analyzed the problem, isolated the facts, or generated alternatives, so there is nothing to evaluate.

This is where you should start the process of problem solving but then immediately stop and ask yourself: "WHY is this an issue (a problem)" –or- "Is this the *real* issue"? All of us are familiar with the situation where two people observe the same facts and one sees a problem and the other does not. What accounts for that difference? Many things! Sometimes we perceive a problem simply because we observe something that falls outside of our comfort zone, and it makes us uncomfortable—how many taxpayer-provided resources should be expended to maintain your comfort level? Sometimes we sense something that experience tells us will be a problem—what is that experience based on? Are you working on multiple experiences or just one bad one? Compare and contrast this situation to the one(s) you experienced—how close is the fit?

The facts that you gather will depend greatly on how you define the problem. The definition of the problem is tied directly to the context. Getting the facts will require you to collect, organize, and analyze information that should tell you things like what the extent of the problem is, where it is, when it started, and whether or not it is getting better or worse. The synthesis phase occurs as you put the information together, add to it, and generate alternatives. The evaluating and choosing alternative steps will require you to drop back into analyzing the context of the problem, cost, and time. Finally, as you implement your choice, you will transmit your decision about what to do.

Summary

Using models to solve problems provides a framework within which you can place the content. Universal principles of good thinking are used with each. Models can be thought of as road maps that cover some unfamiliar territory. They can also be helpful when going over familiar territory if there is a roadblock in the normal path or a new traffic pattern. They do not absolutely determine how to solve a problem, but will provide a structure of a systematic and rational path to follow.

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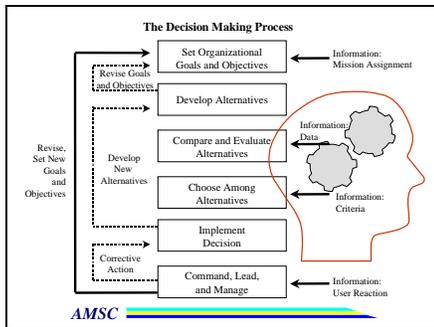
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Slide 1

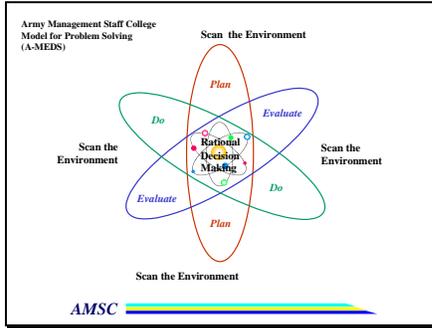
**The Problem Solving
&
Decision Making
Process**

Slide 2



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Slide 3



Slide 4

- The Rational Decision Making Process**
- Six Steps**
1. Define the issue.
 2. Get the facts.
 3. Develop alternatives.
 4. Evaluate alternatives.
 5. Choose alternative.
 6. Implement.
- AMSC
- The slide contains a title "The Rational Decision Making Process" in blue, followed by a sub-header "Six Steps" in a blue box. Below this is a numbered list of six steps. The AMSC logo is at the bottom left.

Slide 7



TEAM LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITY (TLDA)

1. PURPOSE: This physically active session provides you with the opportunity to practice team building, team development, team leadership, problem solving, and decision making that will help prepare you to meet the challenges of a diverse work environment that is increasingly dependent upon the effective use of teams. You should apply the lessons learned in this activity throughout the remainder of the AMSC curriculum.

2. OBJECTIVES:

- a. Identify and solve problems in an experiential learning activity.
- b. Practice team building and leadership skills and abilities; identify strengths and weaknesses; and focus on specific areas for improvement.
- c. Refine communication skills through the structured facilitated analysis and feedback process for each of the activity problems.

3. ISSUES FOR CONSIDERATION:

- a. How might I apply Team Building; Stages of Team Development; Roles; and Behaviors in the workplace?
- b. What are High Performing Teams?
- c. What is my role in Conflict Resolution?
- d. What are my roles in Team Problem Solving and Critical Thinking?
- e. How might I use Team Decision Making Processes; Decision Making Models, and Decision Making Tools?

4. REQUIREMENTS:

a. Required Readings: None.

b. Other: The Team Leadership Development Activity.

(1) Safety. Good leaders take care of their people. Safety is the first and most important rule for this session. Safety will not, under any

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circumstances, be compromised. Safety is the responsibility of each and every person attending the event. We want you to have fun, but more importantly, we want you to learn more about leadership, team development, team problem solving, and team decision making in a stressful environment and gain some practical experience.

(2) *Clothing.* Wear clothing that is comfortable and permits freedom of movement, but is not too loose. Loose clothing can get caught on objects and can cause you to lose your balance, etc. Wearing jewelry, i.e. rings, watches, earrings, and necklaces can cause injury or be damaged if they happen to get caught on something or someone.

(3) *Organization and Operation.* The class will be divided into three teams. A member of the AMSC faculty will facilitate and conduct an after-action (AAR).

(4) *Feedback and Synthesis:* Feedback is a critical part of the learning process. Feedback should be open, honest, and professional. Be prepared to discuss your feedback comments to help clarify your thoughts and ideas for the team and the student leader on that particular problem. Feedback is not always negative. Positive feedback is essential to help reinforce or promote good leadership and team building skills and abilities.

NATIONAL SECURITY STRATEGY FUNDAMENTALS

*"...The objectives of foreign policy
must be defined in terms of national interests."*

Hans Morganthau

1. PURPOSE:

Your command, USASOC, serves the nation as a part of a larger joint military force structure that forms the basis of U.S. military element of power. As such, USASOC directly contributes toward the attainment of U.S. national interests alongside the other national elements of power. Our discussions will help to give you a "bigger picture" of how you and USASOC fit into our national strategies for attaining our national interests. In a follow-on lesson we will show and discuss with you the written documents that lay out these interests and our broad strategies and policies for attaining them.

This lesson will explain origins, the statements of and the implementation of our national interests which eventually lead to written documents (such as the National Security Strategy) that broadly describe the ways and means of attaining these interests. Our elements of our national power represent part of those ways and means. In our classroom conversations as well as in your own readings, you can look for the relationships between our interests and elements of power to our values, and how collectively they impact the form and substance of our national policies and the development of our national and military strategy. You should also use this opportunity to begin to consider some of the impacts that our national interests can and do have on the your own organization and even on you personally.

The substance of forthcoming lessons links our national interests and the resulting strategies to the defense and Army systems and organizations that serve to promote the attainment of national objectives. A case in point is the U.S. role in the United Nations' decision to send a military force into Somalia, eventually its withdrawal in March 1994, and then our ongoing commitments in the Balkans and central Africa. This level of sustained involvement in these regions, along with support of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), is having impacts upon sustaining base support, Army missions and the values of our nation. Later you will see that "national interests" serve as part of the input to the force integration process that eventually leads to determining the design of strategic and operational requirements leading to the design of the force structure.

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This session will raise your awareness of our nation's fundamental and enduring national interests. You will discover how these national interests form the basis for our national security strategy, which is our plan for conducting our international affairs. We will also describe and discuss the elements of national power and their role(s) in the conduct of international affairs.

2. OBJECTIVES:

- a. Identify and define fundamental and enduring national interests.
- b. Discuss the origins of fundamental and enduring national interests.
- c. Identify and discuss the elements of national power.
- d. Identify and discuss the connections between national interests, elements of national power, and the Army.
- e. Introduce the relationship of national interests, elements of national power, and the Army to the National Security Strategy and National Military Strategy.

3. ISSUES FOR CONSIDERATION:

- a. Do values, national interests, and elements of power interrelate to determine national security strategy?
- b. What determines whether an interest is vital, important, or humanitarian?
- c. How does the intensity of a perceived threat to our national interests impact on our response to it?
- d. In what ways do national interests or threats to our national interests affect the USASOC and Fort Bragg?

4. REQUIREMENTS:

- a. Read the attached article by Martin Ganderson, *A Summary of National Security Strategy Terminology*.
- b. Be prepared to discuss in class the issues for consideration.

A Summary of National Security Strategy Terminology

Martin L. Ganderson
Army Management Staff College

Any discussion of our fundamental national interests needs to include some remarks regarding the language and the concepts of the topic. Using the common language of "national interests and elements of power" will raise one's ability to discuss national and international issues as they relate to the U.S. Army as well as provide a framework for viewing the sustaining base along with the global environment. Also, our national interests serve as the framework for the formulation of our national strategies, as presented in President Clinton's "A National Security Strategy of Engagement and Enlargement".

We express the means for carrying out those strategies in the terms of our elements of national power and influence: diplomatic/political, informational, military, economic, financial, legal, science/technology. One can also look into how our national strategies, once defined, lead to analysis, evaluation, and application of elements of power. Employment of the elements of power is the means available to our national leadership for achieving the ends or goals of our national security strategy. Look for the relationships between our interests, elements of power, values, and central goals as expressed in the National Security Strategy Report. During these sessions, you can consider what are some of the NSS impacts upon Army planning, sustaining base operations and the global environment. To distill the essence of our national interests and to determine their relationships to the elements of power is an overall goal of these sessions.

In the process, why not give consideration to some related issues? For example, do the society's values shape national values, interests, and elements of national power? How? You might respond that our Constitution provides the means for influencing the shape and the substance of our American culture. Here's an example of a period of time when the Constitution took on a change that impacted a wide range of our society; it was the prohibition of the production and sale of alcoholic beverages. At that point in time, Americans saw themselves as a society that opposed a substance that they viewed as destructive. As time passed and conditions changed, so too did society's attitudes. So, the American people again changed the Constitution to reflect national values of a dynamic society. From this process, we can see that one enduring American quality is that of readiness for rational and evolutionary change.

Overall, our basic values are engraved in the Constitution and the

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Declaration of Independence, to include our veneration of these documents. If life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness are fundamental to our way of life, then it is reasonable to suggest that they serve as the base for equally enduring national interests: Security-Solvency-Stability-Stature. In our society, national interests seem to have evolved from personal values that have grown to the national level. We have pretty much trusted our leaders to translate them into a national purpose. Along with our enduring interests, these values serve as a base for identifying and pursuing our national goals objectives. Usually, we expect that our national policies should reflect our collective beliefs. When exceptions to this reflection of beliefs become apparent, we as a people have exercised our responsibilities for critical thinking and analysis and made decisions to express our concerns.

These interests, the safety and well being of our nation, also help to shape our view of the world. In broad terms, our Government looks with great favor upon those societies and governments that share, or at least respect, our needs and interests. Those enduring national interests involve such global matters as: non-violent settlements of disputes as a pathway to security and stability; open markets and free trade as the framework for economic development; and mutual respect between nations as well as the same degree of respect for the human rights within a given nation.

When that sharing and recognition does not exist, or when there are wide gaps in the views of the respective nations, the U.S. looks unfavorably upon that nation and acts differently towards it. The range of actions represents the spectrum of the *elements of national power*: diplomatic/political, informational, military, economic, financial, legal, science/technology. The summation of these elements being the will and strength of the American people to support our Government in its pursuit of national objectives.

Some examples from the past few years would include: President Clinton's remarks regarding President Yeltsin's political dilemmas reflect the positive actions that our nation takes when there is some congruence of thought and action between the United States and another nation. Clinton has continued to push for more options in furthering relations with Russia. His work exhibits a continuity of American diplomacy that began in the Reagan years and continued through the Bush Administration when the United States quickly gave diplomatic recognition to Russia and supported it to secede from the former Soviet Union in the United Nations Security Council.

The widely defined elements of national power are: *Political/Diplomatic; Economic; Military; and Informational*. These come from, and are consistent with the statements from the Joint Pub 1, dated 11 Nov 91, which is available in the Seminar Room. (This document guides the joint action of

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the Armed Forces in its roles to support the national military strategy.) Reflect back on the first lesson in this series regarding our organization for national security. The nature of modern warfare demands that the Armed Forces fight as a team which includes an understanding of our national security strategy and the elements of national power. Joint Pub1 provides insights to these components of our national level considerations.

National power comes from the subcomponents of these major elements and includes: *geography, size and characteristics of a nation's population, natural resources and agricultural potential, industrial productivity and flexibility, transportation and communications infrastructure, overall economic strength and vitality, science and technology potential, national character and shared beliefs, intelligence capabilities, national will and domestic support of Government policy, and the effectiveness of national political and military leadership*. In these remarks, the term *national will* surface.

Some international affairs experts look upon and deal with it as an "element of national power." At the same time, other "experts" agree that instead, national will is the summation of the elements of power: political, economic, military, and information. In either case, the base upon which our national power resides consists of our values that have grown from personal beliefs and our national character of holding respect for the individual as a paramount truth.

So, to carry the debate a little further, collective individual interests eventually come to be reflected in the specific national interests that are the subsets of our enduring interests. An instance of this engagement is our concern for stability in regions of Africa which serve public as well as private interests. With appropriate levels of stability, American business can find useful markets for economic exchange bringing benefit to all parties, not the least of whom will be the American participants. The North American Free Trade Agreement is another instance of the United States pursuing major national interests through the diplomatic element of national power.

Human rights have always been an agenda item for our Government; critics would be quick to point out that our Governmental record for pursuing our stated objectives has at times been weak. Early in the Carter administration in 1977, we started taking measures to promote and even enforce human rights principles. A good part of this action has been the result of private interest groups that have recognized violations and have lobbied the U.S. Government to pursue this national interest as a means of enhancing our stature in the eyes of our friends and adversaries alike.

We continue to experience urgent concerns over the human rights violations taking place in Bosnia. This point is one to consider, since it may impact

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upon our continuing military involvement in Bosnia and thus upon our sustaining base. Further, recent Congressional views have made an effort to cause the Executive Branch to take a new look at human rights issues through the lenses of our domestic political and national interests. The overall implication, however, is that national interests do reflect, in general terms, the desires of our collective "private interests."

There does seem to be a connection between our national interests and effects upon the sustaining base and its leadership. Sustaining base leaders will find themselves responding to changes or shifts in national security strategy and national military strategy that in turn do affect the operational requirements of the forces they sustain. As such, the sustaining base becomes an integral part of the military element of national power. The sustaining base makes essential contributions to national power by providing the fundamentals of military power--*supplies, equipment, services and infrastructure for training, equipping, organizing, and deploying military forces.*

The sustaining base is a unique element of national power in that it is a very complex and enormous massing of national assets which have been assembled over a very long period of time. The sustaining base contributes to national power by being a real, credible entity. It is tangible, concrete evidence that the United States has not only the ability to deploy forces, but also has the ability to support them for sustained periods. An ammunition plant, for example, is not just a manufacturing facility. It is a component of our military element of power; it represents a tangible investment in a credible military deterrent, a commitment to national purpose, and a willingness to protect our vital interests. The sustaining base enables the United States to be a credible, effective participant in international alliances, coalitions, and affairs.

The sustaining base, for example, makes possible the foreign military sales program, and allows us to participate in alliances such as NATO by providing the stocks required to support U.S. forces assigned to NATO. Some assets produced by the sustaining base are sold to other nations; in a sense, we are part of the sustaining base for other nations.

Another aspect of our national security strategy that the National Security Strategy Report addresses is the environment. Subsequently, we see a follow-up to that interest in our National Military Strategy and the Army Posture Statement. The sustaining base will be responding to increased guidance for compliance with environmental laws. Leaders will find themselves being proactive, going beyond compliance to incorporate environmental considerations into all sustaining base plans, policies, and activities. The natural environment is becoming recognized as a part of the

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elements of national power (See the reading from JCS PUB 1 which describes information as an "element of national power"). It is certainly an essential element of consideration when planning for training and infrastructure development. We will be looking out for our interests when we seek to preserve these assets which may help to ensure the long term viability of the training and industrial base.

When working with our interests, we want to assign some relative value to them. The usual descriptors are *vital, major, peripheral*. *Vital* refers to national interests that relate to our survival and call for all necessary actions to defend our homeland. We will go to war and expend inordinate portions of our national treasure in protecting our vital interests. *Major* interests involve extreme circumstances where we will take focused and harsh political actions on a unilateral basis if necessary. At a more conservative level, we would deliver ultimatums that show our willingness to fight over the major issue at hand. Also, major interests are those where a nation's political, economic or social interests may be adversely impacted but also where the use of military force is not deemed necessary.

Peripheral interests involve the impacts of interest that seem non threatening, at least for the moment. Over time and with changing global environments, a peripheral interest may grow to become a major interest. National interests have become applicable to the domestic society. The drug interdiction program is supposed promote our national well being and may well be described as dealing with a matter of vital interest--a point to ponder.

National Interests are measured in terms of *National Objectives*: Those fundamental aims, goals, or purposes of a nation as opposed to the means for seeking those ends toward which a policy is directed and efforts and resources of a nation are applied.

National Policy is a broad course of action or statements of guidance adopted by our Government at the national level in pursuit of national objectives.

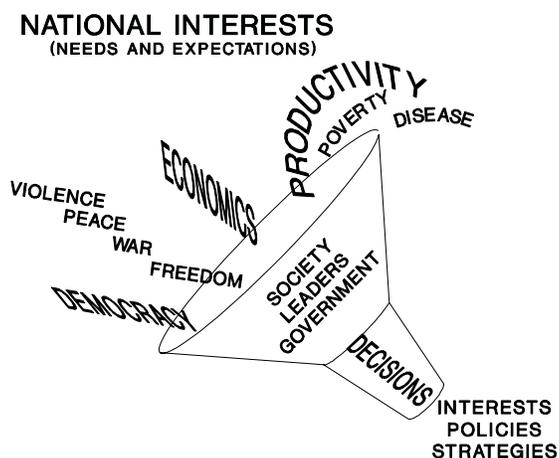
National Security is a collective term encompassing both national defense and foreign relations of the United States. Specifically, the condition provided by: military or defensive advantage over any foreign nation or group of nations; a favorable foreign relations position; a defense posture capable of successfully resisting hostile or destructive action from within or without, overt or covert.

National Strategy is the art and science of developing and using political, economic, and psychological powers of a nation, together with its armed

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forces, during peace and war to secure national objectives.

Elements of National Power are those sources of and the instruments of a nation's power. They are interrelated in that they represent the influence that a nation can bring to bear in the world as a means of furthering its own national interests. The elements of power represent the national strength as measured by population size and character, raw materials and agricultural potential, industrial and economic productivity, transportation and communications infrastructure, science, and technology potential, shared beliefs, effectiveness of national leadership and direction, and the national will, sometimes measured against the domestic support for Government policies. Generally accepted categories of these elements are:
Diplomatic/political, Informational, Military, Economic, Financial, Legal, and Science/technology.



As an overall look at the origin and composition of our national interests, this illustration shows that there are an infinite number of ingredients that mix together to produce our interests and supporting policies and strategies.

PROFILE OF THE ARMY

1. PURPOSE:

Every member of the Army, uniformed or civilian, should know the basic organization of the Service and how his or her organization “fits” into the big picture. This session uses the Association of the United States Army (AUSA) publication, *Profile of the Army*, as the source of current information about the organization of the Army and its many components.

This session introduces the organization of U.S. military forces and the Army’s place in that organizational structure.

2. OBJECTIVES: You will examine the structure of the Department of the Army and its key players and discover the roles they perform in formulating and executing military strategy.

3. ISSUES FOR CONSIDERATION: None

4. REQUIREMENTS: Complete the required reading.

a. Required Readings: Institute for Land Warfare. (2001). Profile of the U.S. Army. Arlington, Virginia: Association of the United States Army.

The instructor will give you this booklet in class. Scan the entire book.

b. Other: None

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Army Roles

FM 3-0

To *fight and win the nations wars* and achieve directed national objectives by:

- ‡ Shaping the security environment
- ‡ Responding promptly to crisis
- ‡ Mobilizing the Army
- ‡ Conducting Forcible entry operations
- ‡ Dominating land operations
- ‡ Providing support to civilian authorities

AMSC

Slide 6

Current Missions

- ‡ Missions may be explicit or implicit based on the NMS and/or world events in a geographical Unified Command's AOR.
- ‡ Example, provide:
 - a ***power projection*** Army capable of rapid response; trained and ready to deliver ***decisive victory***
 - ↓ a versatile force
 - ↓ win major theater wars/conflict(s)
 - ↓ conduct peace operations
 - ↓ deliver humanitarian assistance

AMSC

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ARNG Mission

Federal Mission: "...maintain properly trained and equipped units available for prompt mobilization for war, national emergency or as otherwise needed"

State Mission: "...provide trained and disciplined forces for domestic emergencies or as otherwise required by state laws"

Uniquely dual missioned

AMSC

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RESERVE COMPONENTS AND THE ARMY

US ARMY

US ARMY RESERVE (USAR)

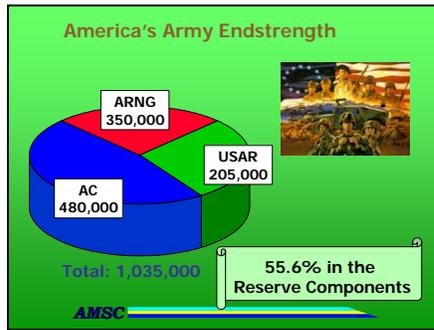
ARMY NATIONAL GUARD (ARNG)

The Army

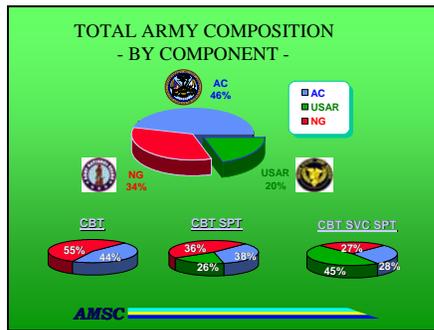
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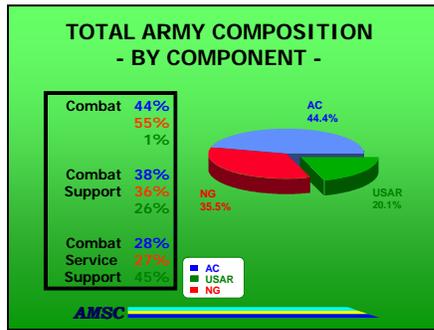


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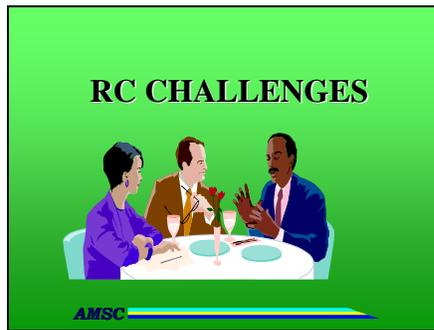


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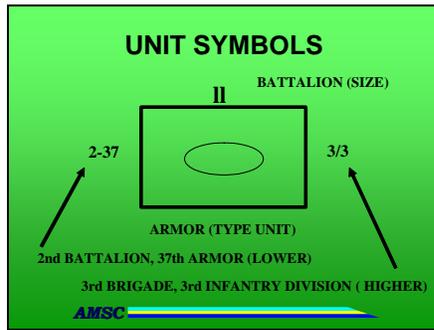


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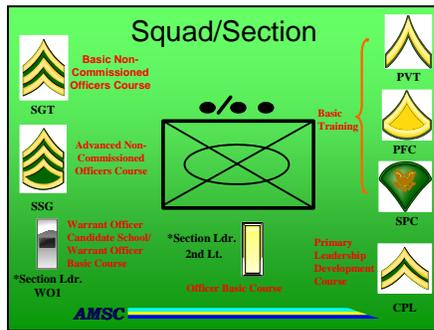


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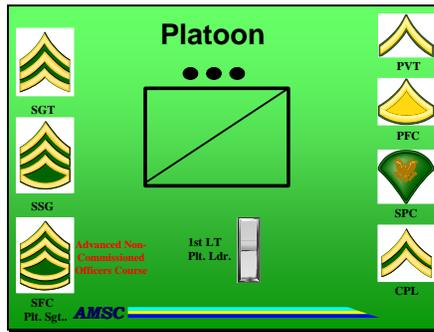


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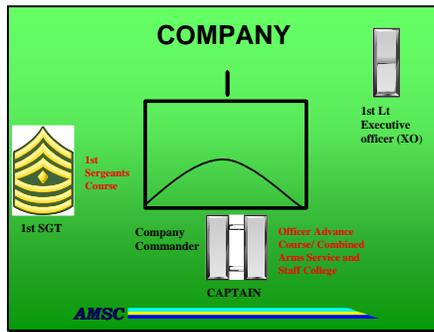


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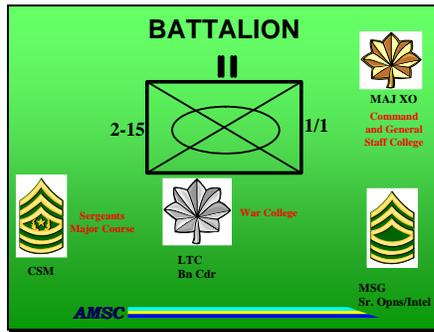


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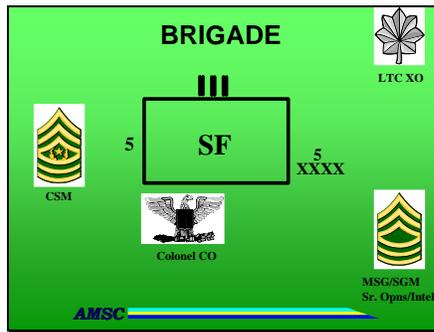


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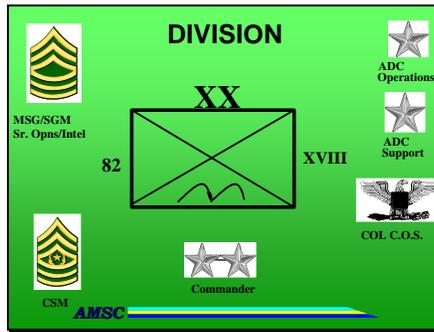


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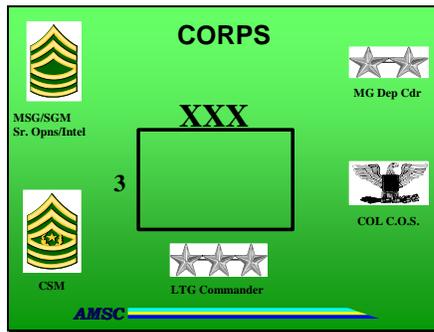


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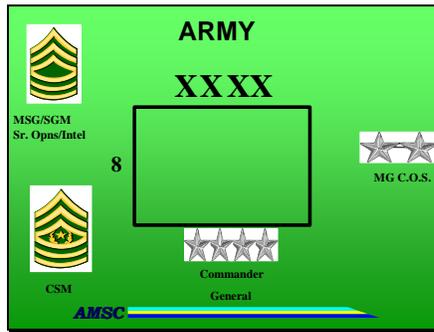


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U.S. NATIONAL SECURITY MILITARY COMMAND STRUCTURE

1. PURPOSE:

The U.S. Constitution states that Congress shall provide for the common defense of the United States and has the power to declare war, raise and support Armies and make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces. Congress also has legislative responsibility for funding and overseeing all the services which includes determining the size of the armed forces, authorizing and funding the equipment, and ensuring their readiness. A broad understanding the military command structure will facilitate a better appreciation of the complexity of the relationships that drive each of the services, which includes the Army, and Congress in fulfilling their respective national security responsibilities.

This session will help you understand the organization, functions, and responsibilities of the Department of Defense and its military departments and operational commands that support U.S. national security.

2. OBJECTIVES: You will be able to describe the U.S. National military command structure and explain the different roles and chains of command involved in the system.

3. ISSUES FOR CONSIDERATION: None

4. REQUIREMENTS:

a. Required Readings: None

b. Other: None

ORAL PRESENTATIONS

1. PURPOSE:

Organizations: The greater responsibilities in an organization, the greater the need to communicate effectively. Improving your oral communication skills is key to making you a better leader in your current position and preparing you for a next higher-level position.

You may be the finest technical expert and problem solver of our century. However, you are ineffective within your organization if you cannot communicate your solutions to your superiors in order to gain approval and to your subordinates for execution. This session is linked to several other sessions where you will receive peer and faculty feedback on your speaking ability.

2. OBJECTIVES: Deliver an effective 10 to 12 minute speech meeting the criteria set forth in the AMSC oral presentation assessment.

3. ISSUES FOR CONSIDERATION:

- a. What are the basic principles of public speaking—preparation, organization, analysis, practice, and delivery?
- b. What is positive imagery?
- c. Why should I practice, practice, practice?
- d. What feedback techniques are most effective?

4. REQUIREMENTS:

a. **Readings:** None

b. **Other:**

(1) Prepare and present a 10 to 12 minute speech using effective oral communications techniques that you have read about and practiced.

(2) Your topic can be any subject related to the sustaining base. Canned briefings from your office will not be acceptable.

(3) Be prepared to give feedback to your classmates using the AMSC Oral Presentation Assessment sheet.

NATIONAL MILITARY STRATEGY

1. PURPOSE:

To examine the current National Military Strategy (NMS) and analyze its impact on the Army's role, force structure, and sustaining base.

Because of your work at SOCOM you should be aware of our National Military Strategy in order to better appreciate your organization's mission and your part in supporting that mission. You should also be able to appreciate some of the relationships of the NMS to the National Security Strategy and to our fundamental national values and interests.

2. OBJECTIVES: We want to assist you in increasing your awareness of the roles of the Army and this command. We will discuss our NMS in terms of what is changing so that you will also gain added appreciation for the demands of transformation.

2. ISSUES FOR CONSIDERATION:

(1) Does the National Military Strategy reflect today's security environment?

(2) What changes would you make in this version of the NMS?

(3) What is the impact of change and transformation on Ft Bragg as a part of the sustaining base?

4. REQUIREMENTS:

- a.** Scan the National Military Strategy.
- b.** Consider and be prepared to discuss the issues for consideration.

EFFECTIVE WRITING FEEDBACK

"When I use a word, it means just what I choose it to mean, neither more nor less."

Humpty Dumpty to Alice

1. PURPOSE:

Providing oral and written feedback on your written assignment is essential to the learning process and improving your both your writing skills and ability to more effectively perform your job responsibilities and duties at USASOC.

This session will provide you feedback on the effective writing assignment given to you on the first day of the workshop.

2. OBJECTIVES:

a. Use the Army Writing Style and AR 25-50 to improve written communication.

b. Write a paper that is clear, concise, and organized.

3. ISSUES FOR CONSIDERATION: None

4. REQUIREMENTS: Turn in your written assignment at the prescribed time and participate in the general feedback and general discussion. Remember, your paper should as a minimum address the following:

(1) Define the topic.

(2) Discuss and describe the facts regarding that topic.

(3) Explain what the most important part of this topic is.

(4) Explain why it is the most important part.

(5) Explain to the boss reasons that he or she needs to do anything about the issue.

INTRODUCTION TO ARMY TRANSFORMATION

1. PURPOSE:

In order to meet the changing threat environment and provide relevant combat forces to the warfighting Combatant Commanders the institutional Army will have to also change in order to keep pace. The transformed Army will be a more “responsive, deployable, agile, versatile, lethal, survivable, and sustainable” Army.

The transformation objective—a force that is strategically responsive and dominant at every point on the spectrum of operations—requires light forces that are more lethal and survivable and heavy forces that are more strategically deployable and agile. This transformation will ultimately affect every organization and all Army systems that are related to doctrine, training, organizations, materials, personnel, and facilities (DTLOMPF).

The purpose of this session is to give you a deeper perspective of the many facets of Army Transformation.

2. OBJECTIVES: To recognize the multiple axes of transformation and to discuss its impact on the institutional base.

3. ISSUES FOR CONSIDERATION:

- a. What is the Army’s transformation objective?
- b. How is transformation affecting you in the work place. Consider the DTLOMPF impacts as you think about transformation and its impact.
- c. What is modularity and what impacts do you think it will have on our Army?

4. REQUIREMENTS:

a. Readings:

(1) Shinseki, E., Chief of Staff, U.S. Army. *The Army transformation: a historic opportunity*. Attached.

(2) Review this web site and be prepared to discuss its contents
https://www.ausa.org/PDFdocs/Hooah_Guide_web.pdf

b. Other: Be prepared to discuss the issues for consideration below.

THE ARMY TRANSFORMATION: A HISTORIC OPPORTUNITY**

During Army Posture hearings this year, Members of Congress were provided copies of Charles E. Heller's and William A. Stofft's *America's First Battles: 1776-1965*. This volume of essays about our nation's first combat encounters in each of our wars recounts America's spotty record of preparedness for war. The reasons for these poor showings vary, but chief among them was complacency in times of peace, in the years between the wars.

Today, The Army is moving to break that cycle of history. We are attempting to transform ourselves during an unprecedented period -- a time of relative peace, of unrivaled economic prosperity and of stampeding technological progress. The conditions are most favorable for our success, but the window of opportunity may have already begun to close.

Most Americans do not relate our political and economic strength to our military prowess. Yet, our military forces are the most esteemed institutions in the land, the most respected military formations in the world and the forces most feared by adversaries who measure us daily. But Americans typically do not establish a link between our national prosperity and our military excellence. That kind of national complacency has led to early disaster in past wars. We, as a nation, must ensure that the next chapter of *America's First Battles* will recount how we learned the lessons of our past and applied them with wisdom and foresight to the future.

Strategic Environment. America remains the most potent military power in the world, and The Army provides the land component of that capability. The nation has three other elements of power with which it seeks to engage other nations and actors in the international arena: political, economic and information power. We effectively exercise our strengths and leverage our influence through these elements, individually and collectively. There are points of stress around the globe where we have exercised these elements of national power over the past year. Tensions between India and Pakistan and between China and Taiwan have provided opportunities to demonstrate our nation's exercise of power through its employment of these tools. Despite the recent easing of tensions, North Korea remains both a concern and a question mark: How stable and how long before reunification with stability is achievable? These and other points of stress threaten the sovereignty of neighboring states and the stability of their regions. The National Security Strategy addresses three core objectives: enhancing America's security, bolstering America's economic

** Gen. Eric K. Shinseki, Chief of Staff, U.S. Army.

prosperity, and promoting democracy and human rights abroad. Despite our very significant advantages, this less stable, more fractured world complicates our ability to achieve these objectives. Compounding our challenges are the growing threats of terrorism, narcotrafficking, organized crime and the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction. Cultivated by the spread of aggressive ideologies, these phenomena appear to be converging on a dangerous nexus. Individually, these "complicators" have traditionally been the province of police forces. If they achieve nexus, however, these complicators and other nationalist and transnational threats will further cloud the strategic environment, making it far less predictable than we would like and far more dangerous for police forces to confront.

Achieving our strategic objectives means restoring predictability and enhancing global stability. Our contribution to stability includes peacetime engagement, crisis management, deterrence and the kind of rapidly deployable, overwhelming combat power that enables such capabilities. Should deterrence fail, these forces must be able to fight and win decisively. When we describe our need for military forces, we acknowledge a wide range of missions arrayed along the spectrum of military operations. (See chart on Page 23.) At the "low end," we find missions like disaster relief and humanitarian assistance; on the "high end" are missions like global war. The "low end" missions are more probable, although less intense individually. The "high end" missions are less likely but more intense. We always structure The Army for operations on the "high end" of the spectrum because our nonnegotiable contract with the American people is to fight and win our nation's wars. We have traditionally asked The Army to do other things as well, but not at the expense of its ability to be decisive and victorious at warfighting.

What's Our Condition? During the Cold War, our warfighting focus was riveted on Western Europe and the standoff with the Warsaw Pact. The risks of high-intensity conflict were significant, and we stayed ready for the possibility of a global nuclear confrontation. Very rarely -- once every four years on average -- did the Army deploy anywhere else in the world.

Since the Berlin Wall fell, The Army has averaged a deployment once every 14 weeks. The Army is one-third smaller than the Cold War force, but our operating tempo has increased 300 percent. Moreover, lower intensity but higher frequency operations have pointed up a shortfall in our force structure. Our heavy divisions, well suited and forward stationed for Central European war, needed time to deploy to Southwest Asia when the Iraqis attacked in 1990. Today, there still is no finer armored force in the world, but we are challenged to deploy heavy formations quickly to all of the places we are asked to go. Conversely, our light forces, the finest light infantry in the world, can deploy

quickly around the globe but lack the lethality, survivability and staying power of heavy forces.

As a result, our legacy Army's warfighting prowess today is assembled around two force characteristics -- heavy and light: magnificent heavy forces that are well equipped for war but difficult to deploy strategically, and magnificent light forces that can respond rapidly and are well suited for stability and support operations but lack staying power against heavy mechanized forces. Our forces must be capable of building sustained momentum in spite of the gap between those two operational capabilities. What we require is greater lethality, survivability and deployability all across the force. The infusion of these capabilities throughout the force will also increase our versatility and agility for full-spectrum operations. Our forces must be able to dominate the full spectrum of military operations -- to make the transition from military operations other than war to warfighting without a loss in momentum. With each passing year, our condition as a force becomes a greater liability. In time, that liability will become an unacceptable risk, and we may have to undergo a change on the eve of battle.

Taken together, the demands of the strategic environment and the realities of The Army's current condition necessitate fundamental change. We recognize our current shortcomings, envision our future risk and consequent vulnerability, and know that we must address our operational deficiencies today. The Army must transform itself.

The Army Vision. With that understanding, The Army announced its Vision last year at AUSA's Annual Meeting. Setting forth a vision is the first responsibility of senior leadership, so we charted a direction for The Army in the 21st century, a vision that built on the work of our predecessors but also looked to an Army that would better meet the challenges of the emergent evolution in the strategic environment.

The Army Vision is entitled "Soldiers on Point for the Nation: Persuasive in Peace, Invincible in War." The Vision's goal is to ensure that The Army fulfills its strategic responsibilities, continuously meeting the requirements of the National Military Strategy (NMS). It addresses three things: people, readiness and transformation.

People. The Army is people, and the soldier remains the centerpiece of our formation. The soldier enables America to meet its leadership responsibilities worldwide. Soldiers -- active, Guard and Reserve -- are our investment in America.

Every day in The Army, we train soldiers and grow leaders. The training revolution we have undergone in the past generation has made us the finest army in the world. We are also about leadership; it is our stock in trade. Serving in The Army is a full immersion experience in a leadership lab, and growing leaders is the most important thing we do in peacetime. The Army as an institution is devoted to investing in the leadership potential of every soldier. Unlike other large institutions or corporations, we cannot hire out for leaders at any level. We grow our own leaders because of the nature of our profession. The professional military ethic and our core values demand it. Some of the finest leaders in our country, military and civilian, public sector and private, learned what they know about leadership while in our ranks.

The Army is people, but it is far more than just soldiers. The Army embraces its civilians, family members, retirees and veterans, a large extended Army family of people who serve the nation in a thousand different ways.

Readiness. The Army is the force the nation relies on most heavily to address the full spectrum of military operations. On any given day, more than 140,000 Army personnel are forward stationed or deployed around the world, in Korea and Kosovo, in the Sinai and Bosnia, heavily committed to meeting the requirements of both the National Security Strategy and National Military Strategy. Soldiers and civilians stationed stateside perform the critical role of keeping warfighting formations ready for worldwide employment today and tomorrow. In addition, they prepare Army units for the host of missions short of warfighting that we are asked to perform.

Since 1989, the Army has deployed ready forces in response to National Command Authority directives 35 times. Some of these deployments have been brief; others have evolved into ongoing commitments of our forces. The Army's mission is to fight and win the nation's wars; however, our soldiers also maintain the peace -- robust, ready, disciplined forces deployed around the world, often long after the shooting has stopped. The Army has been in Kosovo for a year, Bosnia for five, Southwest Asia for 10, the Sinai for 18, Korea for 50 and Europe for 55 years. Each of these missions further constrains the resources The Army has to maintain readiness throughout the force.

The Army supports the operational requirements of the unified combatant commands. Indeed, we respond to the demands of the geographical commanders in chief (CINCs). They expect The Army, on short notice, to provide robust, ready, disciplined formations with which they can fight and win major theater wars in their regions. On days when concerns about a warfight are not quite so evident, they also expect Army forces to engage in partnership exercises and military-to-military contacts within their assigned areas of responsibility. These two demands -- on-call warfighting readiness and day-to-day engagement and

leadership abroad -- are in tension with one another; doing one well competes with the other. To do both well requires a fully ready, robust C-1 kind of Army. We have traditionally been a C-1 Army, but we are not fully there today. Our soldiers are working hard to be fully ready, and we owe them the resources needed to meet the expectations of the warfighting CINCs.

A Few Rules of Thumb. Warfighting is complex, but its essence is simple. The history of the military art, the principles of war, the tenets of our doctrine, and tactics, techniques and procedures all boil down to a few rules of thumb: We will win on the offense. We want to initiate combat on our own terms -- at a time and place and with a method of our choosing -- not our adversary's. We want to gain the initiative and never surrender it. We want to build momentum quickly. And we want to win decisively.

But beware the transitions -- from peacekeeping to warfighting, from the offense to the defense and back again to the offense, hurdling natural and man-made obstacles, and projecting power against an enemy's center of gravity. In combat, the transitions sap operational momentum. Negotiating them quickly enables us to retain the initiative and build requisite momentum in warfighting.

Military forces which can put these capabilities together provide strategic flexibility to the National Command Authorities. During Operation Desert Shield, Saddam Hussein afforded us a six-month delay that allowed repositioning our Cold War force to Southwest Asia and re-equipping it for a decisive win. He did not contest us while we were in transition. A scenario without that pause might have had different outcomes. Our adversaries have learned those lessons as well. In today's strategic environment, we must be able to initiate combat on our terms, retain the initiative, build momentum quickly and win decisively. The Army must transform in order to develop and field a formation that possesses the force characteristics needed to do this.

Transformation. That is why the third piece of The Army Vision addressed Transformation. The Army must transform itself into a force capable of dominating at every point on the spectrum of operations. The Army's Transformation Strategy will result in an Objective Force that is more responsive, deployable, agile, versatile, lethal, survivable and sustainable than the present force.

A force with these characteristics will have the ability to place a combat-capable brigade anywhere in the world, regardless of ports or airfields, in 96 hours. It will put a division on the ground in 120 hours. And it will put five divisions in theater in 30 days. These are operational imperatives, and to accomplish them, we have embarked on a search for technologies that will give us answers in about three to four years that we will then use to design a future

objective force eight to 10 years down the road. Candidly, we don't have all the answers today; but we are asking the right technological questions, and we will go where the answers are. The Army has moved out.

The Transformation Strategy. A Transformation Campaign Plan plots The Army's course over time to evolve into the Objective Force while remaining trained and ready to meet its National Military Strategy requirements each and every day during that journey. In general, The Army's Transformation Strategy will go forward along three major paths, as depicted on the chart on Page 30: the Legacy Force, the Interim Force and the Objective Force.

Legacy Force. In order to have the time to develop Objective Force capabilities properly, we must sustain the Legacy Force to guarantee our warfighting readiness. We will recapitalize selected formations of key armored and aviation systems -- from both active and reserve components -- as well as enhance light-force lethality and survivability. We will continue to insert digital technologies and rebuild key legacy systems to extend service life, reduce operating and support costs, and improve system reliability, maintainability, safety and efficiency. The Legacy Force will maintain the capabilities we currently have and add selected others that are already scheduled to sustain combat overmatch, thus ensuring our ability to meet our nonnegotiable contract throughout our development of Objective Force capabilities.

But as we begin this Transformation, we must remember that the Legacy Force will continue to guarantee our nonnegotiable contract with the American people, to fight and win the nation's wars, for a decade and more. The trained and ready Legacy Force maintains the credible deterrent that will cause our adversaries to hesitate before challenging American interests. It keeps open the current window of opportunity to transform The Army. Its readiness is indispensable to that enterprise.

Interim Force. The Army will begin fielding an Interim Brigade Combat Team (IBCT) at Fort Lewis, Wash., this fiscal year. This initial IBCT, the first step toward the Interim Force, will accomplish two goals. First, it will give The Army an enhanced capability for operational deployment to meet worldwide requirements. Second, the initial IBCT will validate an organizational and operational model for the Interim Force.

As a follow-on to the initial IBCT, we have set aside funding for an additional IBCT each fiscal year through the Future Years' Defense Plan (FYDP). These IBCTs will employ an Interim Armored Vehicle (IAV) -- an off-the-shelf system that we will begin procuring in fiscal year (FY) 2001. The Interim Force is intended to be an operational capability that we will demonstrate in FY 2002. As quickly as possible, we will employ it to respond to immediate operational

requirements and provide the strategic deterrence that will give the National Command Authority real options. It will allow us to train soldiers and grow leaders in the doctrine and organization of these new formations. These Interim Brigades will be the vanguard of the future Objective Force.

Objective Force. The critical path of the Transformation leads to the Objective Force. Today, the science and technology (S&T) community is working hard to develop answers to questions we have asked: How do we reduce armored volume in combat vehicles while increasing survivability? How do we increase deployability without sacrificing survivability and lethality? How do we reduce in-theater support requirements and thereby reduce demands on strategic lift? These and other questions guide a major S&T effort to develop technologies that will give the Objective Force its desired characteristics -- responsiveness, agility, versatility, deployability, lethality, survivability and sustainability. Our challenge to the S&T community is to come back with a comprehensive set of technological recommendations and research and development (R&D) plans by 2003.

On that basis, The Army will make technology investments that, after eight to 10 years of development, we anticipate will result in new technologies that underpin the Objective Force design. At that point, when the technologies are mature and when the production lines are ready, we will begin to field the Objective Force in unit sets. Organizations will field complete suites of new equipment, thoroughly integrated systems designed to give us all of the capabilities outlined in The Army Vision. Transformation to the Objective Force will encompass the entire Army. The Legacy Force will transform directly to the Objective Force, and the Interim Force will follow. Over the course of 15 to 20 years, The Army will transform itself into the Objective Force design.

Historic Opportunity. This is our most significant effort to change The Army in 100 years. Not since the beginning of the last century has such a comprehensive transformation been attempted. Then, the new weaponry -- aircraft, machine guns, rapid-fire artillery, motorized vehicles -- were all being developed and tested in relative isolation. There was no shortage of ideas, but no one was sure what warfare would look like when all the pieces came together. The potential for that transformation failed due to lack of funding and a lack of support outside The Army. When the First World War came, we were not ready. We integrated all those systems into The Army under the stresses of imminent combat.

Indeed, most opportunities for armies to change are forced by warfare. The major conflicts of the 20th century -- World War I, World War II, Korea, Vietnam and even Desert Storm -- provide many examples of military modernization under the pressure of combat. An effort of this magnitude to transform The Army is historically unprecedented -- to change in time of peace because we

know our condition, we are informed about our future environment, and we know what capabilities we will need.

Our nation is at peace. Our economy is prosperous. We have strategic perspective and technological potential, but the window of historic opportunity will grow narrower with each passing day.

In 1940, Gen. George C. Marshall testified before Congress about The Army's need to change. He and his predecessors had been testifying about The Army's needs for years, but to no avail. This time, in the aftermath of the German invasion of Poland and the subsequent British and French declarations of war, Marshall made his now-famous observation: "Yesterday, we had time but no money. Today we have money but no time."

We can transform today in a time of peace and prosperity. Or we can try to change tomorrow, on the eve of the next war, when the window has closed, our perspective has narrowed, and our potential is limited by the press of time and the constraints of resources.

There will be another chapter in America's First Battles. We can influence the direction of that narrative if we act. The nation can't afford to miss this opportunity.

Finally, it bears repeating that The Army Vision begins and ends with soldiers. The Army is not and never has been about its equipment. It is about the character and values and professionalism of its soldiers and leaders. They provide our magnificent moments, now and into the future.

GEN. ERIC K. SHINSEKI became Chief of Staff of the Army in 1999 after serving as vice chief of staff from November 1998 to June. He served as commanding general, U.S. Army Europe and Seventh Army from July 1997 until November 1998. He became deputy chief of staff for operations and plans (DCSOPS) in July 1996 and served as the assistant DCSOPS from July 1995 to July 1996. Gen. Shinseki's first unit assignment was as an artillery forward observer with the 25th Infantry Division in Vietnam, and his command assignments include Troop A, 5th Cavalry, 9th Infantry Division (attached to the 5th Infantry Division), in Vietnam; 3rd Squadron, 7th Cavalry, 3rd Infantry Division; 2nd Brigade, 3rd Infantry Division; assistant division commander, 3rd Infantry Division (Mechanized); and commanding general, 1st Cavalry Division. Gen. Shinseki's staff assignments include service as the assistant personnel officer, XXIV Corps, in Vietnam, and as a personnel staff officer with U.S. Army Pacific. He was also an instructor at the U.S. Military Academy; a force integration staff officer with the Office of the Deputy Chief of Staff for Operations and Plans (ODCSOPS); operations officer, 3rd Infantry Division; operations

officer, VII Corps; deputy chief of staff for administration/logistics, Allied Land Forces, Southern Europe; and director of training, ODCSOPS. Gen. Shinseki graduated from the U.S. Military Academy, and his military education also includes the U.S. Army Command and General Staff College and the National War College. He holds a master's degree in English from Duke University.

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PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

1. PURPOSE:

This discussion is to increase your understanding of yourself and to suggest some strategies for your professional improvement and achievement. One of those strategies that we'll suggest is preparing for and then applying for attendance at the Army Management Staff College.

By developing and eventually writing a Personal Development Plan you will be able to lay out a plan and process that allows you to move toward achieving a few professional goals once you are back in the office. This same technique of course applies to your personal life.

2. OBJECTIVES: We want to encourage you to commit your goals to writing and to include attending AMSC as one of those goals. As such the discussion will look at the application process, AMSC's expectations and standards, and your own expectations regarding AMSC's benefits to you.

3. ISSUES FOR CONSIDERATION:

a. Your work at SOCOM is important to you and it's important to the organization. Because of that you should be seeking to develop your skills in coordination with your supervisor. Seek out advice and coaching as a means of identifying your own strengths and ways to further develop them. Begin now to determine what added qualifications, experiences, and skills will enable you to attend AMSC.

b. An important outcome for most AMSC graduates is that they are better prepared to grow faster and more effectively professionally becoming able to "be all you can be."

c. If you choose to write a Personal Development Plan you should identify concrete steps that you will take to achieve your goals. Specify: why achieving the goals are important to you; others who will be affected and why; specific actions including people and events, and if possible, dates; the resources you will need to achieve your goals; and how you will obtain and use those resources. Be sure to consider the obstacles that can stand in the way or have stood in the way of reaching these goals in the past. Honestly identify obstacles and deal with them first and your plan is likely to succeed. And finally,

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determine the indicators that will measure your success in approaching these goals.

4. REQUIREMENTS:

a. Readings: Study the literature that we have given to you in the packet. Use the AMSC home page <www.amsc.belvoir.army.mil> to learn more about the programs and to keep yourself updated regarding class dates and application procedures.

b. Other: None

WORKSHOP CLOSEOUT

1. PURPOSE: During this session, the workshop team will go through the adjourning process of team development. This session will also provide the opportunity for you to consider what you have learned and accomplished during this workshop.

2. OBJECTIVES:

- a. Identify and discuss your accomplishments during the workshop.
- b. Understand and experience the adjourning stage of team development.

3. ISSUES FOR CONSIDERATION:

- a. What have I accomplished during this workshop?
- b. Did I reach the goals I set?
- c. What has the team accomplished?
- d. What new goals will I set as a result of my participation in this workshop?

4. REQUIREMENTS:

- a. **Required Readings:** None
- b. **Other:** Be prepared to discuss the issues for consideration.