**MILITARY LEADERSHIP**

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*This manual supersedes FM 22-100, 26 February 1953, including C 1, 11 February 1955; and FM 22-10, 6 March 1951, including C 1, 11 February 1955, and C 2, 17 April 1957.*
CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Section 1. GENERAL

1. Purpose and Scope

   a. The purpose of this manual is to provide military leaders, actual and prospective, with a practical guide for applying the principles of leadership.

   b. The principles and techniques presented herein are the result of an analysis of outstanding leadership displayed by both military and civilian leaders. A thorough study of these principles and techniques, combined with actual troop application, will develop and foster the high standard of leadership so urgently demanded by the complexities of modern warfare. In the final analysis, war is still waged by men.

   c. The material presented herein is applicable without modification to both nuclear and nonnuclear warfare.

2. General Concepts of Leadership

   a. In the ultimate sense, leadership is not inherent; it depends upon traits that can be developed and upon the application of techniques that can be learned. It is an art that can be acquired, cultivated, and practiced by anyone having the mental
and physical ability and the moral integrity expected of a commissioned or noncommissioned officer. Developing this art is a continuing process which involves the recognition, acquisition, and practice of the basic traits of leadership and the understanding and application of sound leadership principles and techniques.

b. This manual stresses the importance of self-improvement. The principles, character traits, and procedures set forth are offered to assist the leader in the problem of controlling others. By examining these procedures with reference to his own practice and by analyzing his own traits of character, the leader will possess a yardstick for measuring his own success or failure. Despite this guide, it constantly must be borne in mind that successful leaders of the past were not all of the same pattern; nor did they all use the same methods of attaining success. All of them, however, consciously or unconsciously understood the basic concepts of leadership and successfully practiced many of the techniques presented in this manual.

c. It is essential that the student grasp this concept of leadership and understand its relationship with all that the leader does, says, and thinks. He must not overlook the vital ingredients of sincerity and competence, for without these any suggested technique will fail. Although the material in this manual is, for instructional purposes, divided under certain principles, techniques and traits, the student should not allow his thinking to fall into these convenient compartments.
d. Effective leadership is a totality—a totality which is a resultant of everything the leader does in every aspect of his job and in his daily living—which contributes to cementing the bonds between him and his subordinates and between his subordinates and the other members of his group. Everything that the leader does in his role as trainer, teacher, administrator, commander, or counselor contributes to or detracts from the totality of this relationship. The simplest correction or the sternest admonition; a momentary contact or long hours of common experience; the briefest suggestion or the most complete and detailed order—all have within them the potential of enhancing or decreasing the leader's effective relationship and personal influence with his subordinates.

Section II. CONCEPTS OF MILITARY LEADERSHIP

3. The Military Leader

The basic concept of military leadership envisions the leader who, aware of his responsibilities, capitalizes on his strong traits, guides himself by the principles of leadership, and applies correct actions and orders to influence and direct his men favorably and knit them into an effective unit (fig. 1). To successfully accomplish this goal, the commander must understand men and the reasons for their behavior under various influences. He must also learn to recognize and evaluate the indications of leadership (par. 4).
Concept of leadership.
4. Definitions

a. Military Leadership. The art of influencing and directing men in such a way as to obtain their willing obedience, confidence, respect, and loyal cooperation in order to accomplish the mission.

b. Leadership Traits. Personal qualities that are of direct value to the commander in gaining the willing obedience, confidence, respect, and loyal cooperation of his men.

c. Leadership Principles. Fundamental truths that are applied by a leader to control or guide his actions and the actions of his subordinates.

d. Leadership Indications.

(1) Morale—the state of mind of the individual. This depends upon his attitude toward everything that affects him.

(2) Discipline—the individual or group attitude that insures prompt obedience to orders and initiation of appropriate action in the absence of orders.

(3) Esprit de corps—loyalty to, pride in, and enthusiasm for a unit shown by its members.

(4) Proficiency—the technical, tactical, and physical ability of the individual and the unit.

e. Effective Unit. One that will accomplish with the minimum expenditure of means and time, any mission assigned or implied for which it has been organized, equipped, and trained.

f. Leadership Actions and Orders. Those things
a leader does to enable him to both influence and direct his command. The leader’s action or order should—

(1) Accomplish or aid in the accomplishment of one or both of the commander’s basic responsibilities.

(2) Be guided by the principles of leadership.

(3) Exhibit the strong traits of the leader.

g. Leader. A person who possesses qualities necessary to direct others; a title used for persons in charge of units smaller than a company. See note.

h. Commander. Title of an officer in charge of a company, battery, or larger unit.

Note. This manual makes no distinction between the terms commander and leader as the fundamentals of leadership are applicable at all levels of command.

5. Characteristics of Leadership

a. Universal Nature of Leadership. The military profession has no monopoly on leadership. In every walk of life, in every industry, in every government, in every phase of human endeavor there are leaders. Progress and success are dependent upon the quality and efficiency of leadership.

b. Elements of Leadership. Leadership involves understanding, analyzing, predicting, and controlling men’s behavior. Also involved in successful leadership is the will to lead, together with the character which inspires confidence. Undoubtedly, there are certain inherent characteristics that may aid in the development of leadership. Yet, certain men possessing desirable leadership traits may
never attain the stature of great leaders; likewise, men deficient in certain of these traits may have attained this stature. Any theory that leadership is solely inherited must be rejected. Leadership is intangible only to the extent that we make it so. Any reasonably intelligent man, no matter how inexperienced, can become acquainted with the the component elements of leadership. These elements may be studied, practiced, learned, and applied, just as any other human accomplishment may be learned and mastered.

c. The Leader and the Small Group. A leader actually maintains close personal contact with only a small group, regardless of the number of men ultimately controlled by him. Inevitably he must depend upon that small group to make his will known and to execute his purpose. We refer to the small group as immediate subordinates and staff.

6. Relationship Between Command and Leadership

a. Authoritarian and Persuasive Leadership. Broadly, there are two kinds of leadership—authoritarian and persuasive. One who is predominately of the authoritarian type normally is recognized by the dogmatic use of authority or power. The persuasive type of leadership takes into consideration the human element with all its complexity and its differences in the physical, mental, and emotional capabilities and limitations of the individual. To a great extent, the persuasive leader bases his skill in leadership upon example and ability, with high standards of discipline and effi-
ciency for himself as well as his followers. The military leader is normally persuasive, but may be authoritative, to meet the requirements of a situation.

b. The Exercise of Command. Command is the authority that a member of the military profession lawfully exerts over subordinates by virtue of his rank and assignment. Leadership can be exercised by any one at any time. It is recognized that in any group some individual will emerge as the leader, even though no command or organizational structure is present. Individuals in coordinating capacities exercise leadership in their dealing with their equals outside the immediate command structure. In general, however, we think of military leadership as being exercised within this structure; therefore, in one sense, leadership is the proper exercise of command.

c. Accompaniments of Command. Command, with all it implies—administration, planning, executing, supervising, and coordinating—is the primary reason for the military leader's existence. The leader is responsible not only for initiating action, but for supervising all activities within his command. In this responsibility for the general administration of a group, it is his duty to receive, comply with, and execute instructions with exactness and thoroughness, regardless of his personal feelings.

7. Objective of Military Leadership

The objective of military leadership is the development and maintenance of an effective organiza-
tion. The proper application of the principles of leadership can create a proficient, well-disciplined organization possessing high morale and esprit de corps.

8. Basic Responsibilities of the Commander

a. The commander has two basic responsibilities; accomplishment of his mission, and welfare of his men. These basic responsibilities are of equal importance. However, in the event a conflict arises in the mind of the commander regarding these responsibilities, the mission must take precedence. Normally, efficient accomplishment of the mission will help to satisfy the responsibility of welfare of the men.

b. Command is accompanied by responsibilities involving special trust and confidence. The basic responsibilities cannot be delegated by a commander to his subordinates. He alone must shoulder the responsibility of the position he occupies.
9. General

The ability to handle men—the art of leadership—involves understanding, predicting, and controlling men’s behavior. The commander can do a far better job if he makes a constant effort to better understand himself and the soldiers with whom he serves. He does not need the training of a psychologist, but he must have an understanding of the basic human behavior patterns in order to obtain maximum effectiveness from his men.

10. Individual Differences Among Men

a. All men are different. Each man’s personality is the sum total of his physical, mental, emotional characteristics and environment and background. These characteristics vary from man to man.

(1) Physical and mental characteristics help to determine types of work for which a man is best suited. They also indicate the types and intensity of physical work he can be expected to perform. Some men are better at jobs requiring mechanical ability or dexterity; others are capable of performing complex mental tasks requiring application, reasoning and intellect. If a “bright” individual is given a
dull job, he may become bored and resentful. If a man is given a job which calls for more of a particular mental aptitude than he possesses, he may become discouraged and resentful. At any rate, a man (malassigned) in one of these situations will certainly add little to the team effort.

(2) Emotional characteristics are particularly important parts of a soldier’s personality. The way he reacts to a difficult problem, to danger, to hardship—all must be understood by the commander. Under pressure, one man may become angered and another may quit or run away; still another may react very calmly.

b. Not only is each individual’s personality unique, but it is also constantly changing. A man changes physically, mentally, and emotionally as he matures and gains more experience. Broadly speaking, three factors tend to shape personality.

(1) Heredity. Each person inherits many characteristics from his parents. A man may, for example, inherit the mental capacity to become a top scientist. Or, he may inherit the potential to grow to be 6 feet tall. Whether or not he will ultimately attain the upper limits of his inherited potential depends upon his environment and life experiences.

(2) Environment. Those relatively unchanging aspects of the world as the soldier
knows it—the family he belongs to, the church and schools he attends, the types of food he eats—constitute his environment. It has a pronounced effect on his personality. Taking the example of the soldier who inherits the potential to be a 6 footer, the type of food, the amount of exercise, the health conditions which are a part of that soldier’s environment may either permit or prevent him from attaining a height of 6 feet. The individual’s environment may accelerate or retard the development of inherited mental capacity.

(3) Experiences. Identical twins may be reared in the same environment, but they will still develop different personalities. One will encounter different experiences than the other. One may reach a height of 6 feet while another contracts poliomyelitis and grows no taller than 5 feet 9 inches. The unique experiences which each person encounters will affect him mentally and physically. In addition, these varied experiences will play a definite role in his emotional growth and in shaping his attitudes.

11. The Roots of Behavior

Certain conditions must be met if the individual’s pattern of behavior is to be socially acceptable and satisfying to himself. These conditions, or roots of behavior, may be described as “basic human
needs." Some are physical, others we acquire through the learning process as we go through life.

a. Physical Needs. The satisfaction of a physical need may become a goal which motivates the individual to behave in a specific manner. The physical needs are those pertaining to food, drink, clothing, shelter, and the normal body functions.

b. Learned Needs. These result as a man relates the value of certain conditions to his continued well being. These conditions are security, social approval, and recognition. Learned needs also motivate men to react in a certain manner.

(1) Security. We are able to predict the consequences of the course of events to the point where we can see that certain actions on our part may result in material or physical harm. We tend to alter our behavior accordingly. Many men will run grave risks to gain greater security for the future. No one wants to be injured, but physical security is the motive behind statements such as "kill or be killed" and "it's either them or us."

(2) Social approval. The opinions of the group to which we belong strongly influence our behavior. Few men will take a course of action designed to incur the disfavor of the group. We learn quite early in life that we will go much further if we cooperate with the other members of our society. We run the risk of incurring both material and physical harm if we
act counter to the ideals and expectations of the group.

(3) Recognition. Every man feels the need for frequent tangible proof that he is getting ahead. We work hard to gain some measure of success, and if recognition is not forthcoming, we will eventually quit or try some other pattern of behavior. Even a single pat on the back is often enough to reassure a subordinate that his performance is appreciated.

12. Goals and Frustration

a. The struggle to satisfy the physical and learned needs and our past experience in satisfying these needs, lead us to place certain values on objects in life. Highly valued objects become “goals.” A steak may be a goal when we are hungry. Promotion may be a goal if we are seeking recognition.

b. When we are blocked in our attempts to reach a certain goal, we may become frustrated. Our energy is blocked and backs up like water behind a dam. To some degree we all experience frustrations, varying from minor irritations to major disturbances. The degree of frustration depends on the value we placed on the goal in question.

c. The outward evidence of frustration may take many forms—anger, cursing, weeping, and nervousness. Serious frustrations that deny the satisfaction of a need for a long period of time can cause adverse changes in a man’s behavior. Absence without leave may result from a belief by
the soldier that he has not been accepted by his unit. The soldier whose hard work does not earn him a promotion or even a word of thanks from his leaders may develop bitterness that will affect not only him but other soldiers.

d. None of us can completely avoid frustration. Instead, the normal person plans ahead so as to avoid many frustrations and at the same time takes steps to adjust to existing frustrations. He may alter his methods for attaining particular goals if the ways he has tried are blocked. He may even pick different goals which he feels are more attainable.

13. Adjustment

a. When a man enters the Army, he leaves an environment in which he had made a reasonably satisfactory adjustment and enters another filled with frustrating circumstances. He must make many physical, mental, and emotional adjustments, involving altered methods of attaining his goals and the choosing of new goals. If he can do this successfully, we say that the soldier has “adjusted.” If the frustrations are too many and too great, the soldier becomes maladjusted.

b. The problem of adjustment is a real problem for the Army as well as the soldier. Some 545,000 men were discharged from the service for mental defectiveness and mental diseases during World War II. Of these, 50 percent became apparent within 30 days after induction; 85 percent became apparent within six months after induction. Less
than 15 percent of all maladjustments became apparent in the battle zone, and of these, the majority were returned to combat.

c. An analysis of the causes for this loss of manpower and the resultant loss of effectiveness in all units revealed, in many instances, that leaders were not cognizant of the needs of their men, and therefore not providing assistance in the satisfaction of these needs; in fact, in many cases poor leaders were actually adding to the men’s adjustment problems.

14. Helping the Soldier to Adjust to Army Life

If the soldier comes to feel consciously or subconsciously that he can satisfy his physical and learned needs within the Army, adjustment comes rapidly. A good commander employs many techniques to bring about this adjustment. Some of the techniques help the soldier find new ways to reach some of his old goals. Many more of the commander’s techniques serve to demonstrate to the young soldier how the attainment of other new goals also results in the satisfaction of his needs. When the soldier accepts these goals as his own and realizes that they are also the Army’s goals, and struggles to achieve them, he is well on his way to becoming the world’s finest soldier.
15. General

Leadership traits are personal qualities which, if shown in your daily activities, help you earn your men's respect, confidence, willing obedience, and loyal cooperation. By sizing up your own strong and weak points, you can develop the leadership traits in which you are weak and further strengthen those in which you are strong. The attitudes of the men toward a commander are determined by whether their needs are satisfied by the leader's personal traits. For this reason, the traits of a commander directly affect the behavior of his men.

16. Essential Traits

a. A study of the lives and careers of successful commanders reveals that many of the following personal traits or qualities are common to all of them:

   (1) Integrity.
   (2) Knowledge.
   (3) Courage (physical and moral).
   (4) Decisiveness.
   (5) Dependability.
   (6) Initiative.
(7) Tact.
(8) Justice.
(9) Enthusiasm.
(10) Bearing.
(11) Endurance.
(12) Unselfishness.
(13) Loyalty.
(14) Judgment.

b. This list is by no means all-inclusive, but it is representative of those desirable traits in a military leader. Paragraphs 17 through 30 describe each of these traits and give suggestions that will help you develop them.

17. Integrity

a. Integrity, the uprightness of character and soundness of moral principle, the quality of absolute truthfulness and honesty, is an indispensable trait in a leader.

b. On the Armed Forces Team the stakes are too high to place the lives of its members in the hands of men with questionable integrity. For example, battle information is necessary for those responsible for making decisions in combat. In the flow of reports from the smallest unit to the highest headquarters, a departure from strict truth by any individual can imperil the entire operation. Unless a man can be relied upon for absolute truthfulness and honesty, he cannot be relied upon at all. There is no possible compromise. The nature of the mili-
tary profession does not permit the slightest deviation from the highest standards of personal integrity.

c. To develop your personal integrity—

(1) Practice absolute honesty and truthfulness with yourself at all times.

(2) Be accurate and truthful in all your statements, both official and unofficial.

(3) Stand for what you believe to be right.

(4) Whenever you are tempted to compromise, place honesty, sense of duty, and moral principles above all else.

18. Knowledge

a. Nothing attracts confidence and respect more quickly than demonstrated knowledge—acquired information, including professional knowledge and an understanding of your subordinates. The man who knows his job builds confidence in himself as well as in others. Lack of knowledge cannot be concealed; you cannot bluff your men. If you do not know the answer to a particular question, admit it; then take steps to get the information.

b. Your knowledge should not be limited to military subjects. A general fund of information, particularly on national and international events, will make you a more rounded personality.

c. To increase your knowledge—

(1) Keep a military file and a small library.
(2) Study field manuals and other military literature such as regulations, training directives, battle operations, and past military campaigns.

(3) Read the service periodicals and books on the Department of the Army reading list.

(4) Read the daily newspapers and weekly magazines; try to evaluate current news impartially and correctly.

(5) Form the habit of developing serious conversations on military subjects.

(6) Evaluate your experience and the experience of others.

(7) Be alert; listen; observe; conduct research on matters you do not understand.

19. Courage (Physical and Moral)

    a. Courage is a mental quality that recognizes fear of danger or criticism but enables a man to proceed in the face of it with calmness and firmness. It is a quality of mind that gives a man control over himself, enabling him to accept responsibility and to act in a dangerous situation. It is vital to leadership.

    b. The leader must have moral as well as physical courage. Moral courage means knowing and standing for what is right in the face of popular disfavor. A leader who has moral courage will admit his errors, but will enforce his decisions when sure he is correct.
c. To help yourself attain and demonstrate courage—

(1) Study and understand your emotion of fear.

(2) Control your fear by developing self-discipline and calmness.

(3) Speak in a calm tone; keep an orderliness in your thought process; don't exaggerate physical danger or adversity in your own mind.

(4) If you fear doing certain things in your daily life, force yourself to do these things until you conquer them.

(5) Stand for what is right in the face of popular condemnation.

(6) Look for and readily accept responsibilities.

(7) Accept the blame when you are at fault.

20. Decisiveness

a. The leader should have the ability to reach decisions promptly and to announce them in a clear, forceful manner.

b. Every situation offers a variety of solutions. The wise leader gets all the facts, weighs one against the other, and calmly and quickly arrives at a sound decision. Decisiveness is largely a matter of practice and experience.

c. To develop decisiveness—

(1) Learn to be positive in your actions. Don't delay; don't "beat around the bush."
(2) Get the facts, make up your mind, and then issue your order with confidence.

(3) Check decisions you have made to determine if they were sound and timely.

(4) Check decisions made by others. If you do not agree, think why; then determine if your reasons for disagreement are sound.

(5) Broaden your viewpoint by studying the actions of others.

(6) Take advantage of the experience of others to learn from their mistakes.

21. Dependability

a. Dependability, the certainty of proper performance of duty, is a quality the leader must develop.

b. The dependable leader is one who can be relied upon to carry out actively, intelligently, and with willing effort the intent of his commander. This willing and voluntary compliance with the plans and will of the superior does not mean blind and dog-like obedience. Most commanders will listen to the suggestions of their subordinates, but once the commander makes the final decision, the subordinate must give it his complete and energetic support.

c. A military duty is an obligation to be performed. Thus a high sense of duty results in a high standard of performance, a constant and continuous effort to give the best a leader has in him. Duty demands the sacrifice of personal interests in
favor of military demands, rules and regulations, orders and procedures, and the welfare of subordinates.

d. To develop dependability—

(1) Do not make excuses.

(2) Do every task assigned to you to the best of your ability, regardless of personal beliefs.

(3) Be exact in details.

(4) Form the habit of being punctual.

(5) Follow orders to the letter in spirit and fact.

(6) Give adequate attention to the general welfare of your men.

22. Initiative

a. Initiative, seeing what has to be done and commencing a course of action, even in the absence of orders, is necessary in all grades. Encourage initiative among your subordinates by giving them duties on a level with their grade and then allowing them to work out the details and finish the job. This does not mean that you can deal out the tasks and then do nothing else. You must know the jobs well enough to supervise properly. Furthermore, you must retain for yourself those functions that are exclusively the commander's. Soldiers unite quickly behind a commander who meets new and unexpected situations with prompt action.

b. Closely allied with initiative is the quality of resourcefulness, the ability to deal with a situation
in the absence of normal means or methods. Military supply, organization, and training are designed to meet all normal situations, but they sometimes fail, particularly under combat conditions where the unexpected is normal. Inactivity or passive acceptance of an unsatisfactory situation because of lack of normal means or ways of dealing with it is never justified.

c. To develop initiative—

(1) Stay mentally and physically alert.

(2) Train yourself to recognize tasks that need to be done and do them without having to be told and without hesitation.

(3) Think ahead.

23. Tact

a. Tact is the ability to deal with others without creating offense. In the field of human relations, tact is the ability to say and do the proper thing at the proper time. It is an understanding of human nature and a consideration for the feelings of others.

b. Tact is particularly important in those contacts with subordinates in which the personal element is involved. Criticism has to be made in such a way that what is meant will be clearly apparent, yet will neither cause discouragement nor detract from the drive and energy of the subordinate. Every commander needs tact in helping those men who come to him with personal problems. These often involve family relations and other personal matters that are accompanied by embarrassment.
or shame. Avoid judging such situations; your role is that of counselor only and it calls for common sense in making suggestions. Sometimes the highest degree of tact is simply to listen with sympathetic attention and interest, finding out what the soldier's own solution is. You may confirm his solution or suggest a different one.

c. Courtescy is a part of tact that you cannot afford to neglect in your relations with subordinates. To demand, yet fail to return courtesy in full measure indicates either arrogance or a lack of interest. The inexperienced officer or non-commissioned officer often feels that politeness in a military command implies softness; or worse, that from a subordinate it smacks of "bootlicking." Nothing is further from the truth. Courtesy is a matter both of words and actions. One leader may bark out his orders impersonally and abruptly. Another may give his orders in a tone tinged with a courtesy that implies the expectancy of obedience. Either method may get obedience, but the second of the two will get more willing obedience and cooperation. In times of emergency, abrupt rapid fire orders become desirable because they save time and there is no need to imply expected obedience. There are other times, too, when a forceful tone can well replace a courteous tone; but even then there is no reason for outright discourtesy. Usually, a calm, courteous, though firm mode of address, will bring the readiest response. Thus tact and courtesy are closely tied in with manner, language, and bearing.
d. To develop tact—
(1) Be courteous and cheerful.
(2) Be considerate of others.
(3) Study the actions of successful officers who enjoys a reputation for being skilled in human relations.
(4) Study different types of personalities; gain a knowledge of human nature.
(5) Develop the habit of cooperating in spirit as well as in fact.
(6) Check yourself for tolerance; if at fault, correct this deficiency.
(7) Treat others as you desire to be treated.

24. Justice

a. Justice is the quality of being impartial and consistent in exercising command. Justice involves the rendering of reward and the meting out of punishment in accordance with the merits of the case. Anger and other emotions must not enter into a situation. Prejudice of race or creed must be avoided. Few things will disrupt the morale of an organization more quickly than unfairness or partiality of a leader toward a certain man or group of men.

b. As a leader you are called upon to render justice in such matters as promotions and punishment. Your decisions are a test of your fairness. It takes a long time to build up a reputation among your men for being fair. One thoughtless error or one injustice can destroy a good reputation that took months to establish.
c. To render justice, you must understand human behavior. Study people with the idea of learning why certain types behave the way they do under certain conditions and others behave differently under the same conditions. Analyze the cases that have been decided and determine what you would have done had you been the one to make the decision. This, of course, is a private process and should never be used as an occasion to criticize the decision of another leader.

d. To develop this trait of justice—

(1) Be impersonal and impartial when imposing punishment.

(2) Consider every offense referred to you on its own merits.

(3) Search your mental attitudes to determine if you hold any prejudices and, if so, rid your mind of them.

(4) Analyze cases acted upon by officers who have a reputation for being just.

(5) Be impartial. Play no favorites.

(6) Be honest with yourself.

(7) Recognize juniors worthy of commendation or award. Don’t be known as one who dispenses only punishment.

25. Enthusiasm

a. Enthusiasm is the display of sincere interest and exuberance in the performance of duties. It implies that you approach your work with a cheerful and optimistic attitude, determined to do a
good job. This attitude is necessary because your example will be copied by those you lead.

b. An important part of enthusiasm is your performance of tasks with vigor, because of willingness and gratification in accomplishment, rather than doing them half-heartedly merely because you must do them. Enthusiasm is particularly important in instructing and training, where, through example, your interest and enthusiasm are reflected by your men.

c. To develop enthusiasm—

(1) Understand and believe in your mission.
(2) Be cheerful and optimistic.
(3) Explain to your men the "why" of uninteresting and distasteful jobs.
(4) Capitalize on success. Enthusiasm is contagious and nothing will develop it more than the success of the unit or individual.
(5) Don't get stale. Set aside a period every day to free your mind of official matters and relax.

26. Bearing

a. Bearing, creating a favorable impression in carriage, appearance, and personal conduct at all times, deserves the attention of all leaders. Your carriage should be upright, your general appearance and the condition of your clothing and equipment should establish the standard for the rest of your unit, and you should show life and energy in your actions and movements.
b. By your appearance and manner, you must express competence and confidence, often to a degree beyond what you actually feel. By exercising control over your voice and gestures, you can exert a firm and steadying influence, especially in combat. All good leaders know that their apparent confidence in themselves, in their troops, and in the situation is reflected in their men. Few things can better maintain the morale of troops than the realization that their leader, with full knowledge of the difficulties of a situation, neither looks nor acts worried as perhaps he has a right to do. Too much severity, austerity, and strictness of manner balk the sympathy and confidence you must have from your men. Frequent irritation and uncontrolled displays of temper indicate that you do not have even yourself in hand.

c. Language is another of the outward marks by which you will be judged and through which you have an ever present influence on your men. Speak plainly and simply. Make your sentences short, simple, positive, and direct. If you must use terms that may not be clearly understood, explain their meaning. At the same time, avoid talking down to your men.

d. Immoderate language almost always produces unfavorable results both in the individual and in the unit. To use profane or obscene language and to permit its use by subordinate leaders, especially in giving orders, is to risk friction, resentment, quarreling, and even insubordination. Men resent being sworn at by their superiors. They feel, and
rightly so, that the superior has taken unfair advantage of his authority. The same applies to any immoderate language. A “bawling out” is commonly resented as a personal attack. It is, in fact, more often an expression of anger than a proper correction. The more or less impersonal point at issue is lost, and the matter becomes a mental clash between individuals. Likewise, the use of immoderate language, or of any language, in wholesale criticism and condemnation of a group should be particularly avoided. It is not likely that you will ever have a unit that will deserve a wholesale reprimand. Nothing creates resentment so readily in a subordinate as to be included unfairly with others who may deserve disciplinary action. This is true not only of your language but of all general punishments. If violent language ever has any basis for use, reserve it for an extreme emergency on the battlefield. A tongue-lashing at that time may have a stimulating and steadying effect, but it is lost if such speech is habitual.

e. Sarcasm and irony seldom bring good results. Many men do not understand sarcasm and irony and are never quite sure what their leader means. Even a bantering tone should not be used often. This does not mean that a joke can never be used, but too much wisecracking by the leader inevitably results in wisecrack replies from his troops. The American soldier is too accustomed to this kind of talk to resist cracking back if he thinks he can get away with it. He will have reason to think he can get away with it if he is always on the receiving
end of such remarks. At the same time, any wise leader will know that in some circumstances a certain amount of joking is helpful. When there is discouragement in the air or when exhausted troops must be called upon for another effort, a flash of humor helps greatly. It tends to give confidence in time of stress, even in the midst of the most confused and strenuous combat. Indeed it is often the American way of implying sympathy and understanding—even cooperation—in the midst of difficulty.

f. A leader should be dignified. Dignity implies a state of being worthy or honorable. It requires the control of one's actions and emotions. A leader who makes a spectacle of himself through loudness, drink, or lack of emotional control quickly loses the respect of his men.

g. To develop the manner, language, and bearing of a leader—

1. Require of yourself the highest standards in appearance and conduct.
2. Know and adhere to regulations concerning dress and conduct.
3. Avoid use of vulgar speech.
4. If you drink liquor, drink moderately.
5. Avoid coarse behavior.
6. Habitually maintain a dignified demeanor.
7. Avoid making a spectacle of yourself.
8. Know when to be seen, both officially and socially. Anticipate when your presence or absence may embarrass yourself and others.
27. Endurance

a. Endurance, the mental and physical stamina measured by the ability to stand pain, fatigue, distress, and hardship, is akin to courage. It is one of the most important qualities in determining leadership ability. You must have it if you are to command the proper respect from subordinates. A lack of endurance may be confused with lack of courage and brand the leader who is in poor physical condition as a coward. Endurance implies the ability to stick to a job and see it through.

b. To develop physical and mental stamina—
   (1) Avoid nonessential activities that will lower stamina.
   (2) Cultivate physical training habits that will strengthen your body; learn to stand punishment by undertaking difficult physical tasks.
   (3) Test your endurance by frequently subjecting yourself to unusual physical and mental exercises.
   (4) Force yourself to continue on occasions when you are tired and your mind is sluggish.
   (5) Form the habit of finishing every task to the best of your abilities.

28. Unselfishness

a. The unselfish leader is one who avoids providing for his own comfort and personal advancement at the expense of others. Put the comfort, pleasures, and recreation of subordinates before
your own. If the unit is commended for some outstanding work, pass along the credit for the achievement to the subordinates who made it possible. No subordinate can respect a superior who takes the credit for the good work and ideas, and who makes sure that his subordinates get the blame for the unsatisfactory work. To be a true leader, you must share the same dangers, hardships, and discomforts as your men.

b. To become an unselfish leader—

(1) Avoid using your position and rank to enhance your personal gain, safety, or pleasure at the expense of others.

(2) Be considerate of the problems, military or personal, of your men and assist them where appropriate.

(3) Give credit to your subordinates for work well done.

29. Loyalty

a. This is the quality of faithfulness to country, the Army, your unit, and to your senior and subordinates. This quality alone can do much to earn for you the confidence and respect of your senior and subordinate associates. Your every action must reflect loyalty to your command. Be careful not to betray the command by discussing its problems outside of your organization.

b. To demonstrate the quality of loyalty—

(1) Be quick to defend your subordinates from abuse.
(2) Never give the slightest hint of disagreement with orders from your senior when relating instructions to subordinates.

(3) Practice doing every task to the best of your ability and wholeheartedly supporting your commander’s decisions.

(4) Never discuss the personal problems of your associates with others.

(5) Stand up for your country, your Army, your unit, and your associates when they are unjustly accused.

(6) Never criticize your seniors in the presence of subordinates nor permit such discussions among subordinates.

30. Judgment

a. Judgment is the quality of weighing facts and possible solutions on which to base sound decisions. Enhance your judgment by being as technically qualified as possible.

b. To improve your judgment—

(1) Practice making estimates of the situation.

(2) Anticipate those situations of the military profession that require decisions, so that you are prepared when the need arises.

(3) Be careful to avoid making rash decisions.
31. Leadership Principles

Certain fundamentals are habitually followed by successful leaders in making decisions and taking action. The fundamentals used for the proper exercise of command are known as leadership principles. These are listed and explained in paragraphs 32 through 42.

32. Principle I—Be Technically and Tactically Proficient

a. To know your job thoroughly, you must possess a wide field of knowledge. You should be tactically able in the field of combat operations and understand all of the technical aspects of your command.

b. Techniques for application.

(1) Seek a well-rounded military education through attendance at service schools and through independent reading, research, and study.

(2) Keep abreast of latest techniques in the field of communication to facilitate control of your unit and to disseminate information.

(3) Seek out and foster association with capable leaders. Observe and study their
actions and application of leadership techniques.

(4) Broaden your field of knowledge through association with officers and men of other arms and services.

(5) Seek opportunity to apply knowledge through the exercises of command. Real leadership is acquired only through constant practice.

(6) Avoid overspecialization.

(7) Keep abreast of current military developments.

(8) By study and through frequent visits to subordinates, familiarize yourself with the capabilities and limitations of all elements of your command.

(9) Develop techniques for measuring performance of the unit.

(10) Develop skill as an instructor.

(11) Take every opportunity to prepare yourself for command at the next higher echelon.

33. Principle II—Know Yourself and Seek Self-Improvement

a. It is your duty to evaluate yourself and recognize your own strengths and weaknesses. No one can become a successful leader until he knows his own capabilities and limitations and is, in fact, the master of himself. Strive to develop desirable traits of leadership as discussed in chapter 3.

b. Techniques for application.

(1) Analyze yourself objectively to determine
the strong and weak points of your character. Make an effort to overcome the weak ones.

(2) Solicit, when appropriate, the candid opinions of others as to how you can make the most of your desirable qualities and eliminate the undesirable ones.

(3) Profit by studying the causes for the success or failure of other leaders past and present.

(4) Develop a genuine interest in people; acquire the human touch.

(5) Treat others as you desire to be treated.

(6) Master the art of good writing and speaking.

(7) Cultivate cordial relations with members of the other arms and services and with civilians.

(8) Develop a philosophy of life and of work. Have a definite goal and plan to attain it.

34. Principle III—Know Your Men and Look Out for Their Welfare

a. You will have a better understanding of how your subordinates react and function under various conditions when you make a conscientious effort to observe them, become personally acquainted with them, and recognize their individual differences. You should anticipate and make provisions for the needs of your men. By doing so you win their
willing obedience, confidence, respect, and loyal cooperation.

b. Techniques for application.

(1) See the members of your command and let them see you; be friendly and approachable.

(2) Develop an intimate knowledge and understanding of your subordinates through personal contact and available records. In small commands, it is imperative not only that the leader know and address his subordinates by name, but also that he be familiar with their characteristics.

(3) Interest yourself in the living conditions of the members of your command, including their family environment, food, clothing, and billeting.

(4) Make ample provision for, and give personal and visible attention to, the various personnel services including recreation, particularly those concerned with the personal problems of individuals.

(5) Provide for the spiritual welfare of your command by supporting religious activities.

(6) Protect the health of your command by active supervision of hygiene and sanitation.

(7) Support actively a safety program.

(8) Determine the mental attitude of members of your command by frequent in-
formal visits and by using fully all available sources of information.

(9) Administer justice impartially to all without fear or favor. When punishment is necessary, you should—

(a) Be fair, consistent, prompt, and impersonal.

(b) Punish in private, with dignity, and with human understanding.

(c) Never impose degrading punishment.

(d) Avoid punishing a group for the faults of an individual.

(e) Always make the individual feel that the punishment is temporary and that improvement is expected.

(10) Insure fair and equitable distribution of passes, leaves, rotation, and other privileges.

(11) Encourage educational development by providing educational opportunities for members of your command.

(12) Provide sufficient athletic and recreational facilities within the organization, and insure that your command is receiving its share of quotas for recreation areas and entertainment benefits.

(13) Share the problems of your men so that you may better understand them.

35. Principle IV—Keep Your Men Informed

a. All men want to know how well they have done and what will further be expected of them.
The individual who is well informed, commensurate with security requirements, as to the situation and his mission is more effective than one who is uninformed. Keeping a man informed promotes initiative and improves morale. This includes passing information down as well as up.

b. Techniques for application.

(1) Explain to your principal subordinates why any particular task must be accomplished and how you propose to do it.

(2) Assure yourself by frequent inspections and visits that subordinates are transmitting necessary information to the men.

(3) Keep your principal subordinates informed of plans for future operations, subject only to security restrictions.

(4) Disseminate information concerning the capabilities of our weapons compared to those of an active or potential enemy. Where an enemy has an initial advantage, show how this can be overcome.

(5) Be sure the troops are informed of the capabilities and limitations of supporting units, arms, and services.

(6) Be alert to detect the spread of false rumors. Stop rumors by replacing them with truth.

(7) Build confidence and esprit de corps by exploiting all information concerning successes of the command.

(8) Keep your unit informed about current
legislation affecting their pay, promotion, privileges, etc.

36. Principle V—Set the Example

a. Men instinctively look to you for examples that they may follow or use as an excuse for their own shortcomings. Your individual appearance and conduct must evoke from your subordinates praise, pride, and a desire to emulate you. Set the standard for your entire command by outstanding performance of duty. The commander who appears in an unfavorable light before his men destroys the mutual respect that must exist between a leader and his men.

b. Techniques for application.

(1) Be at all times physically fit, mentally alert, well groomed, and correctly dressed.

(2) Master your emotions. The commander who is subject to intemperate bursts of anger or to periods of depression will have difficulty in gaining and holding the respect and loyalty of his subordinates.

(3) Maintain an optimistic outlook. The will to win is infectious. Foster it by capitalizing on your unit's capabilities and successes, not on its limitations or failures. Maintain an air of outward calmness. The more difficult the situation, the more important this becomes.

(4) Conduct yourself so that your personal habits are not open to censure. Coarse
behavior and vulgarity are the marks of an essentially weak and unstable character; these, together with a failure to be punctual and a tendency toward selfishness and self-indulgence in luxuries not available to the command in general, are inevitably resented by all ranks.

(5) Cooperate in spirit as well as in fact. Cooperation must work in two directions. It arises from a wholehearted desire by all members to further the effective operations of the team.

(6) Exercise initiative and promote the spirit of initiative in your subordinates.

(7) Be conspicuously loyal to those below you as well as to those above you. Support those under you as long as they discharge their duties conscientiously. The commander who seeks to protect an incompetent subordinate from correction by a higher commander is, however, himself disloyal. Loyalty is a primary trait of leadership and demands unqualified support of the policies of superior officers, whether the individual concerned personally favors them or not.

(8) Avoid the development of a clique of favorites. While it is difficult to avoid being partial to subordinates who have rendered loyal and superior service over a period of time, the temptation to show partiality should be vigorously resisted.
(9) Be morally courageous. The commander who fails to stand by his principles where the welfare of his command is concerned, or who attempts to avoid the responsibility for mistakes of his command, will fail to gain or hold the respect of his associates or subordinates.

(10) Share danger and hardship. A leader who has elements of his command subject to danger or to hardship of any kind should visit them as often as possible to demonstrate without ostentation his willingness to assume his share of the difficulties.

37. Principle VI—Insure That the Task is Understood, Supervised, and Accomplished

a. Give clear, concise orders that cannot be misunderstood. Then supervise to make sure that the order is properly executed. This is the most difficult part to carry out. The able leader makes wise use of his subordinates to carry out his orders effectively. Any commander who fails to make proper and adequate use of his staff and subordinates demonstrates a fundamental weakness in leadership ability.

b. Techniques for application:

(1) Through study and practice, develop the ability to think clearly and to issue clear, concise, positive orders.

(2) Encourage subordinates to seek immediate clarification about any point in your
orders or directives that they do not understand.

(3) Question your subordinates and assistants to determine if there is any doubt or misunderstanding as to the task to be performed.

(4) Supervise the execution of your orders. Your supervision must be firm and you must be insistent that your desires be carried out.

(5) Make every means possible available to your subordinates to assist them in accomplishing their mission. Instruct your staff to be as helpful and loyal to your subordinates as your staff is helpful and loyal to you.

(6) Supervise the execution of your orders by personal visits. When appropriate, require your staff officers to do the same.

(7) Insure that the need for an order exists.

(8) Utilize the established chain of command.

(9) Vary your supervisory routine and the points which you emphasize during inspections.

(10) Exercise thought and care in supervision. Over-supervision stifles initiative and creates resentment; under-supervision will not get the job done.

38. Principle VII—Train Your Men as a Team

a. It is your duty to develop teamwork through training of your command. Teamwork is the key
to successful operations; it starts in the smallest unit and carries through to the largest organization. (Teamwork concerns all aspects of military operations.) The military organization involves many different arms and services, all working together as a team toward a common goal. Each member of the team must understand where he fits into the effort. The commander who fosters teamwork while training his command will obtain the desired degree of unit proficiency. Good teamwork requires good discipline, morale, and esprit de corps.

b. Techniques for application.

(1) Insure by inspections and training tests that your command is being trained in accordance with training programs and doctrine prescribed by higher authority.

(2) Make sure that the best available facilities for team training are provided and that maximum use is made of such devices as communication drills, battle drills, and realistic field exercises.

(3) Insure that all training is purposeful and that the reasons for it are stressed.

(4) Insure that each element of the command is acquainted with the capabilities and limitations of all other elements, thereby developing mutual trust and understanding.

(5) Insure that each subordinate leader understands the mechanics of tactical control for his own echelon of command.
Predicate team training on modern realistic conditions.

Insist that each officer and enlisted man know the functions of each other officer and enlisted man with whom he habitually operates. Insist that each of these know and understand each other, their traits, peculiarities, strengths, and weaknesses.

Demand the highest standard of teamwork in all training.

Seize opportunities to train with other units, both combat and service.

Show each man his responsibilities and the importance of his role to the overall effectiveness of the unit.

39. Principle VIII—Make Sound and Timely Decisions

a. You must have the ability to make a rapid estimate of the situation and arrive at a sound decision. You must be able to reason logically under the most trying conditions and decide quickly what action is necessary to take advantage of opportunities as they occur. The vacillating commander not only is unable to employ his command effectively but also creates hesitancy, loss of confidence, and indecision within his command. When circumstances dictate a change in plans, act promptly and without fear that the command may consider such action indecisive. Proper planning ahead will lay the ground work for sound and timely decisions. Acquire the ability to make sound and timely decisions through constant study and training.
b. Techniques for application.

(1) Develop a logical and orderly thought process by constant practice in making objective estimates of the situation. Making an estimate is not restricted to the military. It is employed in the everyday life of all persons.

(2) So far as time and occasion permit, plan for every contingency that can reasonably be foreseen.

(3) Consider the advice and suggestions of your subordinates before making your own decisions.

(4) Announce decisions in time to allow subordinates to make necessary plans.

(5) Encourage concurrent estimates and planning in the various echelons of your command.

(6) Always make sure that your staff is familiar with your current policies and plans.

(7) Consider the effects of your selection on subordinates and supporting elements.

40. Principle IX—Develop a Sense of Responsibility Among Subordinates

a. Proper delegation of authority accompanied by proper supervision engenders trust, faith, and confidence. It develops initiative and wholehearted cooperation. Reluctance to delegate authority often is a mark of retarded development in leadership.
b. Techniques for application.

(1) Utilize the chain of command at every feasible opportunity.

(2) Tell your subordinates what to do, not how to do it; hold them responsible for results. Delegate and supervise, but do not intervene except when necessary. Avoid usurping the prerogatives of your subordinates.

(3) Provide all possible personnel with frequent opportunities to perform duties of the next higher echelon.

(4) Be quick to recognize accomplishments of your subordinates when they demonstrate initiative and resourcefulness.

(5) Correct errors in the use of judgment and initiative in such a way as to encourage the individual. Avoid public criticism or condemnation. Be liberal in openly giving praise which is deserved.

(6) Give unstintingly of help and advice when it is requested by those under your command.

(7) Insure that your personnel are assigned positions commensurate with demonstrated or potential ability.

(8) Be prompt and fair in backing subordinates to the limit. Until convinced otherwise, have faith in each subordinate.

(9) Demonstrate to your command that you are ready and willing to accept responsibility.
41. Principle X—Employ Your Command in Accordance With Its Capabilities

a. You must have a thorough knowledge of capabilities and limitations of your command if you are to employ it properly. Individuals in your command must be assigned duties commensurate with their capabilities. You must use sound judgment in the employment of your unit. Failure to accomplish the mission causes a loss of confidence, which in turn destroys efficiency and brings about the collapse of morale and esprit de corps.

b. Techniques for application.

(1) Know, understand, and apply the principles of war.

(2) Keep yourself informed as to the relative operational effectiveness of various elements of your command.

(3) Be sure that the accomplishment of tasks assigned to subordinates is reasonably possible, but do not hesitate to demand their utmost effort in order to achieve a quick victory or to avoid defeat.

(4) Analyze any task assigned. If means at your disposal appear inadequate, inform your immediate commander and request additional means.

(5) Make every effort to equalize tasks proportionately, over appropriate periods of time, among the several elements of your command.

(6) Utilize the full capabilities of your unit before requesting assistance.
**42. Principle XI—Seek Responsibility and Take Responsibility for Your Actions**

*a.* You must seize the initiative in the absence of orders. By seeking responsibility, you develop yourself professionally and increase your ability. Accept responsibility for all your unit does or fails to do.

*b.* Techniques for application.

(1) Learn the duties and responsibilities of your immediate supervisor.

(2) Seek diversified assignments that will give you responsibility and command experience.

(3) Take advantage of any opportunity that offers increased responsibility.

(4) Perform every task, large or small, to the best of your ability. Your reward will consist of increased opportunity to demonstrate your fitness to perform bigger and more important tasks.

(5) Remember that you are responsible for all your command does or fails to do.

(6) Accept justified criticism and admit mistakes.

(7) Adhere to what you think is right; have the courage of your convictions.

(8) Insure that a subordinate leader's failure was not due to some error on your part before considering his relief. Get to the basic cause of his failure—manpower is
valuable—and his replacement may be worse.

(9) Seize the initiative when a decision must be made and specific orders from higher headquarters are not forthcoming. Do what you think your superior would order if he were present.
CHAPTER 5
INDICATIONS OF LEADERSHIP

43. General
   a. There are four characteristics of a command that are indications of success or failure in the exercise of leadership—morale, discipline, esprit de corps, and proficiency. This manual treats these characteristics as the indications of leadership. You are obligated to continuously evaluate your unit using these indications of leadership as a gage. This is the only sound way for you to know whether your unit is effective and able to perform its mission.

   b. As you evaluate your unit you will discover problems that are having an adverse effect on one or more of the indications of leadership and are undermining the effectiveness of your unit. The following paragraphs define each of the indications and give methods for evaluating and developing them.

44. Interrelationship of the Four Indications

   All four of the indications of leadership contribute to the degree of effectiveness of a unit, and all are to some extent interdependent. No absences without leave for a period of time, for example, may well indicate high morale and good discipline. Therefore, some of the items listed under morale
will necessarily appear under discipline, proficiency, and esprit de corps. Although discipline, esprit de corps, and proficiency are dependent on the degree of morale present, all four should be considered of equal importance. The other three are dependent upon morale because it is the sum total of all the attitudes of the individual. It can be said that morale is the fertile soil in which the seeds of discipline, esprit de corps, and proficiency are sown. Thus, while you should strive for morale, initially, your efforts must always be directed toward building up all of the indications of leadership to a high degree, as the absence or lessening of one will soon destroy the others.

45. Morale

a. General. Morale may be defined as the individual's state of mind—how he feels about himself, his fellow soldiers, Army life in general, and all the other things that seem important to him. It is closely related to his needs. If your actions in the training, operations, administration, and fighting of your unit, satisfy the basic needs of your men, you will produce favorable attitudes in them. High morale gives the soldier a feeling of confidence and well-being that enables him to face hardship with courage, endurance, and determination.

b. Evaluation of Morale.

(1) Morale does not remain constant but is continuously changing. The state of morale of the members of your unit is an important index to the effectiveness with which you are using the principles and
techniques of leadership. You can measure morale by close observation of your men in their daily activities, by inspections, by formal and informal interviews, and by the evaluation of administrative and operational reports. Specific things to note are—

(a) Job proficiency.
(b) Appearance.
(c) Practice of military courtesy.
(d) Personal hygiene.
(e) Care of equipment.
(f) Condition of mess and quarters.
(g) Adequacy and suitability of rations.
(h) Care of casualties.
(i) Response to orders and directives.
(j) Use of recreational facilities.
(k) Attention during training.
(l) Number of rumors.
(m) Number of quarrels.

(2) Administrative reports concerning the status of personnel, when properly evaluated, aid in measuring morale. Particularly valuable are reports which deal with—

(a) Men absent without leave and deserters.
(b) Malingers.
(c) Arrests, military and civilian.
(d) Requests for transfer.
(e) Sick call rate.
(f) Stragglers.
(g) Self-inflicted wounds.
(h) Damage to or loss of equipment through carelessness.

46. Discipline

a. General. Discipline is the individual or group attitude that insures prompt obedience to orders and initiation of appropriate action in the absence of orders. The exacting discipline demanded in a military organization is of necessity much greater than the type of discipline demanded in school, church, or home. One of the major purposes of discipline is to instill in a command a helpful, potent spirit that will foster group identity and cohesion and motivate the individual to withstand the shock of battle. It results from effective training and intelligent leadership. Before a man can act resourcefully in the absence of orders he must have an understanding of what is to be done and the role he plays. This requires training. Before he can respond willingly and intelligently to orders, he needs the same understanding and ability, plus confidence in his superiors. This requires leadership.

b. Evaluation of Discipline. Things to watch for are—

(1) Attention to details.
(2) Harmonious relations between units and individuals.
(3) Attention to duty.
(4) Promptness in reporting for duty.
(5) Respect for superiors.
(6) Proper conduct of individuals at all times.
(7) Attention to cleanliness, dress, and saluting.
(8) Attendance at sick call only when medically necessary.
(9) Promptness in responding to commands, directives, and other orders.

47. Esprit De Corps

a. General. Esprit de corps is the loyalty to, pride in, and enthusiasm for a unit shown by its members. It implies devotion to the unit, acceptance of responsibility by individuals, and jealous regard for the honor of the unit. Esprit de corps is a spirit above and beyond the aggregate personalities of the individuals in a unit. It amounts to the unit's personality. It expresses the unit's will to fight and win.

b. Evaluation of Esprit De Corps. Esprit de corps depends on the satisfaction the members get out of belonging to a unit, or their confidence in their leaders and on their attitude toward other members of the unit. Evidences of esprit are—

(1) Expressions from the men showing enthusiasm and pride in their unit.
(2) A good reputation among other units.
(3) A strong competitive spirit.
(4) Willing participation by the members in unit activities.
(5) Pride in the traditions and history of the unit.
(6) Readiness on the part of the men to help one another.
(7) The belief that theirs is the best unit in the Army.

48. Proficiency

a. General. Proficiency is the technical, tactical, and physical ability of the individual and the unit to perform their job or mission. Unit proficiency is the sum of the skills of all the individuals in the unit welded together by the leader into a smooth running team.

b. Evaluation of Proficiency. Proficiency results largely from training; therefore, supervision of training should occupy the major portion of your time as a commander. This is the one sure method you have of judging the proficiency of individuals and of the unit. You will get proficiency when you demand the highest possible standard. Some of the marks of proficiency you should watch for are—

(1) Personal appearance and physical condition of the men.
(2) Appearance and condition of weapons and equipment.
(3) Willing acceptance and discharge of responsibility by subordinates.
(4) Businesslike operation of the unit.
(5) Troop leading ability of junior leaders.
(6) Promptness and accuracy in passing down orders and instructions.

(7) Promptness and accuracy in reporting and disseminating information.

49. Development of the Indications of Leadership

a. The development of the indications is a continuous concern. The operation and training of your unit must be carried out with the view in mind of developing the leadership indications. If you understand the forces that produce desired results, you will be better able to direct your efforts along productive lines.

b. Certain known actions have proved to develop a specific indication. An action designed to improve one of the indications of leadership may also develop the others. Following are the indications and some specific steps that will develop each:

1. Morale.
   (a) Teach belief in the cause and mission.
   (b) Instill confidence in self, training, equipment and leaders.
   (c) Insure job satisfaction by carefully considering job assignments.
   (d) Keep your men cognizant of your concern and the Army’s concern for their welfare.

2. Discipline.
   (a) Demonstrate discipline by your own conduct and example.
   (b) Set high standards of performance and insist they be met.
(c) Institute an impartial system for punishment and an equitable distribution of privileges.

(d) Remember, discipline is a result of mutual confidence gained through training.

(3) Esprit de corps.

(a) Start the men off right in the reception program by an orientation of the unit's history, traditions, and present role.

(b) Develop the feeling that the unit must excel.

(c) Recognize achievements of the unit and its members and see that they are properly publicized.

(d) Make use of ceremonies, symbols, and slogans.

(e) Use competition to develop teamwork.

(f) Make use of decorations and awards.

(4) Proficiency.

(a) Train your men in their individual duties.

(b) Emphasize teamwork through the chain of command.

(c) Establish a sound physical conditioning program.
50. General

a. Leadership requires the solving of a variety of problems. These problems cannot be ignored, and must be handled promptly in the most effective manner possible. If you fail to solve these problems, they may adversely affect the efficiency of your unit.

b. Some of the more common problem areas you will encounter are those of selection and development of junior leaders, the senior-subordinate relationship, reception and integration, assumption of command, and counseling.

51. Leadership Problem Solving Process

a. You cannot always rely upon your experiences and observations as guides for determining means of arriving at sound decisions. Problems are often much more complex than they appear to the casual observer and experiences are many times misleading. Therefore, it becomes necessary that you develop a thinking process which can be used to solve problems in an orderly and analytical manner.

b. The leadership problem solving process is a sound and analytical approach that helps you to
decide on “actions and orders” for the solution of leadership problems. There are three general steps in this process—recognize the problem, make an estimate of the situation, and take action.

1. **Recognize the problem.** A problem exists in a unit when an incident occurs or conditions exist which adversely affect one or more of the leadership indications. However, to think of a problem as being solely one of discipline, morale, espirit de corps, or proficiency, will not satisfy the first step in the problem solving process as there are many different incidents and conditions in a unit which influence each of these indications. Unless you understand what incidents or conditions present a problem, you will allow many of these to persist which will counteract your effort to develop and maintain an effective unit.

2. **Make an estimate of the situation.** It is necessary to take positive and immediate action when dealing with problems that arise within your command. However, before taking corrective action you should realize that a basic underlying cause exists. If the problem is to be entirely eliminated, or at least minimized, you must take additional steps to determine the cause. A rash leader who jumps to conclusions and does not attempt to exercise insight will often create a more seri-
ous problem than the one he is attempting to correct. Carefully analyze facts. Determine possible solutions and compare their strong and weak points. Select the best solution available.

(3) *Take action.* After making a complete estimate of the situation in order to select the best possible solution, select “actions or orders” to complete solving of the problem. The selected “action or order” will be guided by the same considerations as listed in paragraph 4f. Having decided on what to do, it remains for you to put your plan into effect and check results. Remember, one of the most outstanding factors which distinguishes a successful commander from a mediocre one is the ability to select sound “actions and orders.” Solve problems daily—do not let them accumulate—they multiply with inaction.

Section II. PROBLEM AREAS

52. Assumption of Command

*a.* Many conditions exist in military leadership that require rotation and replacement of leaders. This poses a problem for the leader who must assume command of a unit on short notice.

*b.* In assuming command of a unit, plan every move with the thought that the first impression you make will be a lasting one. Essential elements of planning an assumption of command follow:
(1) Observe your unit for a period of time before making any major changes. This insures that your actions and orders will be based on facts.

(2) Evaluate the indications of leadership in the unit. The majority of leadership problems originate in the areas covered by the indications. Judicious application of the problem solving process will expedite the solving of leadership problems. Evaluate your junior leaders to determine their strengths and weaknesses. Utilize all possible means to further the development of your subordinates. Evaluate the effectiveness of each subordinate element under your command with a view toward raising its level of proficiency.

(3) Orient your unit on your policies and desired standards. Set and maintain the highest standard attainable. The unit must be motivated to reach the ultimate goal of an effective unit.

(4) Set the example for your unit and junior leaders.

53. Selection of Junior Leaders

a. No foolproof method has been devised to determine whether a man will be a leader. Successful leaders with the responsibility for selecting leaders have used the following means to obtain information:

   (1) Interview. A personal interview is a valuable device to use to observe potential
leadership characteristics, and will often provide useful information not available from other sources. Whenever possible, plan the interview. Look for the following qualities during the interview:

(a) Poise.
(b) Ability to express ideas.
(c) Evidence of sincerity and honesty.
(d) Frankness.
(e) Pleasing personality.
(f) Grooming.

(2) Observation. This is a reliable method of gaining information when conducted over a period of time. Observe for the following:

(a) Possession of a positive attitude and approach toward all tasks.
(b) A desire to seek and accept responsibility.
(c) The ability to see a problem in its proper perspective. This ability is simply the capacity to divorce personal emotions from facts.
(d) Loyalty to his men as well as to his superiors.
(e) The ability to perform consistently in a superior manner under adverse conditions.
(f) The respect and admiration the individual merits among the members of the unit.

(3) Recommendations. Seek recommendations
regarding the abilities of the potential leader. The previous jobs held, amount of responsibility, and relationship to the recommending officer are among the things that should be considered in evaluating these recommendations.

(4) *High standards.* This is an excellent indication of competence. Neatness, correct posture, proper behavior, and punctuality are some of the qualities to look for in an individual's standards.

(5) *Administrative records.* When records are available, use them to obtain general background information.

b. Commanders have obtained good results in the past using the following criteria in selecting men for command positions:

(1) Demonstrated ability to do the job (first consideration).

(2) Personality as noted by personal contact with the men.

(3) Length of service.

(4) Experience in the job or similar jobs.

(5) Seniority.

54. Development of Junior Leaders

a. Consider not only the leadership that you exert, but also that of your junior leaders. The quality of your leadership is reflected in the junior leader's ability. Take every opportunity to teach your junior leaders the fundamentals of leadership and their application in order that they may be-
come more effective. A sense of responsibility in junior leaders is best developed by the assignment of duties, setting the standards of accomplishment, setting a personal example, operating the unit through the chain of command, wise counseling, and supervision. The commander must be conscious of the dangers inherent in the usurpation of the junior's prerogatives. Junior leaders must be given complete authority appropriate to their positions.

b. The development of leadership in junior leaders must be a constant concern. A good junior leader not only possesses a sense of responsibility but also possesses leadership ability. This ability can be developed through study, practice and experience in command. This means that junior leaders must be trained. This training is accomplished through—

(1) Periodic rotation of duty assignments (professional education).
(2) Leadership instruction.
(3) Special duty assignments.
(4) Training inspections and field exercises.
(5) Attendance at unit and Army service schools.
(6) Proper study and reading.

c. In dealing with junior leaders, maintain as direct and personal a relationship with them as the situation permits. Let them know what you expect of them, how they are getting along, and ways to improve. Give them credit when due, and be careful to avoid favoritism.
d. With rapid turnover of leaders in every unit, replacement of these individuals is a pressing problem. A system of planning for and preparing these replacements in advance is essential. There is a necessity for training replacements for each key position so that two substitutes are always available. This planning for leaders, in depth of three, becomes even more important in combat where turnover is greater.

e. The leadership ability of junior leaders will have to be of a higher quality in the future than it has been in the past. The concept of atomic warfare will require that small unit leaders rely more and more on their abilities and resources. Units will be required to operate with little feeling of mutual security and with limited supplies. Newer weapons, greater distances between units, new tactics, and more advanced means of communication will produce leadership problems which have no parallel in military history. Success or failure will depend upon how effective commanders are in solving these new problems. Junior leaders must be trained to cope with these new challenges, one of the most pressing of which will be the conservation of fighting strength.

55. Senior-Subordinate Relationship

a. The relationship that exists between the officer and noncommissioned officer must be one of respect and confidence. This same relationship must be maintained between officers of different rank. As a junior officer, you must be respectful
and obedient to your superiors before you can expect your men to respect you.

b. The proper senior-junior relationship is one in which there is close mutual confidence and trust without overfamiliarity. Overfamiliarity breeds contempt and has a tendency to tear down the respect of the men. Base your actions on the way each man performs his job, never on any prejudice you may hold.

c. Your personal influence is a great asset in building harmonious relationships among the leaders of your unit.

d. Proper senior-subordinate relationship means you must know your men and look out for their welfare. Any leader who does not know his men does not know the effectiveness of his unit.

56. Counseling

a. Counseling is talking over a problem with someone. It involves the clearing up of a problem or pointing the way to a solution by discussion or by advice. The most effective counseling is that which encourages a person to think out his own solution. You accomplish this by exhibiting an interest in the problem and by encouraging the man to talk freely. Then, by injecting pertinent ideas and comments, you guide the man's thinking toward a logical solution to his problem.

b. The purpose of counseling is to help develop the ability of each individual to take care of himself—to stand on his own feet without being dependent on others. The end result of counseling
is clear—to teach the individual to adopt, as his own, habits of mind and emotion that will enable him to solve his own problems as they arise, not to encourage him to continue relying upon external help.

c. The range of personal problems arising within a unit is vast and varied. Problems which may require counseling are those involving grievances pertaining to rank and promotion, job assignment, discrimination by others, financial problems, family troubles, morale problems, and many other factors involving the individual’s well-being. It is necessary that you help the individual solve his problems so that his mind will be free from worry and he can concentrate on the job at hand. Proper counseling will assist the man in solving his problems.

d. An understanding of human behavior will help you to find a plausible solution to your men’s problems. Always attempt to understand why a man thinks and acts the way he does.

e. When initiating a counseling program, the following should be included:

   (1) All leaders within a unit should be oriented on the functioning, the need for, and the benefits derived from a counseling program.

   (2) Leaders should make themselves available at any time to give guidance and assistance.

   (3) The soldier should be oriented to take his problems to his immediate leader, and not to violate the chain of command.
f. Following are certain fundamental rules conducive to effective counseling:

(1) Use common understandable words and phrases in your discussions.
(2) Never talk down to your men.
(3) Retain any information secured during counseling in strict confidence.
(4) Make full use of assistance available from the staffs, services, and higher headquarters. You should know where to get the information, the channels, and if possible, know by name the people to whom referrals are made. When you put the soldier in direct contact with the agency or service, you strengthen the soldier’s confidence in your ability. Some of these agencies or services are—Chaplain, Army Medical Service, The American Red Cross, Legal Assistance Officer, The Army Emergency Relief Society, Inspector General, Personnel Officer, Information Officer, Education Officer, and Finance Officer.

57. Reception and Integration

a. The new soldier, finding himself almost entirely separated from his friends and family, must develop a feeling of being part of a group by forming new friendships. In military life he finds that he has much less freedom of choice than in private life, and he has little or no privacy. He feels unimportant. You can make his adjustment less diffi-
cult by explaining the reasons for regimentation during his first few days of service. Tell him about the process of training which makes it impossible for him to live, work, and play as he did in private life. Explain that the Army cannot provide the conveniences of civilian homes and communities.

b. On the other hand, the new soldier may find in the military life a personal freedom greater than he was allowed in his hometown. The restrictions formerly imposed by his parents, teachers, church, and community are remote to him. This sudden release may lead to a great deal of thoughtless and unbridled behavior. Personal counsel and necessary restrictions sometimes help control this problem.

c. It is particularly important that you take special care in the adjustment of the new men, especially in the first few months of service. During this period, the seeds of future personality disorders are usually sown. These disorders will not develop if preventive measures are used.

d. New men must be classified and assigned to units and integrated in such a way that the requirements of the various component units of the organization are met first and that each individual is assigned to a position where he can be expected to perform best. Often problems of morale develop after you have carefully considered the needs of the unit, the individual's capabilities, and his desires. You can eliminate many such problems by—

(1) Utilizing noncommissioned officers' ex-
perience and knowledge of the men in making detailed assignments within the unit.

(2) Emphasizing by personal example of word and deed the importance of the individual’s job to the overall mission. The importance a man attaches to his job is often directly proportional to the leader’s attention to and interest in that job.

(3) Stressing during initial orientation and throughout training the relationship of the individual to the success of the team as a whole.

e. A good program of reception, indicating thoughtful concern for the men’s comfort and welfare, does much to speed their initial adjustment and creates in them a favorable attitude toward their leaders and the Army in general. In order to accomplish this you must—

(1) Keep the program moving. Avoid useless delays and long periods of waiting during processing.

(2) Keep the men informed. Prepare an information program to orient men quickly on their assignments to units.

(3) Allow a short readjustment period during transfer between units. After this period, minimize transfers.

(4) Organize a modified training program for new arrivals pending implementation of the scheduled training program.
Section III. LEADERSHIP OF FEMALE GROUPS

58. Fundamentals

a. The fundamentals of leadership as they pertain to Women's Army Corps personnel (b below), are applicable to all women leaders within the Army; i.e., nurses, dietitians, etc.

b. The 11 principles of leadership are as applicable to officers and noncommissioned officers of the Women's Army Corps (WAC) as to male leaders. WAC officers and noncommissioned officers enhance their value to the Army by developing the same leadership traits and techniques as those prescribed for male leaders. Women, perhaps even more than men, require evidence of personal interest and recognition from their leaders. Genuine concern for others is essential to the leadership of women. The woman leader must control her emotions, guard against professional jealousy and selfish ambition, and strive to conduct her life in a manner to be emulated by her associates. The WAC leader is required to exemplify the highest moral standards. Such leadership traits as justice, integrity, unselfishness, sincerity, decisiveness, tact, and courage are essential to women leaders.

1) Delegation of authority and supervision is equally important among women leaders. They should insure that personnel are assigned duty positions commensurate with demonstrated or potential ability and should help subordinates to recognize their specific contributions to the accomplishment of the Army mission.
(2) The successful woman leader is obliged to set an example of loyalty to the Army, to the command and its policies, and to other members of her unit. The development of leadership traits will enhance the ability of women leaders to inspire subordinates through persuasive methods.

(3) The special leadership techniques which apply principally to combat are presented to WACs theoretically to provide them with knowledge of what is desired of the leaders of combat troops. Since combat training or participation is barred to members of the WACs, disaster training is utilized to develop leadership techniques similar to those emphasized in combat training.

59. Special Considerations

Civil service and other civilian employees, Red Cross workers, Special Services hostesses, librarians, and USO entertainers normally accompany the Armed Forces. Their presence with the Army poses certain problems of leadership for both male and female Army personnel who must be prepared to understand the special problems and requirements of the women.
60. Organization and Control

a. General.

(1) Leaders must understand the principles of a sound organization in order to obtain the best results. "There are no poor units, only poor commanders," is the saying attributed to Napoleon—and it is still worthy of quotation.

(2) Organizing is the process of creating and maintaining conditions necessary for the effective execution of plans. It involves defining and arranging systematically each task in respect to the final accomplishment of the mission. Sound functional organization provides a structure which enables individuals to work together efficiently for the attainment of a common purpose. The extreme test of coordination and organization is evidenced when a unit carries on even when it is literally shot to pieces.

b. Processing for Organizing.

(1) The purpose for organizing may be discussed under three headings: determining the job, setting up the structure, and
allocating the resources. These functions are performed as a result of thorough planning.

(2) The job to be accomplished may have to be decentralized by listing each phase of each operation. Each single phase is then taken and a similar process repeated. The process is continued until there is a detailed listing of the operations which must be accomplished to get the job done. The grouping of tasks for a specific assignment should be related so that they may readily be accomplished. All assignments should be interrelated to assure an integrated effort. There should be no duplication of effort, and responsibilities should be clearly defined.

(3) Setting up the structure results in an organization chart and a TOE. The organization chart shows where authority lies, command channels, and the relationship of components. The TOE puts similar information into tabular form and indicates the placement of men and equipment allocated to a unit.

(4) A commander will work with a unit organized under TOE, as directed by competent authority. His prerogative may be exercised in development of the functional organization of his command. He may organize his staff and unit commanders according to his own visualiza-
tion of conditions required to enhance the effectiveness of his unit. Prompt determination should be made of the internal organization required for the conduct of tactical operations, and that organization should be placed in effect for all phases of the life of the unit.

61. Span of Control

a. The span of control must be fully appreciated by any person who is to become a successful leader. By definition, span of control is the number of immediate subordinates one commander can effectively control, supervise, or direct. Violation of the span of control leads only to cumbersome and inefficient organization. An individual’s ability to control the activities of others is limited by many psychological and physical factors.

b. From the psychological viewpoint, one must recognize that a person can only pay attention to a limited number of things at one time. Each new task assigned distracts a person from the work already assigned, and too many projects cause one to lose sight of the real objective. In addition, each individual has many previously acquired attitudes which influence his approach to a problem. These attitudes may be so strong as to predetermine his idea of what is correct about a certain problem. He may close his mind to any attempt to change this point of view. This is a mind-set. A mind-set can result in many misinterpretations and misunderstandings. One may not hear what is said or may interpret what has been said as supporting his
view. A strict disciplinarian taking a course of instruction in the use of reward and punishment in military leadership may actually be stimulated by instruction in the proper and improper use of both reward and punishment, but he will perceive only that punishment is good and reward is bad. In the case of a subordinate who is greatly admired, this mind-set concerning him may cause the commander to be unable to see that he is actually inefficient or is the cause of friction in the organization. The span of attention, thus, is further restricted by the mind-set.

c. The physical factors which influence effective control include time, distance, and the arithmetical progression of human relationships involved. Most people easily recognize that there is a definite limit as to how much work an individual can accomplish during a given period of time. It is also readily understood that the greater the distance separating the locations of persons or activities, the more difficult becomes the task of controlling them. Also, for each individual brought directly under the control of a commander, the number of human relationships he must be concerned with increases manyfold. In the case of one person controlling two individuals he will be concerned with three relationships. This is his personal relationship with each individual and their relationship with each other. If, however, another individual is added, he will be concerned with six relationships. This factor—the mathematical complex of human relationships—must not be overlooked.
d. A commander should supervise at least three people; otherwise, he should be doing part of the work himself. This figure should be considered minimum due to economy and efficiency. It is much more difficult to determine the maximum number of people one can supervise adequately. This number will depend on the following:

(1) The experience and training of the leader (commander).
(2) The experience and training of the men being supervised.
(3) The amount of communication between the leader and his men.
(4) The degree to which the jobs performed by the men are similar.
(5) The operating distance (radius of action) between the leader and his men.
(6) The time available for the organization to translate decisions into actions.
(7) The personality of the leader and the men being led.

62. Chain of Command

a. The chain of command is a succession of commanders from a superior to a junior through which command is exercised. This is also known as the command channel. The leader must understand this chain if he is to have an effective unit.

b. Effective operation of the chain necessitates that—

(1) Sufficient authority be delegated to indi-
viduals responsible for the accomplishment of tasks.

(2) Definite responsibilities be assigned for each task to be accomplished.

(3) Men know for whom they are working and to whom they are responsible.

(4) Men be required to initiate all requests through their immediate commander or his staff.

(5) Each man be aware of his place in the chain of command.

(6) Any man not have more than one superior giving him orders.

63. The Commander-Staff Officer Relationship

a. The staff officer occupies a position of detailed planning and exacting demands in the service he performs for his commander. He must subordinate his own personal aspirations to the desires and decisions of the commander.

b. The primary function of the staff is to assist the commander in performing his duties. The responsibilities of command remain with the commander and cannot be delegated to any members of his staff. Staff officers, therefore, only issue orders of and for the commander.

c. A good staff officer keeps himself informed by frequent visits to commanders of subordinate units. He interprets and explains policy, orders, and directives. He observes the execution of the commander’s desires and advises him concerning the extent to which they are being executed.
d. Tact is a desirable characteristic when dealing with higher headquarters, troops, and junior commanders. It is also needed within the staff where cooperation and coordination can be seriously hindered by petty jealousies and minor differences in personalities.

e. The commander will logically expect a staff officer to—

(1) Work in close harmony with other staff members, higher and parallel commands, and with lower units.

(2) Correctly analyze, properly evaluate, and recommend sound courses of action on problems arising within the command.

(3) Prepare directives for lower commands based on the commander's policies.

(4) Keep the commander completely informed without "spying" on the unit.

(5) Develop in lower units the feeling that they can rely on the actions of the staff officer, and welcome their visits.

(6) Insure that complete coordination will be obtained prior to taking or recommending an action.
CHAPTER 8
LEADERSHIP IN COMBAT

64. Willingness for Combat of the American Soldier

a. How do unfavorable attitudes developed in the soldier during training relate to his combat performance? Many commanders have stated: “Suppose that many combat soldiers did have unfavorable attitudes. What of it? They fought, didn’t they?” The question still remains: How well did they fight in relation to their potential abilities?

b. During World War II, the research branch, Department of the Army conducted a series of studies on the willingness for combat of the American soldier. These studies support the fact that attitudes and performances during training are related to performance in combat and that individuals who had the least satisfactory attitude relating to combat while in training later tended to be relatively poor combat soldiers. The results of these surveys also showed that at least 24 percent of the men said that they would rather not, or felt they could not, kill an enemy soldier. It is vitally important that the leader in training be sensitive to his men’s attitudes and strive to build an attitude of confidence in their combat skills.

c. Further studies indicated that a large percentage of the available firepower in units was
never fully developed. This failure to fire was due, in part, to the soldier's belief that firing his weapon entailed increased exposure. Primarily, however, it was due to a paralysis caused by such fears as being wounded or disfigured, lack of confidence in weapons, in leaders, in fellow soldiers, or in himself.

65. Factors Adversely Affecting Combat Effectiveness

a. Factors adversely affecting the combat potential of the command include fear, panic, discouragement, isolation, and lack of confidence by the individual in himself, in his unit, or in his leaders. The presence of fear and a tendency to panic fluctuate with changes in condition of the troops, in degree of tactical success, and physical conditions on the battlefield. Normally, it is the commander of the small unit who must sense the development of situations interpreted by the troops as critical and who must take personal action to eliminate conditions conducive to fear and panic. However, it is largely the commander of the large unit who trains and indoctrinates the small unit commander and who initiates policies that help him to counteract fear and panic.

b. The disruption of mutual support among elements of the combat unit sometimes results in the isolation of units on the battlefield. In such situations, units should not be allowed to feel that they have been forgotten, neglected, or abandoned, or that they are in any way acting alone or fighting a "sacrifice" mission. They must be assured that
the commander adequately appreciates their position, is confident of their ability to extricate themselves from the situation and to perform their mission creditably, and will assist them in every way possible.

66. Fear

a. Fear, although a painful emotion that may at times be incapacitating, is actually nature’s way of preparing the body for action. Body functioning is stepped up; sugar and adrenalin are released into the blood to act as fuel for the fight ahead; there is a temporary loss of any feeling of fatigue. Even blood clots more readily!

b. Nevertheless, it is sometimes difficult for a tense, frightened soldier to look upon fear in the light of body chemistry, especially if his period of fright is prolonged. He may become helpless and demoralized, completely paralyzed or immobilized by his fear.

c. It is here that training and discipline pay off. Training will teach the soldier to respond from force of habit to specific battle orders, even though battle commands often cannot be given as in training. It will become second nature to him to carry out his own job as a member of the fighting team—to begin the action that will relieve his fear.

67. Rumors

a. Rumors are essentially anonymous communications that yield readily to distribution. Those which seem plausible under existing conditions cir-
calculate rapidly. Rumors destroy confidence and create uncertainty. In combat, when soldiers may be uncertain and insecure, rumors may create an illusion and a critical situation where, in reality, none exists. Thus rumors create a condition of high susceptibility to emotional and irrational behavior. The hearers become excited and react in an unreasonable fashion to even weak suggestions. Additional rumors can incite a mob action or panic. Rumors are most effective when the individual sees them as plausible or suitable to his circumstances. However, once the characteristics of mass psychology destroy the ability to reason, rumors no longer require credence to be acceptable. This was one of the bases of the propaganda campaigns of our adversaries in World War II. The most fantastic rumors were accepted without analysis because people were fearful and lacked factual information in a critical situation.

b. A rumor that supports a suspicion or a hatred, verifies a fear, or expresses a hope will be repeated and reinforced by the emotions of the teller. When rumors spread rapidly and far, it means that hates, fears, or hopes are common to the many people who are doing the repeating. Rumors are repeated even by those who do not believe them because they provide a chance to express an emotion which would otherwise have to be suppressed.

c. Confidence varies continually between overconfidence and shaken confidence. Rumor causes violent fluctuations between these extremes. For this reason, rumors must be controlled. Effective
Rumor control requires an attentive ear to detect and identify rumors and specific action to discredit and eliminate them at the source. Rumors originated by the enemy necessitate counterintelligence measures to determine their source. Specific control measures applicable to all rumors include—

1. Information programs.

2. Disseminating information on plans and operations as complete as security requirements permit. Give the troops as many facts as possible.

3. Finding out and attempting to eliminate the basic conditions creating uncertainty and frustrations before they accumulate.

4. Keeping informed regarding current rumors in the unit. A long range program of instilling faith in the information passed out by the chain of command is better than a point-for-point rebuttal of rumors passed along the "grapevine." Soldiers want information! If factual information is not expeditiously supplied by the chain of command, then the "rumor campaigns" take over. The obvious disadvantage of replying directly to rumors is that the rumors may be reinforced and given creditability.

5. By example and instruction, emphasizing democratic principles to eliminate hatred, prejudice, and animosity.

6. Developing confidence in individuals toward their leaders.
d. Keeping your men informed assumes a major role on the battlefield. A soldier who is uninformed or misinformed cannot be expected to produce at his maximum ability in combat. Men must know what is expected of them and what means they have at their disposal to assist them in accomplishing the mission. Troops who are aware beforehand of the enemy's capabilities exert a positive influence toward successful accomplishment of the mission.

68. Panic

a. Panic develops when a soldier is overcome with fear. It may be evidenced by sudden flight or by freezing in place. Panic may develop in a group faced with sudden catastrophe or from a few individuals fleeing from destruction in a critical situation. The critical situations responsible for the mass emotion of fear may be real, as in the case of bombing raids, or imaginary, such as those created by terror, enemy propaganda, and malicious gossip. The seeds of panic are always present in troops as long as they believe that physical danger is near.

b. The emotion of fear reaches panic proportions only when individuals believe themselves incapable of overcoming a critical situation. When emotional tension is produced by a critical situation, individuals become excitable and highly susceptible to suggestion. Nothing is more likely to collapse a line of infantry in combat than the sight of a few of its number in full and unexplained flight to the
rear. Sudden and unexplained motion in the wrong direction is an open invitation to disaster. As panic spreads, a man will join a disorganized fleeing crowd without stopping to ask why they are running. When discipline breaks, only a small minority of the most hardy individuals will retain self-control. The others cannot stand fast if the circumstances appear to justify flight. The obvious fear among the panicked troops is evidence that there is something to be afraid of and to escape from.

c. Any suggested or observed movement may be interpreted as a means of escape and cause of sudden flight. This flight is not generally focused upon a known goal other than escape, but is rapidly canalized in a certain direction. Someone has to be the first to break and run. Studies of local panics during Korea revealed that a lack of information and the sight of running men were the real crux of the fear. It was found that those who had started to run, and who in doing so had started a panic, rationalized an excuse for their action.

d. The emotion of fear is reinforced by escape action to such a degree that reason is greatly reduced. A soldier in panic runs without much rational thought. His fear is increased by the fears of his fleeing companions, and his field of attention is narrowed. He is forgetful of honor and discipline.

e. Troops in combat are continually in the presence of a situation threatening death or bodily harm. During such times of stress, they are subject to all of the anxieties and fears conducive to
panic. Experienced troops who are well trained, organized, disciplined, and led seldom give way to panic because they are confident of their ability to master any situation regardless of its critical nature. This power to resist fear and panic fluctuates according to psychological and physiological conditions of the troops, the degree of tactical success, and the physical conditions of the battlefield. You must constantly measure and strengthen the confidence of your command. You must realize that even experienced and well-trained troops have panicked in situations which appeared beyond their control as a result of rumor or unfavorable circumstances. You must sense the development of situations interpreted by the troops as critical and take action to eliminate conditions conducive to panic.

f. You should recognize and compensate or minimize the following conditions that lead to uncertainty and panic:

1. Physical conditions—scarcity of arms and ammunition, insufficient supporting weapons, fog, darkness, woods, baptism of fire, and introduction of new enemy weapons.
2. Physiological conditions—hunger, thirst, fatigue, and exhaustion.
3. Psychological conditions—danger (real or imaginary), anxiety, insecurity, ignorance of the military situation, tension, and expectant waiting.
4. Morale conditions—homesickness, lack of mail, boredom, rumor, defeatist attitude,
loss of confidence in leaders, and lack of belief in the cause.

(5) Tactical conditions—destruction of organization, heavy losses, reverses, conflicting orders, and poor communications. Panic is rarely caused by the strength of enemy action. There is danger of panic in a withdrawal. For this reason, carefully control withdrawals at all times. During a rearward movement, keep troops fully informed, within the limits of security, as to why it is being done and how and where the new line of resistance will be established.

(6) Leadership conditions—absence of leaders, loss of good leaders, and lack of confidence in the ability of leaders.

g. The ultimate defense against panic lies in good leadership, not only when panic starts but also in the months of training during which the troops are becoming seasoned.

h. You must take immediate and decisive action at the first sign of panic. Unity of action is often restored by the prompt action of the leader or a few volunteers who stand squarely in the path of flight, command the men to turn back, and do not hesitate to manhandle those men who come within reach or to threaten the others with weapons. Likewise, to the soldier who is in terror and verging on panic, no influence can be more steadying than to see some other soldier near him, and especially the leader, retaining his self-control and doing his duty.
i. A logical course of action to control panic includes the following:

(1) Decisive action on the part of the commander and his junior leaders.

(2) Presence of the commander and his display of a calm, confident attitude.

(3) Physical restraint on the part of the commander and junior leaders to stop men who are in a state of panic.

(4) Threatening men with weapon if all other means fail.

(5) Constant alertness for the development of conditions which produce panic.

69. Spirit of the Offensive (Maintaining Momentum)

a. The creation of a desire to close with and destroy the enemy is highly important in developing aggressiveness in military units. In a large measure it is gained by expert training, by the fostering of confidence, and through success in combat. Aggressive action is essential to secure objectives with minimum combat losses. The problem of maintaining aggressiveness is intensified during periods of inactivity.

b. Attainment of objectives depends on restoring the effectiveness of those units weakened by enemy action. With the rapid movement of modern warfare, it is imperative that ineffective men and equipment be replaced quickly. This entails efficient movement, proper reserve and support positions, and assignment of units to missions within
their capabilities. To retain combat effectiveness, you should—

1. Insure that the chain of command remains intact.
2. Maintain momentum and utilize firepower.
3. Instill in men an aggressive attitude and a desire to destroy the enemy.
4. Effectively use supporting fires to supplement organic firepower.
5. Teach the unit to lean into supporting fires when attacking.
6. Teach men to “talk it up” and support one another when moving.
7. Constantly train to improve proficiency in weapon utilization and tactical maneuvers.
8. Stress battlefield discipline and individual responsibilities.
9. Set the example that you desire your men to emulate.

70. Restoration of Fighting Effectiveness

a. The fighting effectiveness of a unit decreases after sustained action or heavy losses, or during defensive situations and periods of inactivity. Units suffering heavy losses in men and equipment require time in a reserve position to assimilate replacements and reorganize.

b. One of the most effective means of restoring
the confidence and esprit de corps of a unit which has failed or performed poorly in battle is to have it carry out creditably the same or commensurate tasks. The situation may dictate additional training or a change in command.

c. The following actions will help to rebuild confidence and esprit de corps and insure the maintenance of combat effectiveness:

(1) Keep informed on the status of personnel, weapons, equipment, and training so that replacements of personnel and equipment are made rapidly and provisions are made for the proper integration of new men.

(2) Personally observe units in action in order to better assess their capabilities. Require additional training of the unit if the situation warrants.

(3) Constantly improve battle techniques and disseminate proven methods to the units.

(4) Carefully observe the physical, emotional, and mental state of the troops. Disseminate data on enemy casualties, the number of prisoners captured, and the amount of enemy equipment destroyed.

(5) Improve the health and welfare of the troops by emphasizing battle discipline to reduce unnecessary losses from all causes. These may include trenchfoot, malaria, and poor field sanitation, as well as enemy fire.

(6) Insure that the chain of command re-
mains intact by prompt replacement of commanders lost in action.

(7) Orient troops on the situation, pointing out that inactivity or defense is always a prelude to offensive combat.

(8) Command and reward the display of aggressiveness on the part of individuals and units. Express confidence in the unit's combat ability.

(9) Provide for and insure the proper use of the fire support plan.

71. Support of Isolated Units

a. The effect of enemy action sometimes results in the isolation of units on the battlefield. In such situations, units must be assured that the commander adequately appreciates their position and is confident of their ability to extricate themselves from the situation and perform their mission creditably. To prevent a deterioration of confidence and aggressiveness, furnish every possible support to isolated units.

b. Some specific steps are—

(1) Never let a unit think it has been abandoned.

(2) Immediately furnish all possible fire support.

(3) Make a positive attempt to assist.

(4) Reconstitute a chain of command if necessary.

(5) Keep unit informed of all actions being taken.
72. Relations With Commanders of Supporting Units

a. When a unit of another arm or service supports his unit but is not attached, the commander may request, but cannot order, the desired assistance. However, the commander of the supporting unit must regard a request as an order unless it conflicts with orders of his commander.

b. The commander of the supporting unit, like the commander of the attached units, is an advisor to the commander. He advises the commander on the capabilities and limitations of the supporting unit. He recommends ways and means by which it may be best employed to serve the needs of the supported unit. He makes every effort to render the desired support.

c. The commander must keep supporting unit commanders informed of the situation and of the support he wishes to obtain. In order that the support rendered by the supporting unit be effective, it is necessary that adequate communication and liaison between the unit and supporting units be maintained by the supporting organization. The supporting unit must be kept informed of the movements and plans of the unit and locations of its forward elements and command post.

d. Attached units are subject to the decisions and orders of the commander. The attached unit commander is an advisor to the major unit commander on matters affecting the employment of the attached unit. The commander’s relationships with the attached unit are the same as with organic units.
73. Leadership for Attached Units to Include Allied Units

a. One of the major leadership problems that confront the commanders of larger commands such as groups, divisions, corps, and armies, is the proper handling of attached units. In corps especially there is a frequent turnover of divisions and separate units during the course of a campaign. The corps commander has the difficult problem of integrating newly attached units into the corps effort and of giving them a sense of belonging to the team. This calls for certain leadership techniques of a special nature in addition to the more general techniques previously discussed.

b. With the many alliances that the United States has made with the nations of the world, senior commanders can expect to have allied units attached on many occasions. To integrate newly attached units into his command, the commander should—

(1) Establish communication with a newly attached unit at the earliest practicable time.

(2) Insure that liaison is established with a unit as soon as he learns it is to be attached.

(3) Deliver promptly a brief of all current standing operating procedures and administrative policies to the commander and staff of a newly attached unit.

(4) Make all necessary administrative arrangements for the efficient reception of a unit newly attached to his command.
(5) Insure that administrative responsibility for attached units is clearly defined and promptly accepted.

(6) Require only necessary reporting to his headquarters by attached units.

(7) Require his staff to observe the chain of command in dealing with attached units.

(8) Visit attached units, even though they may be further attached to subordinate units.

(9) Require his staff to visit newly attached units to ascertain what assistance his command can render.

(10) Be familiar with the history of every unit attached to his command.

(11) Insist that subordinate commanders include attached units in recommendations for decorations and awards.

(12) Encourage commanders of attached units to make their problems or suggestions known to him.

(13) Check plans of subordinate commanders to see that attached units are not discriminated against in missions assigned.

(14) See that attached units receive their fair share of all privileges and welfare activities. Make these units feel that they are an integral part of his team.

(15) Write a letter of appreciation to a departing unit whenever its service merits such action.
(16) In the case of allied units, every effort must be made to obtain interpreters and to assist the attached commander with any problems peculiar to the customs of his army.

(17) By example, lessen the difficulties of the language barrier with allied units by attempting to learn words, phrases, idioms, and conversational sentences of their language.
### APPENDIX I

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APPENDIX II

COMBAT EXAMPLES OF SMALL UNIT LEADERSHIP

COMBAT EXAMPLE NO. 1: While the Eighth Army was in a static position in Korea, an officer took over a company that was low in combat effectiveness. The battalion commander warned the officer of this and told him that the battalion would go into a limited attack in two weeks.

The new company commander decided to observe his men for four days and try to get to know his platoon leaders and NCO’s before making any radical changes in the company routine. However, just to let the company know that it could expect changes in policy, he corrected at once a few minor deficiencies as they came to his attention.

After four days he called his platoon leaders to an orientation meeting. He told them that he had been studying the company situation for the past few days and had found nothing basically wrong, but that he had found several things that had to be done to get the men on their toes again.

For their health and comfort, he told the platoon leaders to have their men construct squad shelters and dig squad latrines; he added that he wanted the platoon leaders to check with the squad leaders every day to see that the men were massaging their feet and changing socks frequently enough to ward off trenchfoot.
As a matter of self-discipline, he wanted the men to shave daily and wear their helmets; and he told his platoon leaders to check every man on his ability to fire well and clean his weapon adequately. He further directed that they spend half an hour each day on bayonet training.

To improve patrolling, he gave his talks on the subject with open forum discussion. He personally took out a platoon patrol to demonstrate correct patrol procedure.

When his company went into the attack it secured its objective in a minimum of time and with fewer casualties than any other company in the battalion. After the attack, the men of the company gave their commander full credit for transforming them into an efficient combat unit. Officers and men said, “We couldn’t let our CO down.”

ANALYSIS. It is doubtful whether the work of this company commander could have been better performed by anyone. He sized up the situation, worked through and with his subordinates, and issued only those orders that were needed to improve the training and welfare of his men. Several leadership principles stand out as the basis for this commander’s work, the most prominent being—set the example; know your men and look out for their welfare; and insure that the task is understood, supervised, and accomplished.

COMBAT EXAMPLE NO. 2: After the Remagen bridgehead was secured and during the breakout that followed, the commander of one of the leading companies was assigned the mission of
attacking a fortified hill to his front. In his orders for that operation, the battalion commander specified the direction of attack for the company.

The company commander made his reconnaissance. And during this reconnaissance he discovered that the direction of attack as laid down by his orders had vital disadvantages. The company commander was not a man who disobeyed orders, but he felt that in view of the information he had obtained, he should recommend that his battalion commander authorize a change in plans.

On the strength of his reconnaissance, the company commander recommended to the battalion commander a different avenue of approach for the attack. At first the battalion commander was reluctant to accept a change in his plans. But after examining all the information that the company commander had discovered during his reconnaissance and after listening to his reasons for selecting a different direction, he consented.

The company launched its attack using the new direction of attack recommended by the company commander. It secured its objectives, suffering only a few casualties. Moreover, the company captured 75 prisoners and destroyed 2 tanks.

After this action was completed, a reconnaissance disclosed some startling facts. Had the company attacked by the original plans, it would have hit, head on, the enemy's final protective lines as well as his defensive wire; it would have been exposed to direct fire from enemy tanks; it would have had a distressing number of casualties; and it might not have secured its objective.
ANALYSIS. The importance of personal reconnaissance as well as the use of skillful maneuver is clearly seen. By stating and adhering to his own convictions, the company commander exercised the leadership trait of moral courage. He also displayed the trait of knowledge; with this trait he was able to evaluate his discoveries made during his reconnaissance and was able to plan an effective maneuver for the attack.

COMBAT EXAMPLE NO. 3: The first night after the Chinese intervened in the Korean hostilities was a tough one. Company E was engaged in a heavy fire fight as part of a task force ordered to delay the enemy. The company repulsed two battalion-size assaults, inflicting heavy casualties on the enemy. But due to the frozen ground and the time factor, Company E had not been able to dig in and its own casualties were excessively high. Also, communication with the company CP was knocked out and ammunition for the mortars and recoilless rifles was desperately short.

The enemy withdrew at 0400 to regroup. During the lull, the weapons platoon leader drew the last of the 60-mm and 57-mm ammunition from the task force ammunition distributing point.

In the first few minutes of the next assault, the weapons platoon fired its last round of ammunition. The platoon sergeant then turned to his platoon leader in hopeless frustration and asked, "What do we do now, Lieutenant?"

"We're going to disassemble the breechblocks from the 57's and hide them," the lieutenant said.
“Hide the mortars, too. Then we’re going to turn ourselves into a rifle platoon and join the fire fight on the hill. Get the word to the mortar men over in the draw.”

The men worked fast. They armed themselves with whatever weapons they could lay their hands on. Acting as a rifle platoon, they fought their way up the hill and engaged the enemy hand-to-hand. Thirty minutes later the enemy called it off for the night. Company E had 55 men still on their feet and 26 of these were from the weapons platoon.

**ANALYSIS.** This platoon leader was outstanding in the leadership traits of initiative, decisiveness, and courage. He made a sound and timely decision to have his men operate as a rifle platoon. He took responsibility for his action. If he had waited for an order from his company commander, he could not have joined the fight on the hill where his assistance meant victory for his company.

**COMBAT EXAMPLE NO. 4:** Company L was understrength as a result of months of hard fighting in Korea. To make matters worse, it was held on a hill by mortar and machinegun fire. A Chinese machinegun on the company’s left flank covered the draw to the front, and a bunker up the road served as an enemy OP, giving cover to a crew of Chinese who were directing mortar and artillery fire.

Sergeant John Doe commanded a platoon that was then little more than a squad—only 12 men. With this team of 12 men and one tank, Doe was assigned the task of taking the hill and the bunker.
The sergeant studied his map and made a personal reconnaissance. As he went over his plans, he recalled that the battalion S2 had said there was a long trench directly behind the bunker. He then met with the tank commander and the two worked out their plan of attack point by point. Next, he brought the 12 men of his platoon together and carefully oriented them on the attack.

The tank-infantry team moved out together. The tank was to keep firing as long as possible without endangering the advancing foot soldiers.

When they arrived within 350 yards of the bunker, enemy artillery, mortar, and machinegun fire started coming in. Sergeant Doe called for his own artillery support. He kept the platoon moving toward the enemy as fast as they could walk. Every man in the platoon could hear him yelling, "Keep moving, you! They can't hit us!"

Just after his own artillery and tank fire was lifted, the platoon reached the bunker. The sergeant dropped a couple of hand grenades inside. Leaving two men to guard the bunker, the sergeant prodded the rest of his platoon on until they reached the trench—the one the S2 mentioned. There Doe found 31 stunned Chinese ready to surrender.

After having all prisoners searched, he selected one of them to go back with him to the bunker. By having the prisoner enter the bunker ahead of him and making him shift all suspicious equipment as he moved through, Doe safeguarded himself against possible boobytraps.
After he searched the bunker, the sergeant sent the prisoners back. Then he began setting up his defense. Only nine of his men were left now, but they dug in to defend their position throughout the night. The next morning help arrived.

**ANALYSIS.** This leader was *technically* and *tactically proficient* because he planned after a careful reconnaissance and after conferring with his tank commander. He *set the example* by leading the attack. He had his troops advance close behind the artillery fire even though he knew that without the support of artillery the hazards of enemy fire were greater than the hazards of short rounds. When he came under enemy artillery and mortar fire, he pressed his men on toward the objective because he knew that the enemy seldom shortens his range when his fire is already falling close to his own position. His immediate reorganization and setting up of a defense on his captured position clinched the success of the operation he had so carefully planned.

**COMBAT EXAMPLE NO. 5:** During his early training, the lieutenant had learned well the devastating effects that contaminated water could have on the human body. Now he was in command of the 3d platoon of one of the first engineer companies to fight in the Korean conflict.

In the early days of the fighting in Korea, the only watering points available were the nearest streams, wells, or rice paddies—all of which were contaminated. Usually, a detail of one or two men collected the empty canteens from the other men.
of the platoon, filled them at the nearest source of water, and returned them to their owners. Each man was supplied with halazone tablets and had been instructed to use them. However, on inspection, the lieutenant found that few of his men had voluntarily used the halazone.

To guard against the effects of contaminated water, the lieutenant first issued an order that no soldier could fill his own canteen—all empty canteens were to be turned in at his CP. When enough of these were collected to warrant a trip to the watering point, the lieutenant sent a couple of men to fill the canteens. But they were ordered to return the full canteens to the CP—not to their owners. Upon the return of the full canteens, the lieutenant personally saw to it that in each canteen the required number of halazone tablets were dissolved. Then he waited 30 minutes before issuing the canteens to their owners. It takes that long for the tablets to have their full effect on the deadly micro-organisms in the water.

The men complained because they did not like the taste of the halazoned water. A few tried to fill their own canteens on the sly but the lieutenant put a quick stop to that. Then he called his men together and patiently explained the dangers that lurk in untreated contaminated water.

The results of the lieutenant's careful supervision over the treatment of each man's drinking water are evident in the records of his company. His was the only platoon in the company that did not evacuate one or more men with dysentery.
Because of actions like this—some of which at first seemed to be needless—his men soon learned to have a feeling of deep respect for this leader.

**ANALYSIS.** This platoon leader thoroughly understood and fulfilled his obligations to his men by looking after their welfare. He had the moral courage to do the unpopular thing in order to maintain an efficient fighting unit. He did not remain unpopular because his actions soon proved to his men that their welfare was of great concern to him.

Some men take little care of themselves even though the rules for maintaining good health under fighting conditions are repeatedly explained to them. Some will try every conceivable subterfuge to avoid taking inoculations and internal preventive medicines such as atabrine. It is the leader’s responsibility to see that all health measures are carried out by each of his men.

**COMBAT EXAMPLE NO. 6:** The transportation truck company was bivouacked in a muddy little orchard with a narrow, slippery road leading out of it. Enemy heavy mortar and artillery fire began falling in the area and began creeping in on the company. It was obvious that the enemy had spotted the bivouac. The company commander told his vehicle commanders to bring their trucks out and move about 500 yards to the reverse slope of a hill. Considerable confusion ensued, and the drivers began to get panic stricken.

The company commander realized the situation and deliberately moved to the road where the ve-
hicles came to it from the orchard. He motioned each vehicle onto the road just as if he were directing traffic in his home town. He knew that if one vehicle slipped into the ditch, the others would be unable to get out of the orchard. However, each driver seeing the company commander calmly standing in the road, drove out of the orchard as if he were driving out of a vehicle park. One of the sergeants later said that if the company commander had not been there, he would have taken off in flight.

ANALYSIS. It is essential that a leader cultivate a calm controlled manner. Often an act is less important than the manner in which it is done. A leader, particularly, must control his physical reactions and facial expressions. An outward appearance of calmness on his part will do much to instill confidence in his men. This demands self-control and self-discipline by the leader.

COMBAT EXAMPLE NO. 7: At this stage of fighting in Korea no reserves remained to give relief. The platoon had suffered sixteen casualties within the past two weeks and the platoon sergeant was now the acting platoon leader. The men were dead-tired, but the platoon was ordered to attack a high ridge to the front.

Intelligence reports indicated that the ridge was held by only a handful of enemy who might be knocked off their positions with no great difficulty.

The platoon attacked, and advanced slowly to a point within 50 yards of the top of the ridge. At this point the enemy were evidently out of all other
ammunition and began throwing concussion grenades.

The concussion grenade used by the Communists in Korea at the time of this attack was not much more dangerous in the open than a giant firecracker. Unfortunately the men in this attacking platoon did not understand this. The exploding grenades made a terrific noise which caused the men to drop behind what cover they could find and stop their advance. By the time the platoon sergeant had evaluated the situation, many of the men had already turned and withdrawn to their original line of departure.

The sergeant did not give in but told his men, "I'll show you there is no danger." He climbed the ridge alone and proceeded to walk its entire length, outlining himself against the skyline. Impressed by the daring of their platoon sergeant and realizing that the situation was not so dangerous as they had thought, the men readily resumed the attack under the command of the assistant platoon sergeant. The objective was taken without casualties.

**ANALYSIS.** The sergeant realized that no threats of punishment would cause his men to attack. By setting a courageous example himself, his men were enabled to control their fear and continue the attack.

When men become afraid on the battlefield, the sight of their leader calmly going about his work with no obvious fear will inspire them to continue their mission.
COMBAT EXAMPLE NO. 8: On 2 November 1950, orders were received by an infantry battalion to move from its present position north, about 40 miles, to cover the withdrawal of a regiment. The battalion was on the new position at dusk on 2 November. The Chinese Communists had just entered the war. The next morning the regiment passed through the battalion position. As it cleared the position, the battalion commander received orders to withdraw to the village of ANJU some 5 miles south just across the CHON-CHON River. He made plans for the withdrawal and directed the heavy weapons company commander to have the 81-mm mortar platoon remain in position, to cover by fire the withdrawal of the other units.

The Chinese attacked while the withdrawal was in progress. Lieutenant Mike, the mortar platoon leader, had his platoon continue to fire until all the 81-mm ammunition was expended. He then took stock of the number of men with him, their weapons, ammunition, food, water and whether or not they were wounded. He had only 11 soldiers. From his position on the reverse slope of one of the highest hills in the area he could see the Chinese columns in the valley behind him and on many of the ridges to either flank. His only vehicle had been destroyed by enemy artillery. He made a quick estimate of the situation and decided that the platoon must evade capture and rejoin the battalion and that the mortars should be destroyed in place. While thermite grenades were placed in all mortar tubes, Lieutenant Mike, looked for areas which were not occupied by the enemy, in an
attempt to locate an escape route that the platoon could use.

It was early afternoon as the platoon began to move in the direction of the CHON-CHON River, utilizing a small ridge that ran in that direction. They had moved approximately 800 yards when an enemy patrol about platoon size was observed a short distance to the north, moving in their direction. This caused them to change their direction. As they came opposite the battalion command post location they could look down into the area. Men were walking around, U.S. vehicles were in a normal position—the scene was very peaceful.

Lieutenant Mike cautioned the men to move quickly and quietly past the area. However, one of the men could not resist and called out, “Are you guys GI’s?” The answer came in the form of machinegun and rifle fire. Two men were killed and all but one of the platoon were wounded. Enemy soldiers started in their direction. Lieutenant Mike urged the men to move quickly along the ridgeline and he remained behind to delay the enemy patrol. This enabled the platoon to escape and shortly Lieutenant Mike rejoined his platoon. It was dark by this time and the men wanted to stop and sleep. Lieutenant Mike allowed the men to rest for a short period then required them to move out to take advantage of darkness. They managed to reach the bank of the CHON-CHON River without being detected by the enemy. They could hear talking across the river but remembering their earlier experience, Lieutenant Mike decided to conceal the group in a ravine near the river and await day-
light which was just an hour or two away. The river was frozen and at dawn Lieutenant Mike left the concealed platoon and made a reconnaissance. He clearly identified the U. S. positions on the far side of the river and took his platoon back into the friendly positions.

ANALYSIS. Situations will occur on the battlefield that put the leader under great stress. This is one of those instances. Lieutenant Mike had shown his dependability by attention to duty on a difficult mission. He used a keen sense of judgment in estimating the situation and deciding on a course of action. He made a sound and timely decision when, after expending all ammunition, he planned to evade capture and return to friendly lines. He remembered his basic responsibility for welfare of his men by taking stock of their condition. During the evasion, one of the men created quite a problem for Lieutenant Mike by yelling and drawing enemy fire on the platoon. Lieutenant Mike quickly got the survivors moving and with a demonstration of courage and unselfishness made possible the escape. By a knowledge of evasion tactics, he kept the platoon moving at night and then carefully planned the daylight move into friendly lines.
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By Order of Wilber M. Brucker, Secretary of the Army:

MAXWELL D. TAYLOR,
General, United States Army,
Chief of Staff.

Official:

R. V. LEE,
Major General, United States Army,
The Adjutant General.

Distribution:

Active Army:

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CNGB (2)
CLL (2)
CMH (2)
Dir of Sp Warfare (2)
TIG (2)
TJAG (2)
NG: State AG (3); units—same as Active Army except allowance is one copy to each unit.

USAR: Same as Active Army except allowance is one copy to each unit.

For explanation of abbreviations used, see AR 320-50.